The Development and Embedding of new knowledge and practice in a profession

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10 School Development Plans: Their History and Their Potential

MARILYN LEASK

Introduction

This chapter traces the growth of planning of in-service training (INSET) and whole school development in England and Wales, and explores the potential role of the school development plan (SDP) in the locally managed schools of the 1990s.

The development of the whole school planning process is placed within the context of the political influences on education over the last decade. The loss of autonomy of schools, the move to central government control and the attempts to increase local accountability through the governing body have had profound implications for the ways schools are managed. Attention is drawn to the advantages of a whole school approach to planning (resulting in the production, implementation and evaluation of a school development plan) in enabling heads and governing bodies to manage the changes they are currently facing and will continue to face into the 1990s.

The Challenge of the 1990s

How can standards be raised? This question was centre-stage in the educational debates of the 1980s. Resulting legislation (the 1986 and 1988 Education Acts) has meant that much of previous practice in education both in management and curriculum terms, has been uprooted and even that which was flourishing has been in danger of being swept away. Schools are entering the 1990s grappling with major change on two fronts: curriculum and management.
Curriculum. The progressive implementation of a national curriculum and its accompanying assessment procedures will continue to require a significant proportion of the school's resources, both in materials and staff time. Modification and adjustment on the basis of experience will be a feature of work in schools to the end of the century.

Management. In a number of fundamental ways, the locally managed schools of the 1990s will function differently to those of the early 1980s. Heads and governors are now in the position of managing the school collaboratively. This is not to say that their roles are the same, but that the balance of power has changed and governors have a much more demanding role than before the 1986 Act. Heads and governors are required to become:

- more accountable to parents (schemes of work have to be available for parents to view; results of national curriculum assessments are to be published)
- responsive to the community (through increased community representation on the governing body; through open enrolment)
- responsible for matters previously the domain of the LEA (aspects of finance, staffing matters, internal maintenance of premises).

The school — LEA relationship is also changing rapidly. LEAs have a duty to ensure that the national curriculum is implemented and many have restructured their service, often limiting or abolishing the traditional advisory roles in favour of inspection (Audit Commission, 1989a, 1989b).

At the same time, the very existence of LEAs is being questioned and the idea that all schools should be grant maintained and centrally funded is being put forward.

Faced with such increased accountability, changed responsibilities and greater community involvement, the head and governing body need to develop new strategies for managing the school together. The change to local management of schools (LMS) is often misinterpreted as being principally about financial issues. Concerns over inadequate funding have led to this focusing of attention on finance but LMS involves far more fundamental change than acquiring the ability to balance the school budget. As the Coopers & Lybrand (1988: 5) report to the DES points out: 'The changes [to LMS] require a new culture and philosophy of the organisation of education at the school level. They are more than purely financial; they need a general shift in management.' The contribution which the school development planning process and the plan itself can make to the management of schools facing these challenges is explored later in the paper. Initially, the background prompting the production of formal INSET and school development plans...
The 1980s: Schools Lose Their Autonomy

Over the decade, the traditional autonomy of schools was whittled away to be replaced by centralised control over the curriculum and INSET, and increased accountability to the local community directly (rather than through the LEA). Three major influences on schools during this time provided foundations for the development of formal whole school planning approaches.

Firstly, the introduction of the Technical Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) in the secondary and FE sector in 1982 meant that LEAs were required to submit bids to the Manpower Services Commission for resources and approval of schemes. Many saw this as an attempt by central government to manipulate the curriculum by direct control of the purse strings. Previously a school's funds were provided through the LEA with decisions about the curriculum being taken within the school. However, whatever the intention, one effect was to develop planning skills 'among those involved.

Secondly, central funds were made available for INSET through TRIST (TVEI-related in-service training), then GRIST (grant-related in-service training, which then included the primary sector), then LEATGS (LEA training grants scheme). Again, LEAs had to bid for funds. The aim was to ensure the provision of INSET in areas targeted by central government. There was also some funding for local priorities. In the summer of 1990 LEATGS gave way to GEST (grants for educational support and training) which combined both LEATGS and EGS (Education Support Grant) programmes. Funding for local priorities was dropped. This hit LEAs, schools and teachers hard: often this money was delegated directly to schools or used to provide teachers' centres and advisory teacher support.

Accompanying the requirement to bid for resources in these areas, was the demand that the use of resources be based on identified needs and that such provision be evaluated. To do this effectively, LEAs and schools developed strategies for identifying needs and evaluating subsequent provision. Many LEAs required the schools to produce 'INSET plans' and 'TVEI plans'. These new practices provided sound foundations for whole school planning.

Thirdly, 'Baker Days' or 'professional training days' (1986 onwards) provided the time and the opportunity for teachers to discuss professional
matters at length. As school development planning requires whole staff involvement, its widespread adoption would have been much more difficult if such opportunities for discussion had not existed.

Throughout this period, the Government believed it had a mandate to bring about radical and rapid change on a national scale and legislation in the form of the 1986 and 1988 Acts was a predictable outcome. Both these Acts fundamentally challenge the traditional roles of heads and the governing body — demanding at the very least, an approach to school management based on partnership with the community through governors. In preparing the ground for LMS, Coopers & Lybrand highlight the need for the head and governing body work together:

LMS will succeed only if there is a positive attitude to it from the head, the staff and the governing body. It will require a recognition that it is school management that is needed not simply an increase in administration. (Coopers & Lybrand, 1988: 6)

Some hold the view that governing bodies were intended to be the more powerful partner: '... the newly constituted governing bodies would be about the consumers of education: parents and employers who would lick the teachers and local authorities into shape' (Hemmings, 1990: 16). In either case, new ways of working for heads and governors are clearly required under LMS. Yet the evidence is that for many heads and governing bodies, communities and schools, such ways of working are as yet to be devised (Hemmings, Deem & Brehony, 1990).

There is widespread uncertainty about how the new partnership is to work. This is hardly surprising given that governing bodies are obliged to meet only once a term and thus may still have had very few meetings since the 1988 Act was passed. The research of Rosemary Deem and Kevin Brehony on the ESRC funded project 'The reform of school governing bodies', notes the concerns felt by governors: 'A big worry for all the governing bodies in our study has been how they can discharge all their responsibilities while still continuing to do their jobs, eat, sleep and see their families' (Deem & Brehony, 1990: 20).

Schools involved in the SDP project reported that school development planning provides a useful way of developing this partnership. Of course, the notion of planning a school's development is not new. Heads have always planned and had a vision for their school. It is the change to LMS which requires this vision to be shared and developed openly with governors and parents. Some schools extend this involvement to pupils.
School Development Plans: Evolution and Growth

Formal SDPs were in existence well before LMS made such planning desirable. Both Goddard (1985) and the Thomas Report (ILEA, 1985) mention the value to schools of such a plan.

Goddard, in addressing the issues raised by the then recently published recommendations of the Advisory Committee for the Supply and Education of Teachers (ACSET) on in-service training, focuses on the need to plan provision of INSET. He describes a school development plan as providing 'an enabling mechanism' which allows institutions and LEAs to move beyond the stage of simply making statements about ideal provision to a stage which involves charting 'the route, timetable, the necessary linkage and the means by which agreement is achieved' (Goddard, 1985: 243).

The Thomas Report, which was concerned with improving the quality of primary education in Inner London, described the SDP as having a ‘... central purpose ... expressed in terms of the improvements sought in the children's learning ... [It is] a contract between the head and the staff to which, in the end, all must subscribe (ILEA, 1985: 77). At the same time, another LEA (Enfield) advised schools, in the light of the national debate on the curriculum, to:

- establish curriculum aims and set objectives and goals as means of achieving these aims
- devise a development and institutional plan to achieve these aims and to handle and manage change in the future
- develop an appropriate staff development framework, policy and programme to enable staff to have the confidence and expertise to handle and manage change in the future.

(London Borough of Enfield, 1985: 1)

Such whole school planning required simple and manageable procedures for identifying priorities on which to work and approaches to school self-evaluation or whole school review which were developed through the 1980s provided firm foundations on which to base a school development plan. The availability of strategies such as Guidelines for Review and Internal Development in Schools (GRIDS, an SCDC (Schools Curriculum Development Committee) project), IMTEC (International Movement Towards Educational Change), as well as the school self-evaluation schemes produced by many LEAs (notably ILEA and Oxfordshire), enabled schools to improve the quality and depth of their internal reviews and development.

In its advice for secondary schools, ILEA recommended that the development plan be linked to such a review process:
Central to such a review will be a development plan for the school which combines accurate analysis of work and developments to date with a clear statement of priorities for the future. The development plan must be related to all aspects of the school, the quality of work in the classroom, the organisation of the school, the planning of curriculum development and the process of reviewing and responding to staff development needs. (ILEA, 1988: 2)

In many LEAs the SDP was, for a few years seen as an INSET plan, as the introduction of targeted funding for INSET (through TRIST/GRIST/LEATGS) was the driving force behind the introduction of development planning. Secondary schools often had TVEI plans but these were separate from other aspects of school planning — perhaps partly because they were required to be presented in a particular way at a particular time, to a particular external audience. Integration of different aspects of planning to produce a coherent whole school plan was not automatic and the research undertaken on the SDP project revealed that this lack of integration was problematic for schools.

In some LEAs, little if anything was done to develop school self-review or INSET planning. Schools in such LEAs were at a disadvantage when, in the late 1980s the introduction of the national curriculum and the move to full financial control required those managing the school to have well-developed planning and management skills. At this point, the proliferation of a variety of terms which described aspects of whole school planning caused considerable confusion. Heads and governors were advised to draw up management plans (DES, 1988a: sections 21 and 22) as well as national curriculum development plans (DES letter to CEOs, 17th February 1989, from Jenny Bacon). Even those schools with considerable experience in systematically planning whole school development were protesting that they appeared to be expected to have several sets of plans to satisfy different demands.

- Recognising the need for a nationally coherent approach, the DES funded the SDP project in April 1989. This project aimed to identify good practice and provide advice to LEAs, schools and governing bodies on school development planning and advice was provided for both LEAs and schools over the period 1989 to 1990 (Hargreaves, Hopkins & Leask, 1989a; 1989b; 1990; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). As yet it is too early to evaluate the impact of this advice, particularly as the changes brought about by the 1988 Act mean that even those schools experienced in development planning had to change certain aspects of their practice in order to manage the new financial and staffing responsibilities, involve the governing body more fully, take account of the changed LEA role, allow for the impact on parents of increased "parent power" and plan curriculum changes including cross-curricular work.
Two concurrent initiatives have also produced advice on school management issues: The LMS Initiative (in 1989) and the School Management Task Force (in 1991).

In these various ways, the purpose of school development planning has evolved beyond simply developing the curriculum coherently in the light of the aims of the school and planning appropriate INSET to linking curriculum development with the allocation of resources and communicating the direction of the school to a much wider audience. However the central purpose remains unchanged. It is to enable the school as a whole to develop its work within a planned and coherent framework so that the quality of the educational provision for the children improves.

School Development Plans and School Management in the 1990s

'Talk about children's education on governing bodies is relatively rare yet clearly this may not be because there is no desire to do so' (Deem & Brehony, 1990: 20). This statement encapsulates a central dilemma faced by heads and governing bodies in moving to a more collaborative relationship. A key assumption underpinning the reforms is that governors have or can acquire fairly quickly through training, the knowledge and experience required to allow them to take on their new responsibilities. Yet for many governors the curriculum is uncharted territory. Their knowledge often limited to their own experience at school and that of their children. By contrast, teachers base their decisions on the knowledge of the achievements of the hundreds and thousands of children who pass through their care.

From the research carried out on the SDPs project it was apparent that collaborative work on planning provided conditions for the growth of an informed dialogue between governors, head and staff. At each stage of the planning process, decisions are made based on professional judgements and it is in sharing this decision making with staff that governors can develop their own professional judgement in the educational context. Hemmings, Deem & Brehony (1990) provide evidence for the urgent need for governors to improve their knowledge of educational issues. The report of the DES/HMI conference on governing bodies (DES/HMI, 1991) provides guidelines for governors and heads about developing appropriate relationships.

To sum up, four particular ways in which the development planning process seems to support the work of headteachers and governing bodies are:

- in linking curriculum development, staff development and INSET with the allocation of resources
- in promoting effective ways of working for the head and governing body
- in enhancing communication with parents
- in providing a basis for discussion with LEAs and HMI.

Curriculum development, staff development, INSET and resource allocation

'Spending decisions are best made by those most closely involved with a school — the governors and headteacher' (DES, 1987b: 10). Unfortunately the premise that governors are so closely involved with the school is shaky. Pupils, teachers and support staff and parents are more knowledgeable than the majority of governors by virtue of their daily contact with the school. Ensuring that planning is influenced primarily by curriculum needs is crucial to efficient development of the main work of the school which is after all, the delivery of the curriculum so that children learn. Yet those with a thorough knowledge of curriculum issues are probably a small minority on most governing bodies. There is an urgent need for governors to become knowledgeable about the curriculum if they are to make sound decisions about the deployment of the school’s budget.

Deem & Brehony (1990: 20) identify an additional problem over governors’ control of the budget: ‘If care is not taken, their [governors’] concern with children and young people’s education will vanish in the desire to manage budgets. Can this really be what the proponents of the Reform Act wanted?’ They also note that the engagement of governors with issues does seem to depend on their knowledge and experience:

The extent of governors’ contributions seems to depend a good deal on the issue under discussion. Thus co-opted governors are particularly vocal on finance issues (where schools are sometimes compared unfavourably to businesses); vicars and those with strong religious affiliations are liable to get excited about collective worship and parents are often concerned about teacher supply problems and safety issues. (Deem & Brehony, 1990: 20)

There is evidence too that in some cases governing bodies may direct finance into areas with which they are familiar (e.g. premises) at the expense of the curriculum. How will governors decide on how to prioritise spending on INSET and staff development? Altruism has been a feature of much staff development up till now. INSET and staff development programmes have often enabled those undertaking them to move to senior positions in different schools and LEAs other than those which sponsored their training. Will governors feel they have an obligation to develop the expertise in the profession as a whole?
Some governing bodies have tended to continue with working practices which were adequate pre-1986. This more remote contact with the work of the school is no longer appropriate. The issue of redundancies facing many governing bodies in the summer term 1990 (the first term of delegated budgets for many schools) provides just one example of the need for the governing body to be fully informed about the work of the school. Despite the Secretary of State's announcement that there would be no redundancy as a result of LMS, once schools were notified of their budgets at Easter, governing bodies around the country were involved in making decisions about who to 'let go' and how to do it. (To be fair, the lack of funds may also have been the result of attempts to keep the community charge low at its inception rather than the change to formula funding.) In the author's experience, most of these decisions involved encouraging early retirements or terminating part-time and temporary contracts and thus did not officially count as redundancies, but the distinction is a fine one. Governing bodies must have a clear vision for the future curriculum in their school now that they have the responsibility for taking decisions of this nature.

It is argued that working to an SDP would provide governing bodies with guidelines for the rational deployment of resources within a framework which has general support. Where all involved in the school are given the opportunity to work together in identifying the key areas for development, the problem of decisions being made on the basis of the minimal information known to governors is avoided.

One of the benefits of local financial management is the opportunity to carry forward unspent monies from one year to the next rather than having to 'spend up' by 31st March or lose the funding. This allows schools to manage their funds with a long-term view of the school's development and makes sound planning even more crucial.

Effective ways of working together

Teachers have knowledge about the curriculum and views about how it should develop, governors provide the community's viewpoint to balance that of the professionals. How, then, do these two groups with their different areas of knowledge and responsibility manage the school in the best interests of the children? The answer must lie in developing good lines of communication and effective ways of working.

The amount of time the job takes is a problem for many governors (Deem & Brehony, 1990). There is some feeling that only the retired or those not in full time jobs can carry out the responsibilities adequately. Two self-employed
chairs of governors reported spending a day a week in school. How many employers will or can afford to allow employees this latitude? Given the problems of lack of time, expertise and experience, it is not surprising that many governing bodies still maintain their pre-1986 role.

The once-a-term meetings which governors were told to expect are simply not adequate for the job. Governing bodies need to adopt practices and procedures which allow them to be involved in school management at the times when decisions are being made. For instance, if an audit of the school is being carried out to identify areas for development, then the head and governors will need to meet firstly to discuss their concerns and interests, then again, fairly soon afterwards, to draw together the points raised by other interested parties, decide on whole school priorities and the allocation of funds, possible staffing implications and so on. This level of flexibility is essential if the involvement of the governing body is not just to be superficial.

Communicating with parents

The issue of communication with parents is one which many schools were concerned with well before open enrolment, parental access to schemes of work and the requirement for governors to have an annual meeting with parents were placed on the agenda. Yet for many schools it remains a problematic area.

The annual parents' meeting with the governors in its present form appears to be a waste of energy, time and money for most schools. Gibbs (1990) identifies it as the least popular form of parental/school communication. Enough effort has been made for this attempt at accountability to parents to be accepted as inappropriate. Meetings are not often quorate and the curriculum or management of the school are in any case rarely the focus of discussion: popular topics being the quality of school dinners, the uniform and extra-curricular activities. Certainly such meetings should be called where parents or governors see the need but the need for routine meetings in their present form should be questioned.

Gibbs reports that the type of communication parents most welcome is where their child is the focus of the interaction. A meeting with governors, most of whom are not in everyday contact with the children, will never fall into that category. However, many schools report successfully involving parents in development planning. At the very least, the SDP needs to be available to parents and their active support for certain parts of it sought (e.g. home-school liaison issues).
LEAs and HMI

The SDP is likely to be an important document in any inspection whether carried out by the LEA or HMI. Some schools, for instance, establish performance indicators for the work being carried out through the plan and these would clearly form the basis of a dialogue with inspectors over the school's direction. This public nature of the plan does raise issues about content. Can a school afford to acknowledge its weaknesses to such a wide audience?

School development planning is as much about building on strengths as aboutremedying weaknesses. Nevertheless, the issue of public accountability through the plan does have to be taken seriously and a variety of solutions will be used where sensitive issues are concerned. One thing was clear from the research, SDPs written particularly for an outside audience tend to have little impact in practice.

Conclusion

Heads and governors face a time of changing relationships. The challenges faced by schools in the coming decade 'will test the management skills of governors and headteachers to the full' (Audit Commission, 1988: 3). These skills — in jointly managing the school — will not be acquired without considerable effort on the part of governors and heads. Although working on and to an SDP is not a universal panacea for all the management problems schools will face in the 1990s, the experience of many schools is that the process of producing an SDP encourages the establishment of structures within the school which aid communication and understanding among all the school's partners. Where such structures exist, schools may well become truly locally managed in the best interests of the children of the community.
Paper 16

LEASK, M. (1992)

The Elusive Ideal: Quality in Education

Chapter 1

Leask, M. from Goddard, D. and Leask, M.

The Search for Quality:
Planning for Improvement and Managing Change

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THE ELUSIVE IDEAL: QUALITY IN EDUCATION

Introduction

Quality is a very difficult term to define. But however it is described, the only way that quality can be achieved is by the development of high-quality learning and teaching in schools and classrooms. Few would disagree with this statement, but teaching methods and curriculum content are controversial issues. Both are the subject of continuing debate.

In education, the lack of a strong professional base of understanding about learning and teaching means that teachers have a restricted amount of research data to support their professional judgment, and both politicians and the public (from whatever base of experience) feel able to enter into the debate about teaching. In recent times, the education debate has almost deliberately been taken out of the professional arena with the Secretary of State for Education making pronouncements on practice apparently based on personal preference and political philosophies rather than hard evidence.

The consequence of this uninformed method of policy-making is that changes tend to be uncoordinated and the confidence in the education system of teachers, the community, parents and politicians, is eroded.

Quality – a moving target

'Quality in education is somewhat problematical: like beauty, it lies in the eye – or rather the mind – of the beholder' (Clift, Nuttal and McCormick, 1987, p. 202). A high-quality education system is essential to the health and future of a nation. Yet the definition of quality appears to shift according to the values of those who hold influence and power in the system and the values of different communities in society. In any case, views about content
and teaching approaches change over time. What was deemed high-quality educational provision at the beginning of the twentieth century is seen as limited and narrow as the twenty-first century draws near. The amusing story of the 'sabre-tooth' curriculum (Peddiewell, 1939) is a reminder of the dangers of ossification of the curriculum. The prehistoric community in the story become fixated on teaching youngsters how to deal with 'sabre-toothed tigers' and fail to adapt to new challenges when the sabre-toothed tigers die out.

Whilst the detail of what is to be taught and learned cannot be prescribed once and for all, some measure of agreement in society is necessary about what the education service is expected to achieve. Aspects of the National Curriculum provide a useful framework for the curriculum but it will require regular updating if it is to avoid 'ossification'. There is probably consensus that basic skills (e.g. numeracy and language skills, interpersonal skills and problem-solving skills) are essential for all children - but agreement at the level of detail of how these should be taught is harder to achieve. There are too many variables in the teaching and learning process for certainty in this area.

Quality and purpose

What is quality? Behind this question lies the fundamental issue of the purpose of education. Is it about what people want or need? If so, who defines the wants and the needs?

There is a fundamental problem in defining the purpose of education. Modern democratic pluralistic societies require education systems to work towards potentially contradictory outcomes. On the one hand young people are to be educated to support society's collective values and to contribute economically to society; on the other hand, the individual is to be allowed the choice and the freedom to do what they want. Herbert Read (1958, p. 2) summed up this central dilemma more than thirty years ago:

[In education] there are at least two irreconcilable possibilities: ... The first view assumes that each individual is born with certain potentialities which have a positive value for that individual and that it is his proper destiny to develop these potentialities within the framework of a society liberal enough to allow for an infinite variation of types. The second view assumes that whatever idiosyncrasies the individual may possess at birth, it is the duty of the teacher to eradicate them unless they conform to a certain ideal of character determined by the traditions of the society of which the individual has involuntarily become a member.

This dilemma is reflected in the complexity of teachers' accountability. Teachers often face a conflict of values in their work - they are placed in positions where their practice can be at odds with their beliefs about what is right.

There have been attempts recently to apply the British Standard for Quality, BS 5750, and notions of 'Total Quality Management' (TQM) to education. But these definitions of quality are not necessarily applicable to education. Take, for example, the British Standards Institute definition (1987, p. 4): 'Quality has a number of different meanings but BS 5750 looks at it through the fitness for purpose ... is the service provided designed and constructed to satisfy the customers' needs?' The Department of Trade and Industry defines quality in the booklet, Total Quality Management; 'Quality then is simply meeting the customer requirements' (undated, p. 3).

In education, the requirements of the customer are not defined in a unidimensional relationship. Quality looked at through the eyes of parents, students, government, local communities and business has different characteristics. One of the reasons why the definition of quality in education is very difficult is the variety of assumptions and values that underpin the curriculum and schooling. Some are explicit, many are implicit, some are to do with learning and a number are to do with social control and advantage.

Why not measure outcomes?

The debate on quality often focuses on standards of attainment in examinations as these are thought to be easily comparable. But these results show an individual's attainment in only one aspect of achievement and are the outcome of a process stretching back many years. This is not to say that examination results (or reading levels or the results of other tests) are not important in their own right. But good results for one individual at one point in time provide no guarantee that similar results will be achieved for those following or that the same individual will achieve good results in the future. It is the structures and processes underlying the achievement of these educational goals which ensure success and it is the improvement of these underlying processes and structures which ensures quality.

The necessity for a shift in focus from the quality of outcomes to the quality of the process of education can be illustrated by drawing an analogy with the success of a football team. Although the team may win most of their matches one season there is no guarantee they will do so next season. The continued production of high-quality football depends on the underlying processes for ensuring quality: for example, team motivation and training programmes. In education, it is the individual student's and teacher's
levels of motivation, skill, knowledge and vision which influence the quality of teaching and learning and which ensure positive outcomes.

These underlying processes involve all the systems, structures, institutions, teachers and students with whom the individual comes in contact as well as the individual's family, local community and society in general. A young person's approach to learning is affected by much that is outside the school's sphere of influence (for instance, the media and the expectations of the local community).

**Lifelong learning**

There is growing recognition that if the challenges of the future are to be faced, then a creative, resourceful and adaptable people is required – able to respond to changing circumstances throughout their working lives. The work in the UK of the Technical Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI – 1983 onwards) has been based on this precept (Grubb Institute, 1989) as was the Royal Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce (RSA) campaign, *Education for Capability* (1980-91). The concept of a learning society was also recognized in the work of UNESCO (Lengrand, 1975) and in the USA in the influential report, *A Nation at Risk*, which states that educational reform should focus on the goal of creating a Learning Society. At the heart of such a society is the commitment to a set of values and to a system of education that affords all members the opportunity to stretch their minds to full capacity, from early childhood through adulthood, learning more as the world itself changes.


If this view is held to be sound, one measure of quality in an education system entering the twenty-first century must be the extent to which students are enabled to 'learn to learn'. That is the extent to which students are enabled to carry on learning throughout their lives and the extent to which they can apply their learning to solve problems in other situations.

Thus whilst the outcomes (e.g. examination results) at one point in the individual's education may appear to indicate that a high-quality education has been experienced, the real evidence of such quality will be produced over the individual's lifetime. The 'hot-house flower' approach to teaching and learning – where students are force-fed a high-content diet to enable them to pass examinations – may not provide an adequate preparation for their own independent learning in the future – yet may, in the short term, provide high-quality outcomes.

**The Elusive Ideal**

This long-term effect causes problems for those seeking easy solutions to the quality debate. Quick-fix remedies for the problems of education are unlikely to be effective in the long term. Yet if the longer-term view is taken, society requires the assurance that quality education will be provided. If, as is suggested, measuring outcomes is only partially satisfactory in providing an indication of quality, then what processes should be in place to ensure high-quality education is delivered? What principles should underpin such a system and what structures are required to support the education service in this work? In this book we seek to address these issues.

**Processes supporting improvement of quality**

The debate about what should be taught is a continuing one. Society has to find a means of undertaking that debate, of informing it and of arriving at sufficient consensus for the service to operate.

For this reason, we put to one side the debate about what should be taught. We believe that the root of the improvement of quality lies in the structures of the education system and the processes guiding and developing the work of the education service. We look back over time to establish the lessons to be learned from the past and we put forward proposals for the future based on an analysis of what has gone before.

We start from the premises that there is no single view, at the level of detail, about what constitutes high quality in education – that there is no easy answer which satisfies all. Peters (1977) discusses the problems of defining quality in some depth, and readers interested in a philosophical discussion about the nature of quality in education are recommended to read his work. What we do say is that the apparently easy solution of judging quality by outcomes only is insufficient because quality outcomes are the result of a process taking many years.

Five key components in the process of improving quality that have been particularly neglected in recent times provide the themes running through this book:

1. The influence of society's views and beliefs, actions and priorities.
2. The necessity for consultation and reaching consensus about improvement.
3. A coherent and improved approach to change.
4. The motivation of those involved.
5. The need for increased understanding of the learning process for pupils and teachers and its implications for teaching.
The influence of society: values and beliefs, actions and priorities

The values and beliefs of society as expressed by government, parents, the media, young people's culture, religious groups are, together with the ethos of the school, the most important factors influencing the achievement of young people. But are all of these partners in education working together? What messages do young people in the UK receive from society about the value of education? Arent they to some extent of the 'don't bother, it's not worth it' variety? Unemployment has dogged the school-leaver and graduate through the eighties and into the nineties as has the fear of war and the view that the planet is doomed. A negative ethos in society can all too easily drain youthful optimism.

Is there any consensus about values in the UK? High-quality education cannot be achieved by schools and teachers alone. The perceptions and values of the pupils affect their motivation and these perceptions and values are shaped by society at large. Gray (1990, p. 9) discusses the formation of values:

It is often believed that there is only one valid set of values - a mistake that is currently made by the 'total quality' movement. Values are always a personal matter but they concern our most deeply rooted attitudes and practices. Values go deeper than logic and draw on our basic personal instincts - which are either tutored and informed or repressed and uncontrolled - and often something of both.

Schools are expected to perform 'competing functions - custodial, developmental and socialising' (Handy, 1984, p. 32), but what support is given by the media, by parents for this role? 'Sort out the moral climate, not the teacher', reads the headline of an article in the Guardian newspaper (11 June 1991). A head of a lower school in the north of England describes the problem:

Three mothers appeared at my school one lunchtime, demanding to see me. They were angry at me for punishing their children for playing truant the previous day. I had naively believed that the parents' visit was to thank me for my vigilance in noticing a single day's absence, spotting one forged absence note and quickly punishing the pupils for the offence.

The article brought responses from teachers all over the country confirming the prevalence of this attitude. Making Christianity a compulsory part of the curriculum doesn't solve the problem of national values - values are demonstrated through actions. As a society, we have not identified the education of young people as a high priority. Allan Smith, previously a director for the Australian Broadcasting Corporation and Queensland

Consultation and consensus

In a pluralist democratic society, consultation with the aim of reaching consensus is the process which enables diversity to be accommodated. In the UK, prior to the Education Reform Act in 1988, this democratic process was already operating to some extent - LEA policies on the curriculum, for example, were the expression of will of the community through elected councillors. But the centralization of control over the education system which has steadily increased since the late seventies, has militated against the building of consensus.

A particular dilemma for society is the balancing of provision of choice for individuals with the requirement to establish a framework that prevents anarchy. The balance is crucial but is difficult to maintain. The building of partnerships and collaboration between different groups plays a vital role in maintaining stability and supporting improvement.

This leads to one of the issues we explore in this book: Is there a role for an independent but representative national body which is responsible for establishing consensus and for creating a long-term vision for education?

A coherent approach to change

In the sphere of education, a coherent approach to change has two main dimensions: coherence must be maintained in terms of the way the educational system operates as well as in terms of the expectations and attitudes of society (including the media) as a whole.
If an individual is to receive a 'high-quality education' then the work of numerous teachers, schools and others over a period of many years must be of consistently high quality. But education is not only provided at school. The wider learning environment provided by family and society plays a key role in motivating the individual to achieve.

In a modern society, the media role in creating (or destroying) such a learning environment is crucial as is the role of politicians. They need to put long-term considerations before short-term political considerations in order to maintain a balance between the necessary level of change required to ensure the system operates efficiently and their political aspirations. Coherence then becomes a live issue in the debate about what ensures a high-quality education system. Not only do the values and expectations of the young person, the family, the school, society and the teachers need to be mutually reinforcing, but the education system itself must also operate coherently. For this to happen, it is essential that the major components of the education system (e.g. curriculum, INSET, initial teacher training, resources) are considered as a whole when change is proposed. There is, for example, little point in making substantial changes to the curriculum if insufficient training is provided for teachers to implement the changes. Change must be seen as a holistic process. Changes in one part of the system have an impact on other parts of the system.

This leads to a third issue addressed in this book: Is a piecemeal approach to change appropriate to the context of education in the nineties?

Motivation

Improvements in quality depend on the motivation and agreement of those involved in the service so that existing ways of working are changed. But what motivates teachers?

The model currently used in an attempt to enhance quality is based on extrinsic forms of motivation - inspection, appraisal, league tables of results, performance indicators, individually negotiated salaries. Yet what evidence is there that these motivate teachers?

Everard and Morris (1990, pp. 28-9) discuss the question of what motivates people to work and cite the work of McGregor (1960) in drawing a distinction between 'two views of work - one asserting that people seek fulfillment through work, and the other suggesting that they seek only to satisfy lower level needs'. McGregor's work is included here as we suggest that the education service is currently being managed according to McGregor's X theory - that coercion is the main route to improving quality - whereas the application of his Y theory - that whilst leadership is important, the individual's desire to achieve a high standard is the main motivating force - is more likely to lead to improved quality in education because of the nature of the work and the beliefs of those who choose teaching as a profession.

Everard and Morris (1990, pp. 28-9) summarize McGregor's X and Y theories of motivation and these are included as Table 1.1. This raises a fourth issue considered in this book: To what extent have current education reforms taken account of the importance of motivating teachers and students?

Table 1.1  McGregor's X and Y theories of motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Those managers who adopt 'theory X' believe</th>
<th>Those managers who adopt 'theory Y' believe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. work is inherently distasteful to most people;</td>
<td>1. work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favourable;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility and prefer to be directed;</td>
<td>2. control of one's own work activities is often indispensable in achieving organizational gains;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. most people have little capacity for creativity in solving problems;</td>
<td>3. the capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. motivation occurs only at the physiological and security levels;</td>
<td>4. motivation occurs at the social, ego and self-realization levels as well as at the physiological and security levels;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organization objectives.</td>
<td>5. people can be self-directed and creative at work if properly led.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(From Everard and Morris, 1990, pp. 28-9.)

Teaching and learning misunderstood

The teaching and learning process is highly dynamic but this is not widely understood. Teachers, like psychiatrists, work with the mind, and much of their work is unseen. They also work with raw material of unknown and variable quality - the potential of an individual. This makes the judging of a teacher's effectiveness difficult and it means that the impact of poor teaching is insidious - the effects may not be seen for many years. It also allows for superficial judgments about what the work of the teacher involves.
More research into the processes of teaching and learning is necessary so that change can be soundly based on knowledge and experience.

Teachers do much more than transmit knowledge. By their approach to their work they convey messages to children about learning – is it about using knowledge to solve problems or about learning, parrot fashion, someone else's solutions? Is it a short-term or a long-term activity, pleasurable or a trial? Is there scope for individual thought or is there a fixed body of knowledge to acquire?

If a teacher's experience with their own learning is limited then they will pass on this restricted view to those whom they teach. If, however, teachers are actively engaged as learners themselves they will be better able to re-create with their students a learning environment where students experience learning as invigorating and exciting but at the same time painful and mentally taxing.

But can't anyone teach?

'The clever man will tell you what he knows; he may even try to explain it to you. The wise man encourages you to discover it for yourself, even though he knows it inside out' (McNiff, 1988, p. 52). The word 'teacher' is used very loosely in the English language and this gives rise to a false impression among non-teachers about the work of a professional teacher. In England and Wales (but not in Scotland) it is possible to become a teacher without having any qualifications.

Teachers joke that being alive and reasonably willing are used as major selection criteria. This situation has existed for so long that parents and government do not seem to question it (perhaps parents do not even know). After all, the reasoning seems to go, everyone at some point in their lives will have 'taught' ('taught' is often used where people really mean 'trained') someone new skills – new colleagues how to tackle a job or children how to look after themselves. But 'teaching' at this level is a world away from the job of managing the learning of a group of children of diverse abilities and dealing with the issues of progression and continuity and learning on a day-to-day basis.

The Association for Science Education (1991) carried out a detailed analysis of the qualifications of science teachers and their information should interest all who are seriously concerned with quality in education. Professional development for under-qualified teachers in England and Wales should be a priority.

'Inspired' teaching provides a spark that starts off a journey of discovery and learning for the child. Those who do not recognize this creative side to teaching are recommended to read Charles Dickens's *Hard Times* and then to ask themselves, are the 3 Rs enough? Is the 'Gradgrind' model of teaching acceptable for their child?

Have headteachers, LEAs and governors in England and Wales colluded with government in allowing short-term needs – to have 'a body' in front of a class – to override the long-term interests of the children? It is too easy to forget that a poor teacher (qualified or unqualified) may remain in the teaching force for forty years. Surely parents have a right to expect the teachers of their children to be adequately qualified as well as to possess the other skills so necessary in teaching, e.g. expert knowledge in how to motivate children, the ability to enthuse children and to communicate the subject to them, boundless energy, good record-keeping skills, good interpersonal skills with adults?

To return to the question: 'But can't anyone teach?', we must be clear about what are the characteristics of good teaching. 'Effective' teaching can be said to be that which enables students to go beyond the limits of the teacher's learning into a future their skills and abilities will define. Students can of course be drilled so that they can jump mental hurdles for short-term gain, e.g. in examinations. Useful though the National Curriculum is as a framework, there is a possibility that it will encourage such 'drilling' and impose a commonality of experience that denies individualism.

There may have been a time when education was simply about the acquisition of knowledge and skills. However, the rate of development in society now is such that problem-solving – the ability to apply existing knowledge and skills to new situations – is a crucial part of every individual's education. Those being educated need to know how to continue to learn and a central aspect of education for the twenty-first century is about enabling young people to become effective learners for the rest of their lives. Adult learning is as much an issue as children's learning.

Teachers are only too painfully aware of the complexity of the learning process and are thus understandably cautious about unnecessarily restrictive assessments. One headteacher speaks of her son who couldn't read at 7 yet who gained a First from Oxford. National Curriculum assessment would have placed him in a category well below average in English for his age – yet of what relevance was this to his later achievement? Other adults, when pressed, speak bitterly of their failure of the 11-plus – yet these same people have achieved highly in academic fields as adults. Some might say the failure spurred them on but, for those who were spurred on, how many lost belief in themselves?

The complexity of the learning process needs to be understood by legislators who are making decisions about the education system. Much is still
to be learned about the way people learn effectively and the way in which
the brain organizes and utilizes information. Thankfully, each person is
different but this means that the effective teacher must use a range of
strategies in order to maximize the learning of each individual. Unfortu-
ately, the view that there has to be one right way of doing things
pervades teaching as it pervades much of human activity, and intolerance
of others' views about approaches to learning is usually a feature of those
who fail to understand this complexity of the learning process.

The wide variety of ways in which children learn to read provides just
one example of the range of the different approaches teachers need to be
able to utilize. Table 1.2 provides an amusing but thought-provoking com-
ment on the range of strategies people use in reading. The letter was
written to The Times Educational Supplement at a time when a debate
about the use of real books versus reading schemes was raging. This debate
was stoked by comments made by Kenneth Clark (Secretary of State for
Education) and Martin Turner (an education psychologist who produced
evidence of falling reading standards) early in 1991 – the first year of
national testing of 7-year-olds in the UK. Incidentally, the use in the
national tests of 'real books' caused some consternation among those who
stuck rigidly to reading schemes in the early years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1.2 Rxxl bxks dbxxtx xs pxntlxss</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Whxn wxll thx rxxl bxks xrgxxmxnt xndt? Sxrxly xt mxst bx clxxx thxt chxlrdnx usx a vxrrxxty xf strtxtgxxs tx rxxd pxnt xndt thxt xnx xndxrxstndxng xf thx rxxltxmxshxp bxtwxnn lxttxrs xnd sxxnd xs xnly xne xf thx strtxtgxxs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It must be fairly obvious to anyone reading this letter that readers draw on
thier knowledge of how language works, their ability to recognize words on
sight and their capacity to use contextual clues to enable them to make
senses of what has gone before and predict what is coming next.

If Kenne—CI— and Ma—Tu— can re—th—let—they mu—agr—tha—
a mix—appro— is nec—. If th—ar—no—abl—to re—thi—let—the—
mu—be sti—or cra—.

(Reprinted with the permission of Peter Donnelly, English advisory teacher. The original
appeared in The Times Educational Supplement, 29 March 1991.)

The work in developing sound approaches to educational evaluation and
action research which has been carried out over the last twenty years
provides tools for teachers, their appraisers and inspectors to use in coming
to a shared understanding and agreement about the quality of teaching and
learning taking place in a classroom. It is time these tools became part of
the professional equipment of every teacher. A fifth issue, then, is: How
can the teaching and learning process best be supported and developed so
that quality is improved?

Whilst legislation may be used to change the structures and organization
of the education system, these five fundamental issues provide the founda-
tions on which the legislation builds the system. If the foundations are
shallow, the structure will be shaky.

Some definitions

In this book, a distinction is made between the education system, the educa-
tion service and educational provision. The term ‘the education system’ is
used to refer to the organizational structures of education through which
responsibilities are delegated. The ‘system’ consists of schools, local educa-
tion authorities (LEAs) and the Department of Education and Science
(DES), which is responsible to the Secretary of State for Education. The
term is also used to include national systems of assessment/appraisal/inspection for students, schools and teachers. The National Curriculum is
seen as part of the ‘system’ providing a framework within which teachers
teach and young people learn. An examination of the history of the educa-
tion system and an analysis of the ‘current state’ of components of the
system is the focus of Parts II and IV of this book.

The term ‘the education service’ is used to describe the way education is
provided (in other words, ‘the work done’) by those employed in educa-
tion. The processes and procedures which guide their work within the
education system and the contribution of these processes and procedures
to the improvement of quality are the focus of Part III.

The term ‘educational provision’ is used to describe the educational
experience provided for the individual by the education system and by
society. It includes the ‘overt curriculum’ of the school – the content
taught – and the ‘covert curriculum’ which includes extra-curricular ac-
tivities, as well as what is learned from the ethos of the school and the
values it is seen in practice to support. The overt and covert curriculum
provided by the media and by society is part of this provision as it is
influential in influencing the quality of the education received by young
people. Educational provision is referred to in general terms throughout
the book but the detail and the debate about what should be taught is left
for others to pursue.
Conclusion

How can agreement be reached on what education should be provided? Legislation is often focused on changing the system in order to effect change in either the education service or in educational provision. But the effectiveness of the legislative approach to change is questionable – area essential to successful change are usually neglected, such as the motivation of those implementing the changes, consultation about change and the provision of training to support change.

In this book we make the case for improvement in the quality of education to be reached through collaboration between the interested parties at each level of the service. It may be that the best way to do this is via a national representative body which would take education out of the political arena – where the focus is inevitably on short-term goals – into a forum where goals can be thoroughly debated and consensus can be reached.

Change is normal

In the search for improved quality over the last decade, legislation has been passed that has swept schools into a whirlpool of change in which good and bad practice have been sucked in without discrimination. The pace and demands for these changes have lowered morale and deskilled teachers. Poorly handled changes have led to disillusionment, good ideas have not been able to be turned into practice or have been jettisoned long before it was reasonable to assess their value. Much of this upheaval could have been avoided if what is known already about managing change had been taken into account.

The desire for improvement should be seen as normal. As attitudes, goals and knowledge in society change, so too is the education system required to adapt. Raymond Williams (1961, p. x) puts this desire for continuous change and reassessment of what is being done in context:

We are living through a long revolution . . . It is a genuine revolution, transforming men and institutions; continually extended and deepened by the actions of millions, continually and variously opposed by explicit reaction and by the pressure of habitual forms and ideas. Yet it is a difficult revolution to define and its uneven action is taking place over so long a period that it is almost impossible not to get lost in its exceptionally complicated process.

We are still undergoing this revolution: change is part of living – the desire to improve and change is part of human nature. Our aim throughout this book is to contribute to a debate about the ways in which the improvement of the quality of education can be achieved.

The Elusive Ideal

Issues for consideration

1. What do you and your colleagues consider to be the hallmarks of a high-quality education system? To what extent are you achieving these in your school? What should be improved?

2. Is there a case for establishing an independent but representative national body which has the responsibility for developing consensus and, from that, a long-term vision for education?

Further reading

The Elusive Ideal: Quality in Education

ASSOCIATION FOR SCIENCE EDUCATION, (1991), Only a Teacher ... ? An Enquiry into Science Teacher Provision, Association for Science Education in conjunction with the British Association for the Advancement of Science and the Royal Society, Hatfield.


Paper 17

LEASK, M. (1992)

The Current Context

Chapter 2

Leask, M. from Goddard, D. and Leask, M.

The Search for Quality: Planning for Improvement and Managing Change

London, Paul Chapman Publishing
ISBN 1 85396 190 6
2
THE CURRENT CONTEXT

Introduction

In 1991 both major parties in the UK (Labour and Conservatives) issued statements about how they intended to improve quality in education. The Labour plan for an ‘Education Standards Commission’ was based on the assumption that quality in the education service is improved by making the methods of accountability more rigorous – particularly through inspection (Straw, 1991, p. 1). The Conservative view, expressed through the Citizen’s Charter, similarly placed reliance on external methods of accountability for improving quality. The purpose of the charter (Conservative Central Office, undated, p. 3) was defined as being to

• raise the standard of public service;
• increase the choice available to every citizen;
• open up public services to public scrutiny and accountability; and
• improve value for money in the public services.

Both pronouncements assume there is a direct relationship between external methods of accountability and quality. The assumption is that if the curriculum is prescribed (through a national curriculum) and the accountability measures are tightly prescribed then high quality will automatically follow.

This approach ignores key variables which must be present for high-quality outcomes to be produced – in particular, the energy of the teachers (which comes from their skills and knowledge, level of motivation, goodwill and self-esteem) together with the energy of young people which stems from their motivation, enthusiasm and belief in the value of education (Figure 2.1). If this energy input is low when change is introduced then much of the effort and money put into changing education will be wasted and improvements in quality will be elusive.

Standards - choice - accountability - value for money: these issues are at the forefront in the drive for change as the education system enters the 1990s, and the whole of the system and service is affected – schools, LEAs, parents, teachers, governors. So what do these ideas mean in practice?

The rest of this chapter is devoted to a discussion of these four areas, followed by an analysis of the role of the LEA which is being reviewed in the light of the drive for standards, choice, accountability and value for money – a review by politicians.

Standards

Standards are of central concern to teachers, students, parents and government alike and always will be. But there is uncertainty about how higher standards are to be achieved and indeed what constitutes a high standard.

How do other countries define high standards? Take Italy for example: ‘The results of final secondary school exams in Italy show the town which recorded the worst results was Turin, where only 94 per cent passed. The south did better: in Palermo 99 per cent got through’ (Guardian, 27 July 1991, p. 22). What do these results say about Italian standards? Did you feel that standards are too low because most young people were able to achieve the required level? Why, in England and Wales, do the majority of students not reach the standard of A-level? Is it because the examinations are set at too high a level for young people at that stage of their learning or because young people in England and Wales are not at similar levels in their learning in comparison with young people abroad? This question must be urgently addressed.

There is pressure to improve staying-on rates, but if failure is the likely outcome for most at A-level there is little to motivate young people to stay on. The status of this narrow specialist examination at 18 must be seriously
questioned. The standard may be high but is it relevant? For example, if the UK moves toward European union, students need to be able to speak other languages without closing off other avenues of study. In Scotland, Eire and France, for instance, each student studies a wider range of subjects (five or more) in comparison with the three subjects most students study at A-level.

Handy (1984, p. 41) sums up a central problem with the system in England and Wales: "The elitist principle is still embedded in many school systems, elitist in the sense that success has to be rationalized to be seen as meaningful. The idea that everyone can succeed is thought to be tantamount to a reduction of standards." A serious omission from the rhetoric about standards is the consideration of what motivates young people to learn.

In the drive for higher standards, social deprivation is ignored, yet the link between lower attainment in reading and an impoverished home background has been too strongly established to be easily dismissed. The war of Buckinghamshire educational psychologist, Mike Lake (1991), shed light on the links between achievement and social circumstances. Action to improve standards for these children requires the co-ordination of effort across different public services and is currently an LEA responsibility. LEAs were abolished, as has been mooted, it is hard to see who would take responsibility for these children. Individual schools are unlikely to shoulder the responsibility - the costs in staff time are better spent with a class, nor is such a local role appropriate to the DES, based as it is in London.

League tables and achievement

The publication of league tables of raw examination results for schools will it is proposed, lead to higher standards. Yet experience with league table for colleges within the University of Oxford runs counter to this supposition.

At the same time as legislation is being introduced to ensure schools provide results for use in league tables, the colleges of Oxford University are doing away with the league table of college undergraduate results. This league table - the 'Norrington' table - has been published by newspapers since 1963. Lecturers at Oxford found that the teaching of post-graduates (who don't feature on the table) and research was adversely affected as energies were diverted to undergraduate work. There was also the feeling that interesting but potentially risky candidates for undergraduate places (who might get a brilliant 'First' but also might get a 'Third') were being discriminated against in favour of 'safer' candidates.

The Current Context

Students themselves complained of being 'rusticated' (not allowed to take their exams) because tutors felt their examination results might not bring credit to the college (Unsworth, 1989; Oxford Magazine, 1991). Merton College don, D. J. Markwell, argued in a letter to The Daily Telegraph (5 June 1991) that league tables damage standards:

the table's increasing prominence has led to excessive and unhealthy competition, and has made it the enemy of high educational standards in Oxford. The table is also misleading. Perversely, a college's Norrington ranking would be better if a student fails to get a degree (or fails to sit finals) than if he or she gets a poor degree.

This issue of the publication of 'league tables' provides another example of the failure of those introducing change in education to base such change on an understanding of past experience.

Another problem with league tables is that research shows that teacher performance varies from year to year (Reynolds, 1988), and the difficulty of measuring and comparing success is that the full potential of each individual student is unknown and in any case is affected by many things outside the teacher's control.

The work on contextualizing examination results through multi-level modelling (Nuttal, 1991) is worth consideration if meaningful information about the performance of schools is to be provided. With short-term superficial solutions (such as those on league tables) being proposed to solve what are complex problems, the achieving of higher standards is likely to be random and unsustained.

Choice

What does choice really mean to parents and students? Grant-maintained schools are said to be the 'jewel in the crown of parent power' (Conservative Research Department, 1991, p. 3) and City Technology Colleges (CTCs) are claimed to 'improve the opportunities for children in inner city areas' (ibid., p. 5), yet the reality is apparently the opposite. According to reports in The Times Educational Supplement of 31 January 1991, grant-maintained schools are doing the choosing. Many pupils and parents in the Conservative-controlled London Borough of Hillingdon, where a large number of secondary schools have opted out, were left with no offer of a secondary-school place whilst others had offers of three or four.

Is not 'free choice' an adolescent illusion? The tension between the free play of market forces and the necessity to plan educational provision has been ignored in recent changes. Parents (in both the public and the
maintained sector) know that choice of schools is a hollow notion – schools do not have infinite space – when they are full they turn students away.

In any case, ‘choice’ is often restricted by location, mobility, and childcare arrangements. As there is no child for whom less than the best is good enough, all schools must be working towards high standards and be provided with adequate resources. Diverting resources to CTCs a hundred miles away or to grant-maintained schools in the next town simply reduces the resources for other schools in an area.

Accountability and inspection

Accountability means much more than having teams of inspectors checking what is happening. The different forms of accountability (moral, professional and contractual) are not widely recognized yet they have a crucial role in the drive to improve standards. In Chapter 8, these issues are explored in depth.

The lack of understanding of accountability issues in education at national level has resulted in simplistic solutions being proposed. Collusion between professionals is given as the reason for introducing the notion of lay people being inspectors of the professions – in the case of education a HMI. Formal inspection systems rather than professional advice and support systems are seen to provide the route to quality (Audit Commission 1989).

Yet what model is being offered to replace HMI and local inspectorates? The government seems to be pushing audit firms and ad hoc collections of individuals as providing a higher-quality alternative to what exists already. The role of auditors as a model needs careful examination, as the work of Mitchell et al. (1991, p. 7) reveals:

companies such as British and Commonwealth, Coloroll, Parkfield, Sock Shop, Johnson Matthey, Eagle Trust, Lending Leisure, British Island Airways, Corton Beacy, Levitt Group, Sound Diffusion, Polly Peck and others have collapsed within weeks of receiving clean audit reports... In each case, the auditors were paid handsomely. Yet the individual investor has no recourse against them. In 1990, the landmark case of Caparo v Dickman and others revealed that the auditors do not owe a duty of care to members of the public who rely on the accounts in deciding to buy shares.

There is also a secrecy about investigations into the affairs of companies which is unacceptable in education. All HMI reports are published in contrast to the reports of the Department of Trade and Industry investigations, which involve checking the work of audit firms and companies: ‘Of the nearly 1,400 company investigations authorized by the Department of Trade and Industry since 1979 (at vast cost to the nation), the government has only published 18 reports, a secrecy which conceals the true extent of financial manipulations and the way the public might be misled’ (ibid.) This is hardly a model for improving quality in the education system.

Judging education

There is a dichotomy to be faced in ‘judging’ education – a teacher may teach to a required standard but not be effective in developing the children’s ability to learn. We know of cases where children who were urged by the school to take 13 O-levels were put off learning anything for years after these examinations. Yet in the results league table, the school falls in the top 100 maintained schools in the country. How would a lay inspector have compared this school with one offering 7 or 8 O-levels? What did the parents see? Effective teaching is not as easy to define as it might appear.

The emphasis on formal inspection methods could easily lead us down the path of the now discredited, rigidly inspectorial Australian systems of the 1930s to the 1950s, which Maclaine (undated, pp. 45–6) describes as fostering the promotion of the unimaginative and rigidly-formal teacher who was most successful in drilling his pupils in a narrow range of basic subjects... Not only was the method of evaluation faulty, it also conflicted with the growing realization that the school inspector had an important role to play as a professional adviser and educational leader of the teachers coming under his jurisdiction. Yet the requirement of detailed assessments of teachers completely overshadowed the inspector’s wider function and, in fact, allowed time for little else. Furthermore, it has been consistently claimed that it inhibited teachers from confiding in the inspector and seeking help with their difficulties. On the contrary, there was the temptation for teachers to ‘window-dress’ their work, pander to whatever ‘fads’ the inspector was supposed to have, and cover up their weaknesses. These and other criticisms of the inspectorial system were cogently put forward in the 1930s by the visiting American educators Crammer and Kandel and reiterated some twenty years later by Clegg from the United Kingdom.

How would lay inspectors acquire the ability to recognize effective teaching and effective school management? As with governors, such people could easily end up frustrated and concerned at their inability to do a thorough job. So much of what happens in schools is dependent on the ethos – the unspoken attitudes and responses to situations that the children and staff understand but which are hard to penetrate from the outside.

Anyone who has spent time in a classroom realizes that whilst superficial observations can be made, the detailed examination of the teaching and learning taking place requires careful observation planned in advance,
discussions with the teacher and the children, coupled with examination of the children's work and the teacher's plans. The whole context of school has to be known too. A teacher working with a group of demotivated children may not appear to have achieved the same level of learn with the children as one working with highly motivated children — yet a former teacher may be more effective than the latter.

Decisions about appropriate inspection systems must be based on evidence not supposition or guesswork. With reference to the UK, it is worth noting that the HMI system in England and Wales is to be reform (some say 'privatized') yet the similar approach in Scotland is to be intact.

Value for money

There is nothing new in current pressures for 'value for money' (VFM) in a system for 'payment by results' — yet again education policy is revisiting old ground. An ex-Chief HMI, Edmond Holmes, writing in 1911, gives reflections on the 'payment by results' system after a lifetime of support for it. He speaks of 'that deadly system of “payment by results” which seems to have been devised for the express purpose of arresting growth a strangling life, which bound us all, myself included, with links of iron, at which had many zealous agents, of whom I, alas! was one' (Holmes, 1911, p. vii). With the gradual reintroduction of payment by results during the eighties and early nineties, one is tempted to ask, will the outcomes be different this time?

The VFM approach reflects the government's belief about how teachers are motivated and this is enshrined in the 1988 Education Act. Wignell (1990, p. 51) puts it thus: 'The “framework” provided by the 1988 Education Act ... includes the introduction of a “value for money” approach with related concepts of economy, efficiency and effectiveness together with the ability to measure success through the use of performance measures, at different levels within the education sector.'

The delegation of budgets to schools as part of local management schools (LMS) was seen as a way of ensuring value for money — schools had direct control over expenditure and would therefore spend the money more carefully than had been the case before. But defining value for money is not easy in a service where the output in terms of value gained is not easily measurable. Delegating budgets to schools also meant that central run initiatives for minority interests could no longer be funded — the loss of children's creative-writing workshops run by Hertfordshire LEA for gifted children provides just one example, loss of music provision across the country provides another. What has been valuable provision for individual gifted children from different schools has been lost among the host of individual school priorities. LEA science centres too have disappeared. Short-term financial considerations have led to long-term loss of high-quality provision which will be difficult to restore.

The evidence is that schools will often act in the best interests of the whole school where these are at conflict with the interests of the individual. Current policy does not recognize that the interests of the individual child are not necessarily synonymous with the interests of the school. Devolving finances from LEAs to schools has, in some ways, actually restricted the choice for the individual.

Performance measurement was linked to the value-for-money cause but the problems of such measurement in education dogged the VFM initiative. Hopkins and Leask (1989, p. 9) define the difficulties with identifying performance indicators as follows:

- There is lack of clarity about who/what is being measured and for whom.
- Efficiency and effectiveness do not necessarily go together. Indicators for both are required and sensitive interpretation is required.
- There is no simple link between inputs and outputs in education; in any case, methods of measuring inputs and outputs are not well developed.
- At the moment, there is probably no 'bottom line' for use in comparing an institution's effectiveness and efficiency. Thus, the process of building accurate performance indicators will take considerable time, effort and resources.
- The socio-economic context within which an institution operates is difficult to define. If this is made explicit — as is suggested so that assessment results can be put in context — it is 'unlikely to be acceptable or constructive of good relations' (DES, 1988). A suggested alternative is to use data on pupil ability at intake as a baseline but pupil expectation and motivation should not be ignored.
- There are serious problems of interpretation.

The problem with allowing the free play of market forces in education means children's education is irreparably damaged as individual schools are allowed to decline. The bankruptcy of some public schools during the early nineties' recession provided examples of the disruption of children's education when a school ceases to be viable.

Clearly the public have a right to know that the money is being spent wisely, but it would seem that much more work has to be done in education to ensure that such pressures for value for money do not damage the education of the children.

Educating a child to university entrance level in the maintained system costs less than a third of the cost of educating them in many public schools. Is that value for money?
The role of the LEA

What is the role of LEAs? International practice does not support the idea of an education system run solely from the centre without delegation to local regions and this issue of centralization and decentralization is further discussed in Part II.

In the UK, the role of the regional authorities (LEAs) has been undergoing review but the debate on the LEA role has been singularly ill-informed. The focus on financial delegation to schools (the late eighties to the ear nineties) obscured any wider view of the work LEAs carry out. In this part we summarize the role of the LEA as a contribution to the debate on the structure of the education system.

The LEA has a number of functions including the protection of children's interests on behalf of the local community. These functions span six major areas:

1. Representing and meeting individual pupil's interests and needs.
2. Representing the interests of the local community.
3. Policy implementation (national and local).
4. Quality assurance.
5. Development and professional support.
6. Strategic planning.

Representing and meeting individual pupil's interests and needs

The LEA has a duty to meet the interests of individual pupils, for example through organizing primary/secondary transfer, appeals and exclusions and providing resources for statemented children. The LEA is also responsible for the educational provision for those children who are not in the traditional stable family environment and who require support from the range of services provided through local councils: housing and social services as well as education.

These services currently liaise at the local level on individual cases. Often such children (who may include immigrants and refugees) will not be registered with a school. If there is no one to take responsibility locally, who will look after their interests? An apparent side-effect of LMS is that the number of exclusions of children from schools has risen leaving LEAs to find school places for these children but with the original school retaining the funding for that pupil for the remainder of the financial year (Merrick and Manuel, 1991).

That much of this work of the LEA is hidden from view has caused particular financial problems for LEAs as opted-out schools have to be given, by law, funds for services they are not required or are not able to provide. The case of the educational welfare officer (EWO) provides one example. Whilst schools could certainly buy in the EWO to follow up pupils registered with them, who is going to pay the EWO to follow up those children not registered with any school? And should a school with a higher proportion of pupils who resist attending school have less to spend on books and so on because it has to spend more money trying to get children to school? Similar absurd cases apply to special educational needs provision including the costs of educational psychologists, the cost of statementing children, and the provision required for travellers' children and other special cases.

Representing the interests of the local community

One aspect of the role of the LEA is to bring together the views of the community - expressed through elected council members and community groups - and the views of educational professionals (in the LEA education department) in order to plan appropriate educational provision for children in the area. The LEA has a duty to ensure that sufficient places are available and thus must have the power to make decisions about closing schools and building new schools. The removal of some of these decisions to national level has occurred to some extent already as schools 'opt out' to avoid a local rationalization of provision. However, there will be times when rationalization will not be avoidable. If at this point there is no regional level of decision-making, such decisions would have to be made at national level, yet local knowledge is required if the decisions made are the best in the circumstances.

Policy implementation

LEAs receive grants targeted on the implementation of particular government policies: GEST, WRNAFE, TVEI, National Curriculum assessment and so on. This resource targeting requires the LEA to ensure that national policy is implemented. In the maintained sector, this aspect of LEA work is not a service to be bought in on an optional basis; those receiving the money have a 'duty' to make appropriate provision. However, it appears that when grant-maintained schools have received their share of this money, they have not been required to implement national policy as a condition of receipt. Even more absurd is the case in Avon where a grant-
maintained school had to be given a share of Section 11 funding although it had no children who qualified for help from this funding!

A flaw in current thinking is the assumption that, by about 1995, the education system will be perfect and there will be no more government policy to implement — hence the infrastructure supporting implementation of policy can be disbanded. However, it may be worth looking at experience elsewhere before deciding all the problems will have been solved by the National Curriculum and assessment arrangements, the abolition of the LEAs and the restructuring of the inspection service.

Whilst at the moment there is a nationally determined curriculum, the evidence is that other countries which have gone down that route have found it a 'blind alley' and reverted within a short time to regionally determined curricula. The French about-turn in the spring of 1991 is not the only example: no longer will all French children be doing the same thing at the same time. If unnecessary waste is to be avoided, those taking decisions need to be very sure that regional authorities are not required before charging ahead with abolition.

The changes the twenty-first century will bring to education are largely unknown. What is known is that structures will be required that enable change to be managed and challenges to be met as they occur. There will never be a point where it can be said there will be no more national priorities for change in education. Disbanding structures currently used for the implementation of policy could cause serious problems in the future.

Quality assurance

The 1988 Act brought changes to the governance of schools. The widening of powers of locally appointed governors was seen as ensuring that the school reflected the needs and concerns of the community. In addition, the governors have a duty to ensure that the National Curriculum is delivered in their schools. But what do these changes really mean in practice? Lay people are not in a position to make professional judgments about educational practice and nor should they be expected to.

The LEA currently has a duty to inspect non-opted-out schools to 'ensure the curriculum' (in the words of the 1988 Act), but grant-maintained schools and CTCs are under no such locally accountable scrutiny. Indeed, they are given the money which previously was used to fund their LEA inspections. The HMI inspections they, CTCs and public schools receive are funded out of central government funds. This is another anomaly. If inspections are deemed to be necessary then all schools (and thus children) should have similar entitlements.

The Current Context

Development and professional support

In 1978 the DES and the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers (ACSTT) noted in their booklet, Making INSET Work: In-service Education and Training for Teachers: A Basis for Discussion, that 'INSET is currently at take-off point in this country' (1978c, p. 6). They made the case for an annual target of 3% release of teachers for INSET and for teachers to have an entitlement to regular sabbaticals.

By 1991, the level of INSET provision was in a nose-dive. Resources were drastically cut through GEST. Opportunities for professional development were being lost in some areas as the fragmentation of LEA INSET budgets to school level meant that the sums involved are too small to buy meaningful INSET. The notion that there can be economies of (large) scale was forgotten in the desire to delegate spending.

Many LEAs spent some time developing sophisticated systems of 'needs analysis' in order to provide services targeted on the profession's requirements and linked with plans for development both at school and LEA level. Yet there is no evidence of such good practice being followed through the production of a National Development Plan for INSET.

Shadowing a pupil for a day gives an insight into how a school functions, and the Secretary of State for Education and his colleagues may well find such an exercise carried out at LEA level illuminating. However, what they won't so easily discover on a day's visit is the learning environment created for teachers by the LEA.

We argue that it is in a collaborative supportive environment that teachers are enabled both individually and collectively to take on new challenges. If it is accepted that collaboration provides support for learning and that isolation inhibits learning, then the necessity for teachers from different disciplines to be able to meet and work with colleagues from other institutions must follow. This facilitating role is an important aspect of work at LEA level.

Will INSET training no longer be necessary?

Can it be assumed that teachers will know all that is necessary to know for their whole professional life by the end of their training? Even if this was possible, the variety of routes into teaching makes any notion of homogeneous teacher training inconceivable. The assumption that the article, licensed and possibly non-B.Ed. teachers of the future will require less INSET is optimistic to say the least.

The altruism of LEAs in providing opportunities for teachers to
Defining Quality

undertake research and development work leading to higher degrees is unlikely to be matched by governors who naturally are particularly concerned with one school and who, in any case, will not have sufficient resources to provide such opportunities. In the past, these teachers have often moved on, taking their new-found expertise to other LEAs or into institutions of higher education. It is likely that a whole area of the research and development arm of the education service will disappear.

Will groups of trainers able to provide appropriate training wait in the wings for their cue? In any case, who will train them and how will they keep up to date? Oddly enough, at the same time that training structures in education are under threat, employers were offered tax incentives in the 1991–2 national Budget to induce them to recognize the value of training.

Strategic planning

LEAs have a duty to ensure there is appropriate and sufficient provision for the education of members of the local community – schools are opened, closed and reorganized on the basis of local need. Strategic planning is a key LEA role and it is questionable whether this function can be satisfactorily carried out centrally.

Conclusion

Realizing assets

The government is turning the capital invested in resourcing the LEAs into cash for the short-term gain of providing immediate funds for schools. But the 'capital' in an LEA resides in the intellectual capabilities and potential of the staff built up over time. Removing the staff from the LEA frees this 'capital' investment so that the money saved can be diverted as revenue for schools. This is a short-sighted measure with long-term consequences.

Unfortunately, this attitude is the reverse of that of our Victorian predecessors who turned their revenue into capital – investing in institutions which could develop the wealth of the nation further. Will this asset-stripping of LEAs, which are currently charged with providing for the nation's future through overseeing the education of our children, improve the quality of education children receive?

The focus on short-term planning is leading to a volatile situation. The system is being overloaded with change, and U-turns of policy (e.g. over GCSE, curriculum and assessment issues, funding provision) are a regular occurrence. Stability is urgently needed.

Who will pick up the pieces?

Abolishing LEAs will not, of course, abolish any of the functions they now carry out except the requirement to have local curriculum policies. Someone will have to fill the gaps. It's hard to see what other structure would suit. The 26,000 schools can hardly be managed from one centre (the DES).

Clearly provision would have to be reasonably local – the thought of writing to the DES in London to appeal against Johnny not getting a place at Joyce Bloggs Secondary seems somewhat inappropriate. Similarly, despatching an educational psychologist and an educational welfare officer from London to follow up Johnny's problems smells of inefficiency, lack of economy and ineffectiveness. Local problems are best solved by those with a knowledge of the local context. Nor will governors fill the gap left by education professionals and elected members. Many of them find their duties onerous enough already (Deem and Brebony, 1990).

To some extent the debate about the future of LEAs has stemmed from the necessity to find political solutions to problems linked with the 'community charge' and underfunding.

If indeed LEAs are abolished, there will still be a need for a department to deal with local issues – i.e. a local education authority by another name but this department will be run directly from the DES in London and not be, as are LEAs, publicly and locally accountable. The central management by the DES of grant-maintained schools provides the model. Brighouse (1991, p. 12) notes this loss of local democracy as 'probably the greatest issue affecting the health of our democracy today'.

Part II provides an abbreviated history of educational change in England and Wales so that the reader unfamiliar with this history can place current developments in education in the context of what has gone before.

Issues for consideration

1. What is the appropriate forum for bringing together professional and political views on change in education?
2. To what extent does a focus on the issues of standards, choice, accountability and value for money provide a useful framework for improving the quality of education?
3. What is the most appropriate structure for the education system in the UK? What should be the responsibilities of each level?
Defining Quality

Further reading


Paper 17

The Current Context


Paper 18

LEASK, M. (1992)

A History of Change

Chapter 3

Leask, M. from Goddard, D. and Leask, M.

The Search for Quality:
Planning for Improvement and Managing Change

London, Paul Chapman Publishing
ISBN 1 85396 190 6
3
A HISTORY OF CHANGE

Introduction

'The past decade has been a period of unparalleled change in almost every aspect of education!' But which decade? The reader of today could be forgiven for thinking the quotation referred to the eighties or the period going into the nineties, yet it was actually written in 1976 – referring to the period of the mid-sixties to the mid-seventies (Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers, 1976, p. 2).

Change is normal. The urge to change and develop is part of the human condition. In order to improve, change has to happen but change on its own does not guarantee improvement. This truism places a duty on those who would bring about change. Changes will improve quality where they are built on an understanding of what has gone before. Education in the 1990s has become a 'hot' political issue but there is a danger that the search for political solutions may focus attention on short-term solutions to what are long-term problems – the requirement for education to adjust continually and to adapt to the demands of an unknown future.

While 'chaos' may enable business to thrive (Peters, 1988), it is less than certain that such management theories apply to education. Perhaps because the teaching and learning process requires some continuity and stability if high quality is to be achieved, there is an expectation that change in education should be coherently planned.

In this chapter we look back over more than fifty years to identify the major events forming education as it is now in England and Wales. Where appropriate, this review encompasses Scotland, Northern Ireland and other countries both in Europe and in the rest of the world. In Part IV, the key components affecting the functioning of the education system are identified and the knowledge of what has gone before is applied in an attempt to identify the future path of development of the education system in England.
and Wales. The aim is to draw out lessons which could guide future development. By learning from accumulated experience, a much sounder education system can be built, which will get closer to meeting the needs of young people as the twenty-first century approaches.

One of the values of examining the development of the education service lies in the identification of underlying trends and broad goals. Set in this context, the particular events of the eighties and early nineties can be seen in perspective. For example, increasing the age range for education and training has been a recurring concern. In the UK, the system has moved from an 'average duration of school attendance in 1835 of one year' (Williams, 1961, p. 137) to twelve years (plus nursery education) by 1972 — and the pressure to increase this is growing. Such changes reflect the growing technical complexity of society's requirements.

It seems that in recent decades at least, there have been two major pressures for change operating symbiotically. First comes the pressure for improvements in education to meet higher aspirations. It comes in periods of intense activity and sets out new aims, goals and curriculum requirements. These then create a pressure for change which in its turn gives rise to various attempts at managing change which involve considerable amounts of curriculum development and in-service training.

This work leads to increased understanding of the change process which has to be improved so that the new and complex demands placed upon the service can be accommodated. At such times, a wider perspective has to be retained which encompasses all the changes in order to retain coherence in the service.

Many sound innovations up until now have been limited in their implementation because the nature of the change process has not been well understood. Attention has been focused on individual components of the system (e.g. the curriculum) and other complementary components, such as INSET or management processes, have not been developed in conjunction.

It is time for those with the power to influence education to step back and reflect on the achievements to date and to recognize that the development of the service — its expansion and improvement — is a very long-term and continuing process which must be viewed holistically. For any change at a national level to bring about real improvement there needs to be, among those involved,

- broad agreement on the principles underlying a high-quality education service; and
- increased understanding of the processes governing the effective management of change.

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**Table 3.1 Legislation and major reports**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Principal concerns</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1859</td>
<td>Newcastle Commission Education Act</td>
<td>Elementary education</td>
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<td>1870</td>
<td>Cross Commission Education Act</td>
<td>Local-elected school boards made responsible for elementary education</td>
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<td>1888</td>
<td>Education Act</td>
<td>Elementary education (paved the way for payment by results)</td>
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<td>1902</td>
<td>Education Act</td>
<td>Set up LEAs and assisted places</td>
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<td>1918</td>
<td>Education Act</td>
<td>Role of central and local government, encouraged nursery provision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>Hadow Report</td>
<td>Education of adolescents</td>
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<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>Hadow Report</td>
<td>Primary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933</td>
<td>Hadow Report</td>
<td>Infant and nursery education</td>
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<tr>
<td>1938</td>
<td>Spens Report</td>
<td>Secondary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944</td>
<td>Education Act</td>
<td>Structural changes in the education system</td>
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<td>1959-60</td>
<td>Crowther Report</td>
<td>The state of education</td>
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<td>1963</td>
<td>Robbins Report</td>
<td>Education of adolescents of average and less-than-average ability</td>
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<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>Circular 1965</td>
<td>LEAs asked to draw up plans for comprehensive schools</td>
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<td>1967</td>
<td>Plowden Report</td>
<td>Higher education</td>
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<td>1972</td>
<td>James Report ‘ROSRA’</td>
<td>Implementation</td>
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<td>1972</td>
<td>Taylor Report</td>
<td>Language</td>
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<td>1977</td>
<td>Bullock Report</td>
<td>Curriculum (Scotland)</td>
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<td>1977</td>
<td>Taylor Report</td>
<td>Partnership for schools (parent-governors)</td>
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<td>1977</td>
<td>Green Paper</td>
<td>Education in Schools (Cmd 6669)</td>
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<td>1978</td>
<td>Warnock Report</td>
<td>Special educational needs</td>
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<td>1980</td>
<td>Education Act</td>
<td>Assisted places scheme, built on Taylor Report</td>
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<td>1982</td>
<td>Cockroft Report</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
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<td>1984</td>
<td>Circular 3/84</td>
<td>Initial teacher training (Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CA TE) set up)</td>
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<td>1985</td>
<td>Swann Report</td>
<td>Education of children from ethnic minority groups</td>
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<td>1986</td>
<td>Education (No. 2) Act</td>
<td>Composition of governing bodies, teacher appraisal</td>
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<td>1988</td>
<td>Higgenson Report</td>
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<td>1988</td>
<td>Education Reform Act</td>
<td>A national curriculum, ‘local management of schools’</td>
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<td>1989</td>
<td>Elton Report</td>
<td>Discipline</td>
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<td>1991</td>
<td>White Paper</td>
<td>Further and higher education</td>
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<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Royal Commission on Education chaired by Sir John Cassell</td>
<td>Inspection of schools, the role of the LEA</td>
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**Note**

Many reports on specific aspects of the curriculum are produced and the findings absorbed into school practice. These have included HMI reports, Assessment of Performance Unit reports, the findings of House of Commons committees, Audit Commission reports, plus reports of committees set up by LEAs, e.g. the Hargreaves Report (ILEA, 1984).
Legislation, major reports and significant events

This backward glance is, of necessity, selective. Key events are highlighted to help in the identification of significant trends or concerns.

A glance at the list of reports of major committees set up by the DES and its predecessor and the legislation which has been passed (Table 3.1) shows the continuing concern that governments have about education. It is perhaps a healthy sign that the same concerns regularly come up for review - curriculum and assessment, the age range taught, structures and governance, the training of teachers. It suggests the education system, service and provision is being continually reviewed and adjusted to the ever-changing circumstances and demands of society. Such reports and legislation punctuate a process of continuous examination of education and they set a new direction - but one which has to be reset continually as society changes.

The debate about the raising of the school-leaving age to 16 provides an example of a society reaching agreement. The Spens Report noted, in 1938, that raising the leaving age to 16 was inevitable. Twenty years later, in 1959, the Crowther Report recommended raising the school-leaving age to 16. This recommendation was repeated in the Newsom Report in 1963. The decision to raise the leaving age was made in 1964 but the formal announcement that it would happen was not made until 1968. The decision to raise the school-leaving age was finally implemented with effect from September 1972 (more than thirty years after the Spens Report). The impact of the decision was to create pressure for more change, e.g. towards a common examining system at 16-plus. In a similar way, the 1944 Education Act was also the product of a long period of debate.

But legislation and reports have no effect on their own. They can only have impact if they are associated with an effective change process. "Brute sanity" doesn't bring about change.

In the past, reports often had little impact because the processes for translating reports into action in the classroom were poorly developed - particularly in England and Wales, less so in Scotland. There was little understanding that implementation strategies had to be planned to ensure that change happened. People's expectations were often too high and effective development was prevented where different components of the education system were not working together. For instance, the Schools Council (1964-84) produced much excellent curriculum development but the structures for implementing curriculum change were weak and the impact of the council's work was muted.

The implementation of the Education Acts of the late 1980s was possibly the first time that an implementation strategy had been linked to legislation - money was set aside to train teachers and to evaluate what was happening. LEAs played a key role in enabling the implementation of government policy though politically this role was denied.

In some respects, this legislation marked a step forward for education but much of the change was focused on certain components: for example, inspection, management and the content of the curriculum. As Figure 3.1 indicates, by the late eighties, nearly all the main components of the education system were being actively developed. This offered the opportunity for a coherent approach to the development of the whole system, which was not seized. Within a short time, crucial components in a quality system...
such as professional development and school-focused staff development, were in decline.

One vital component of the system which is difficult to chart is morale and motivation. The level of quality achieved in the education system is crucially dependent on relationships between the teachers and the children in the classroom – the morale and motivation of both teachers and pupils probably affects the change process more than any legislation and any report. Teacher morale did appear to drop as the confrontations between teachers and government in the mid-eighties were followed by the imposition of far-reaching change with extremely tight deadlines. Such a drop of morale would severely damage the development capacity of any system and the education system is no exception.

In the following section the phases of development in the education system since 1944 are described and the characteristics of each phase are discussed in detail.

Development phases in the education system in England and Wales – after the 1944 Act

There have been several distinct but overlapping phases in the development of the education system in England and Wales since the 1944 Education Act but there has been no overall conscious plan for education. In each phase, the focus for change has shifted and development has taken place in an almost ad hoc way in each of the key components of the system, e.g. curriculum, resources, management, INSET, ITT and so on. Figure 3.1 illustrates the ebb and flow of this development.

There is also a shifting of various powers from central government to regional bodies or schools and back again. LEAs have been an integral part of the structure of the education system since 1902 and, given the size of the system and the responsibilities of LEAs, it is hard to imagine a shift back to total central control if, for example, all schools become grant-maintained.

In this section, attention is drawn to the lessons that could be learned from each phase of this earlier work. Four major phases in the education system since 1944 are identified and these have been dated roughly according to times at which they reached maximum impact in schools. There is some overlap of one phase with the next as the seeds of new ways of working are germinating at the same time as seeds from an earlier approach are still being dispersed to the furthest corners of the service.

A History of Change

The major phases marking change in the education system in England and Wales are as follows:

Phase 1: the ad hoc phase (the mid-forties to the mid-sixties).
Phase 2: the curriculum development and diffusion phase (the mid-sixties to the mid-seventies).
Phase 3: the ‘better schools’ phase (the mid-seventies to the mid-eighties).
Phase 4: the managerial phase (the mid-eighties to the early nineties).
Phase 5: will this be the ‘holistic phase’?

Phase 1: the ad hoc phase

For about twenty years after the reorganization of education which followed the 1944 Education Act, change was slow judged by today's standards. There was little curriculum development and what development there was was focused on the professional development of the individual teacher. Improving the quality of the teaching force was seen as the way to improving quality in educational provision.

According to McBride (1989, p. 177) INSET was available to teachers during the fifties with LEAs as the main providers of short courses. Many members of the teaching force had undergone shortened and intensive programmes of teacher training after the war and the LEA short courses were a means of improving this training. Professional development, in the form of long-term secondments, was also available. McBride identifies 1955 as the date when the ‘pooling system’ started. This was the first major national initiative to direct substantial resources to the development of the service through the development of teachers.

‘Pooling’ allowed the cost of long-term secondments to be shared between LEAs and the DES – a situation that was changed in 1983 when the DES was no longer prepared to fund such courses without any say over what they were for (Goddard, 1989a). While it was in operation, the pooling system provided substantial resources to support the professional development of the individual teacher and many of those in education today who have higher degrees owe these to secondments paid through the pooling system. Such secondments enriched the stores of knowledge and understanding in the education system as a whole rather than developing the work of any particular school. So whilst secondments certainly supported individuals, this was not an approach that could support coherent change in education as a whole or even probably in most individual schools.
A lack of systematic planning

There appears to have been little systematic planning for the development of the education service or widespread recognition of the necessity for developing a whole-system and whole-school approach to managing the changes. Curriculum development and professional development were not co-ordinated. University lecturers, research students and HMI carried out much of the developmental work but there was no identifiable overall strategy or vision. There was, however, considerable concern about the future of education. The Ministry of Education (now the DES) commissioned a report on the state of education - which became known as the Crowther Report (1959, 1960). Among other points, the report (1959, Vol. 1, p. 473) called for a national plan for education: 'We plead then for a forward plan for education...Education after all, should be peculiarly susceptible to forward planning.' This plea went unheard.

In the USA at this time, there was also concern about the quality of education, and the objectives-based curriculum model (which included regular testing of children) was gaining acceptance (McCormick and James, 1988).

This approach was to influence developments in the UK. The next phase was marked by a shift in emphasis from teacher development to curriculum development based on identifiable objectives. Research has revealed that for some teachers this period was a turning point in their careers - they had not been aware of any INSET or professional development opportunities being available before the early sixties but the curriculum development of the sixties started them thinking about and questioning the curriculum.

Phase 2: the curriculum development and diffusion phase

This period, from the mid-sixties to the mid-seventies, was characterized by an expansion in the resources available for education together with a strong emphasis on centralized curriculum development.

The rivalry of the space age sparked off this period of increased resource provision for education both in the USA and in Britain. Thus the pressure for technological development created a curriculum for curriculum reform. Becher (1984) identifies this phase as the beginning of systematic curriculum development in the UK.

The Newsom Report, *Half our Future* (1963), had highlighted shortcomings in the education of 13-16 year-olds and the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations was set up in 1964 in an attempt to improve this situation. (In Scotland, the Scottish Consultative Committee on the Curriculum was established.) Up until this point, there had not been a national body with specific responsibility to oversee the curriculum although the Secondary Schools Examination Council had been set up in 1917. The Schools Council notionally brought both functions together although only for twenty years. Curriculum and examinations responsibilities were separated again in 1983-4 with the formation of the Schools Curriculum Development Committee (SCDC) and the Secondary Examinations Council. Both of these organizations were replaced as a result of the 1988 Act which brought the National Curriculum Council (NCC) and the Schools Examination and Assessment Council (SEAC) into being.

The decision to raise the school-leaving age to 16 meant that the curriculum had to be reviewed to ensure that the education provided was relevant. The vast increase in the population as a result of the post-war baby boom also brought pressures for reform. The Robbins Report (1963) paved the way for unprecedented expansion in higher education in a response to the demands society was now placing on education. The ideal of comprehensive schooling was formalized with DES Circular 10/65 requesting LEAs to submit their plans for the provision of comprehensive education. All of these initiatives provided pressure for change and development.

To some extent, the curriculum development materials produced at this time were intended to be 'teacher-proof' in the expectation that this would achieve the desired goals.

There was also a concern for checking standards and the Assessment of Performance Unit (APU) was set up during this period with the aim of using an objectives model to measure pupil performance in different areas of the curriculum (McCormick and James, 1988).

Piecemeal change

The model used for developing the curriculum (known as the Research Development and Diffusion Model or the Centre-Periphery Model) was based on a misconceived model of how change happened in institutions. There was an assumption that if the product was right, then change was automatic. The model was based on the premise that the curriculum was the key to improvement rather than the school or the teacher. The central role of the school in the change process was not recognized.

Materials were developed by central teams who then trained the teachers. Colleagues teaching at this time still recall their disappointment that, when they returned to school, they often found they were unable to implement change. Other teachers didn't expect to have to change their practice because someone had 'been on a course'. The necessary attitudes and methods of working within the school that would ensure change happened were missing.
Hence whilst sound curriculum development work went on, implementation was non-existent or short lived. Resistance to change is, of course, still found today with some teachers and in some schools but the planning of INSET based on a 'needs analysis' of institutional and individuals' needs—a strategy commonly used in schools by the late eighties—makes the implementation of the planned changes more likely.

What these early experiences did do was to show that more needed to be known about how change happened in institutions and that the capacity for change varied significantly between institutions. INSET and curriculum packages on their own were not enough to ensure development. Havelock's seminal work (1969) marks a turning point in the understanding of the change process in education.

**Resourcing**

The period of increasing resources was relatively short lived (1965-75). The destabilizing of the economy caused by the oil crises of the early seventies is usually pinpointed as significant in limiting the resources available for development. Implementation of the provisions of the James Report on teacher education and training (DES, 1972) appears to have been delayed for lack of resources.

**INSET and initial teacher training**

In retrospect, it is clear that approaches to professional and staff development were underdeveloped when compared with practice in many schools by the mid-eighties. By the eighties many schools had used TRIST (TV E1-related in-service training and later grant-related in-service training (GRIST)) funding to draw up quite sophisticated INSET plans together with systems for identifying school and individual development needs and for implementing change as a result (see Chapter 4 for more details).

The James Report (1972) recommended that all teachers should have an entitlement to secondment. One term every seven years was suggested initially, changing to one in every five years eventually. (Incidentally, the latter has long been available to teachers in Australia as 'long service leave'.) These recommendations were never implemented although similar proposals were put forward as part of the Advisory Committee for the Supply and Training of Teachers (1978c) proposals for in-service training in 1978. The switch from individual long-term secondments to INSET focused on specific priorities came during the eighties. Goddard (1989a, p. 15) puts this change down to a recognition of the economic dimension (of individual secondments)... being forced on the government through the uncapped pool for secondments. The size of the government contribution was growing apace as LEAs began to increase the number of secondees not just to improve the quality of the profession but to use it as a means to offset the salary bill caused by falling rolls, and to supplement the numerical strength of advisory teams. The sum of money available to INSET through the secondment pool was substantial but locked away in one form of INSET that at its best could support major change but in its main mode was mostly geared to the needs of individuals, the traditional approach to educational change.

The DES contributed to the pool and all LEAs put in an equal amount. Thus an LEA with fifty teachers on secondment paid the same as one with five and, although costs to all the LEAs increased with the number of secondments, most of the extra cost was borne by the DES. Goddard (ibid., p. 17) refers to the system as 'an open cheque book from the DES'.

Induction schemes for new entrants into the profession became more common. The work of the Teacher Induction Pilot Scheme (TIPS) provided a lead in this field (Bolam, 1982).

Teachers' centres too opened—initially often as part of the network for training teachers to use new curriculum materials but they soon developed a central role in the provision of a range of curriculum and professional development support that focused initially on the teacher and then the school as the basis for supporting change.

Initial teacher training too was changing. The move to an all-graduate profession gathered momentum during the seventies. The two-year Certificate in Education (Cert. Ed.) course had been replaced by a three-year Cert. Ed. in 1960, and this in turn was replaced by a four-year B.Ed. (Hons) during the late sixties to 1980. But the period was one of contraction in teacher training. Many colleges were closed during the period as part of a rationalization process which was based on less demand for teachers as the birth rate was falling after the post-war high point (McNamara and Ross, 1982). By the end of the seventies, teaching posts in primary education had become hard to find as the numbers of young children dropped. The problem then affected secondary schools from the early eighties.

**The theory and practice of evaluation develop**

Evaluation of the new curricular initiatives of this period was not initially an inherent part of project design but it was soon realized that evaluation was an integral and important part of curriculum development. The cost of developing new educational programmes in both the UK and the USA led to demands for accountability which resulted in evaluation becoming
higher priority. In any case there was concern about standards. Becher (1984, p. 107) describes the setting up of the Assessment of Performance Unit as stemming from a political demand for evidence about standards.

But existing quantitative and product-focused methods of evaluation were felt to be limited and unhelpful in developing understanding about why some programmes went well and why others failed. These views led to the development of new approaches to evaluation. This reassessment of evaluation methods culminated in a conference on evaluation methods at Churchill College, Cambridge, in 1972 as a result of which 'illuminative' or qualitative methods of evaluation gained support (Leask, 1988).

Stenhorse’s work (1975) on the role of the teacher as researcher sparked off a new direction in the search for quality in schools. The notion of the teacher-researcher, with teachers analysing their own classroom practice in order to understand and improve, had widespread acceptance by the 1990s.

A major shift in focus marked the change to the next phase. Curriculum development through the Schools Council continued but attention turned to developing the processes by which schools and their staff could work together effectively in order to implement change. It had become clear that where schools had no established processes for implementing and supporting improvement then any proposed changes were doomed to failure. Curriculum changes which were 'bolted on' to the existing system rather than integrated into the work of the school withered and died once particular individuals left or the targeted funding and support ceased.

**Phase 3: the ‘better schools’ phase**

During this phase (the mid-seventies to the mid-eighties) the focus for change shifted from central curriculum development to strategies for making the whole school 'better'. This ‘better schools’ phase had three main facets:

1. A national debate on education including concerns about standards and direction.
2. Research into the characteristics of 'effective' schools.
3. Work at national and international levels on improvement and the change process.

**The national debate**

There was considerable pressure on the education service to be more publicly accountable and for there to be open discussion about education. This demand for increased accountability is often traced back to the then Prime Minister James Callaghan’s speech at Ruskin College (October, 1976) and the accompanying Green Paper, *Education in Schools: A Consultative Document* (DES, 1977). In fact, the speech marked a high point in a debate about what should be taught and how it should be taught which had been ongoing throughout the seventies.

The publication of ‘Black Papers’ by Cox, Dyson and Boyson had punctuated the previous decade. The purpose of these papers was to rally those with similar beliefs ('right wing' beliefs) so that existing practice in education in maintained (state) schools would be changed (Ahier and Flude, 1983).

**Research into the characteristics of effective schools**

Rainsford (1989, pp. 14–15) summarizes the work of a number of researchers of the period:

Research on effective schools in the USA (Purkey and Smith, 1982; Clark, 1984) and the UK (Rutter et al., 1979; Reynolds, 1985; Mortimore et al., 1985) found that differences among schools do affect students' academic progress and that certain internal conditions are typical in schools that achieve higher levels of outcomes for their students.

Purkey and Smith (1982, p. 65) concluded that... there is broad agreement on the factors that are responsible for that difference...

1) strong leadership  
2) high expectations by staff for student achievement  
3) clear goals and emphasis for the school  
4) a school-wide effective staff training programme  
5) a system for monitoring student progress.

Miles and Ekholm (1985) describe nine factors that are representative of the organization of effective schools:

1) instructionally focused leadership  
2) emphasis on curriculum and instruction  
3) external support  
4) clear goals and high expectations for students  
5) a system for monitoring performance and achievement  
6) an orderly, humane climate  
7) change-supportive norms within the school  
8) continuing staff development  
9) parental involvement and support.

The work of a number of these researchers was widely disseminated and must have contributed to the debate about improving the quality of schools.

Lessons from History

Developing understanding of the change process

The development of strategies aimed at bringing about whole-school improvement was a feature of the mid-seventies. Methods of undertaking school-based review were, over a period, extended to embrace the wider notion of school development planning. However, this early assumption, that review would automatically lead to improvement, still lingers today.

In the mid- to late seventies, many LEAs produced school self-evaluation handbooks to guide schools through the process of improvement. The ILEA document, *Keeping the School under Review* (1977), was widely used and referred to. The guidance produced by most LEAs was similar in form. Helen Simons (1987) in documenting these early attempts at school self-evaluation comments that 'by the end of 1980 approximately three-quarters of the LEAs in England and Wales had initiated discussions on school self-evaluation and one-fifth had issued guidelines for schools' (p. 220).

The guidelines produced tended to be in the form of booklets containing long lists of questions and issues to consider which attempted to cover every possible area of school activity. In practice, this process of self-evaluation or review took a very long time - months or even terms - and although the review was often comprehensive it usually produced reflections on what had happened rather than a plan for the future. Because the review was required by the LEA it was seen by some as much an instrument for accountability as a tool for school improvement. In some LEAs, the report of the review was publicly available - being circulated to councillors as a matter of course in Oxfordshire.

These early booklets gave little advice, if any, on the process of identifying priorities for change or on the implementation and evaluation of such changes. Consequently the production of a report on the current state of the school was often seen as an end in itself rather than as the means for providing the foundations for change.

The limited value of these tools became clear as school-based review on its own failed to produce desired improvements. Strategies to support the implementation of desired changes and for evaluating change were needed to take this review work further. Schemes to streamline the review process and to support the implementation of change were produced. Most widely used was (and probably still is) GRIDS (Guidelines for Review and Internal Development in Schools) produced under the auspices of the Schools Council Development Committee (McMahon et al., 1984) but another approach is the NFER/IMTEC scheme (Hopkins, 1987).

The majority of schools across the country involved in the DES-funded School Development Plans Project (1989-90) reported using the GRIDS approach to review their work but modifying it to suit their particular circumstances.

A History of Change

School development plans and whole-school planning

The history of an idea is difficult to trace. Ideas expressed at a conference or in print can spread quickly across the world. Such ideas bear fruit at different times, and with different degrees of success depending on the prevailing conditions. So it is with formal school development plans. Heads and teachers had always planned albeit informally. But the notion of producing a formal school development plan had a firm foothold in the UK by 1985 in at least two education authorities (ILEA and Enfield). The idea was to spread rapidly throughout the country as a result of the pressures from two principal sources: 'initiative overload' and the desire for improved whole-school review strategies.

During the early eighties it became clear that schools without established processes for supporting the active management of change would be reduced to a state of crisis management by the volume and nature of legislation and curriculum reform proposed. Indeed as the decade progressed, the term 'innovation overload' was increasingly used to describe the pressures schools were under.

At the same time, the school-based review and school self-evaluation strategies developed during the late seventies were being found to be relatively ineffective in producing school improvement. A strategy was required which would ensure development happened.

Goddard (1989b, p. 2) explains why school development plans were introduced in Enfield:

[SDP's provided] the way in which the LEA could help make explicit its aim to support schools through a major period of change. This was achieved by focusing on the school, the staff and the curriculum as a whole and through a major INSET programme. It provided help and specific training on the management of change for the staff, INSET co-ordinators and other key members of staff in the service in order to raise awareness that change could be managed by developing the abilities of all staff to work together to manage the process.

Implicit in all of this and in the procedures was a key principle that the school and the staff are concerned with the creation of a learning environment for everyone.

The DES funded the School Development Plans Project during 1989-90 with the brief to produce national advice on school development planning (Hargreaves et al., 1989; Hargreaves and Hopkins, 1991).

In some LEAs, where the process of whole-school development was weakly developed, the plan was thought of as an end in itself and was
strongly linked to the financial accountability introduced by LMS. Planning was not seen as a means of supporting improvement. The ‘plan’ became seen as a ‘management plan’ rather than as a whole-school development plan. It remains to be seen whether such ‘management’ plans are effective in supporting the process of change.

**Teacher-researchers and teacher-evaluators**

Tying funding to particular initiatives was a feature of government policy in the eighties and together with this funding went the obligation to evaluate the work done. The funding for TVEI, Education Support Grants (ESGs) and TRIST/GRIST/LEATGS was provided on this basis. Consequently the development of teachers' skills in evaluation became a priority. Courses and TRIST/GRIST/LEATGS was provided on this basis. Consequently the development of teachers' skills in evaluation became a priority. Courses were developed by advisory teams in LEAs as well as higher education institutions and new practices were developed particularly through the evaluation of INSET and TVEI (Leask, 1988).

Colleagues in higher education involved in the field were particularly concerned that their evaluation work on the curriculum initiatives of the eighties should be useful and used. The ensuing debate about the purposes and methods of evaluation further developed the understanding in the profession of the use of evaluation as a tool for change. The development of evaluation methods by and as tools for the teaching profession is a feature of this phase.

The teacher-researcher movement prompted by Stenhouse's and others' work was gaining momentum. CARN, the Classroom Action Research Network, was formed and it still provides a focal point for teachers researching the teaching and learning taking place in their classrooms.

**The international perspective on school improvement**

Concerns at this point about how to improve the education service were not restricted to the UK. Internationally these led to the setting up of ISIP – the International School Improvement Project. This project, involving 150 people from fourteen countries worldwide, was part of the work of the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) which is part of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Van Velzen et al. (1985) and Hopkins (1987) describe the work of ISIP. The work of the project, and the subsequent work of members of the project, has given rise to a substantial body of literature on the management of educational change.

A number of countries called in international teams from ISIP to evaluate their education service, system and provision and whilst the UK was not among them, the work has had significant impact in the UK. ISIP focused attention on the principles and practice of supporting change at the school level and insights into strategies for the successful support of change were, during the 1980s, available to those implementing change in education in the UK.

Goddard (1989b) attributes the introduction of development planning in the London Borough of Enfield to ideas emerging from ISIP and the work of Per Dalin and Val Rust. (1983). This early work drew on the body of literature and practice which is now commonly labelled 'the management of change'. A number of organization development (OD) principles and practices can also be seen to have contributed to the development of practice in this area as have certain management concepts and techniques. These areas are addressed in detail in Part III.

**Moving to phase 4: a confusion of purpose**

Whilst in some LEAs and schools there had been a steady development of knowledge and understanding about whole-school improvement, for many schools and LEAs whole-school planning was seen as a way of managing the introduction of LMS and the increased local accountability brought by the 1988 Education Act.

In those schools where formal planning processes were already established, the reason for producing a school development plan was clear: to improve the quality of educational provision. For schools starting development planning in 1988 and 1989, this focus was blurred. Tackling management and accountability issues became a higher priority than improving the quality of what happened in the classroom. The reasons for this were understandable. The changes of the 1988 Act were fundamental and timescales for implementing change were short. In addition, accountability to inspectors and the community via governors was given a high profile in documents sent to schools following the Act, as was the requirement to manage finance (Leask, 1990a; 1990b).

As a result, in schools where formal planning of school development was new, the idea of whole-school planning was often reduced to the production of a school management plan by a small group of people. The desire to draw up a balanced budget preoccupied many headteachers at the time and a number of official publications reinforced the confusion that a development plan was really the same as a management plan (DES Circular 7/88, the publications of the LMS initiative).

LEAs too were giving advice about plans and asking for copies of schools' plans. In some cases this promoted the idea that the plan was to do with accountability to the LEA. At about the same time the DES-funded
SDP project was providing advice about the role of school development plans in whole-school improvement. This confusion about the real purpose of school development plans still exists in many areas and will exist for some time to come.

Conclusion

Whilst ideas of INSET planning and whole-school development which sprang from the school-focused work of this phase are still, in the nineties, being disseminated to teachers, a managerial model for the operation of the education service is displacing this earlier work. In the next chapter, the changes introduced in this, the fourth phase of change, are discussed.

Further reading

Paper 18

A History of Change


DES, (1985b) *Better Schools*, (Cmd 9469), London, HMSO.


Paper 19

LEASK, M. (1992)

Change Today:
The Managerial Phase

Chapter 4

Leask, M. from Goddard, D. and Leask, M.
The Search for Quality:
Planning for Improvement and Managing Change

London, Paul Chapman Publishing
ISBN 1 85396 190 6
4

CHANGE TODAY: THE MANAGERIAL PHASE

Introduction

In the political timetable the changes in this phase were initiated in the early eighties, but they grew out of the concerns for standards voiced during the seventies. The main impact of reform was not widely felt until the mid- to late eighties when regulations of the 1986 and 1988 Education Acts came into force.

The period was one of immense change and development for the education system. New approaches to school management were proposed and implemented: accountability, value for money, choice and standards were the issues underpinning government thinking and action. There was a shift of emphasis away from professional development for teachers to structures, resource management and INSET based on supporting the implementation of government priorities.

The concept of 'the self-managing school' (Caldwell and Spinks, 1988) was seen to provide a model of school management for the future. Schools were under pressure (particularly financial pressure) to 'opt-out' of local authority control and become 'grant-maintained'.

Changes in this phase have a different focus from those in the sixties and the seventies. The reforms of the late eighties operated not just on discrete parts of the service such as the curriculum or INSET but across probably the whole range of components of the education service albeit in a disconnected fashion. Areas such as assessment, teacher appraisal, financial management, governance and curriculum received particular attention.
Collaboration or confrontation?

During the eighties, the concern that the curriculum did not match the needs of the day was aired as it had been in previous decades – leading to the 1918 Education Act, the 1944 Education Act and the various reports in between. Similar concerns were expressed in the USA and the National Commission on Excellence in Education was established. This commission produced a report in 1983 – *A Nation at Risk*. One major difference in approach between the two countries appears to have been in relationship to the teachers themselves. In the USA, there was a call for unity in the search for quality: ‘This unity, can be achieved only if we avoid the unproductive tendency of some to search for scapegoats among the victims, such as the beleaguered teachers’ (National Commission for Excellence in Education, 1983, p. 12).

In the UK, however, the necessity to review the education system tended to be attributed to the shortcomings of the teachers and the schools alone. This had the effect of lowering self-esteem and motivation in the profession and promoting a downward spiral of confidence on behalf of public and teachers.

The changes the educational legislation of the eighties was to bring were fundamental. The 1980 DES publication, *The Educational System of England and Wales*, described (p. 1) the mechanism of control of British education thus: ‘A distinctive feature of the British Education Service is that responsibility is distributed between Central Government, the local education authorities and the teaching profession.’ This tripartite relationship – one of partnership – was long established but it was brought to an abrupt end with the announcement (12 November 1982) of the setting up of the major curriculum initiative of the early eighties through the Manpower Services Commission – an agency outside the education service. The Technical Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) was born amid much controversy. The teaching profession and LEAs who had previously shared responsibility with the DES for the education service were not consulted.

Centralization or decentralization?

Differences of viewpoint about the centralization or decentralization of control over curriculum and resources and the relevance or not of regional structures were a feature of international changes in education during the eighties.

Ironically, as the UK was moving to a centralized control over curriculum, France, which had long had such a central control, was adopting a more flexible approach to the curriculum. At the same time in the UK, resources were being decentralized through the local financial management initiative and the role of regional authorities (LEAs) was being weakened. Norway, by way of contrast, was moving to more autonomy for regional authorities (Granheim, Kogan and Lundgren, 1990). Such diversity of approach suggests the necessity for international co-operation so that some common understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of different systems can be reached and unnecessary and costly mistakes may be avoided.

Tensions over the balance of power in the UK between the centre (at the DES) and the regions (LEAs and schools) are reported as early as the late sixties and early seventies. Parkinson claims that the DES was criticized by the OECD as ‘adopting increasingly secretive, anti-democratic decision-making procedures ... the department showed a growing insensitivity to the wishes of its partners in the education alliance as it sought to make unilateral policy choices with minimal public discussion of their rationale or implications’ (Litt and Parkinson, 1979, p. 26).

The focus for change

The thrust of reform continued through the eighties and into the nineties. John Major, in a speech to the Centre for Policy Studies in London (1991, p. 3) indicated that the government was driving reforms through on three main fronts:

Our educational reforms have been driven by three interlocking ambitions. To raise standards. To widen choice. And to increase the accountability of the system to those who use and pay for it. These principles will drive our reforms forward in the 1990s too. For there is still much to be done.

The legislative changes chosen to achieve the government’s goals of higher standards, wider choice and increased accountability were wide-ranging and included

- a national curriculum;
- local management of schools (LMS);
- a change in role for the LEAs;
- the move to grant-maintained (‘opted-out’) schools;
- different approaches to inspection;
- the publishing of information about schools.

The problems associated with this model for improving quality are
The variability of the results of the experiments with categoric funding were to have a profound effect on the further reforms of the education system. Change had been neither as quick nor as fundamental as the government might have hoped. For several years some LEAs avoided being involved. Legislation in the form of the 1986 and 1988 Acts forced the overhaul of the curriculum.

Decisions over the level of local funding of education were taken at national level as the mechanism of 'rate capping' or later 'charge capping' (1989 onwards) of local authority expenditure was used by central government to influence local expenditure. If local councils were thought to be overspending, they lost central funds. 'Charge capping' and the fear of it caused substantial cutbacks in education at this time.

Financial accountability and value for money

New approaches to financial accountability were extended to all the public services. The notion of 'performance indicators' was introduced by government in an attempt to ensure value for money and to provide tighter accountability structures.

Ann Wignall, a senior teacher from Haydon School, carried out research into changes in financial management and the development of performance indicators. Here she describes the economic and political background to the 'Financial Management Initiative' - a policy introduced during the late seventies and early eighties to govern the management of local government finance:

During the 1960s and 1970s the problem, facing local and national government, was how to allocate extra resources. The recession in the 1970s changed the emphasis and a massive swing of the pendulum took place. The requirement now, not only for the United Kingdom but also for much of the developed world, became one of managing better with less financial resources (Butt and Palmer, 1985, p. 5). This change in the management of the economy meant that in the UK the public sector was required to become more accountable because their funding was carried by ‘budget appropriation’ (bidding for and justifying the request for funds) and not by an application of a ‘direct charge’ on the users. The official name for this new policy was the Financial Management Initiative (FMI) which was directed at all government departments. FMI aimed to devolve financial management and to curtail public expenditure through the imposition of cash limits. Also greater emphasis was given to: ... separating out ... - policy and planning - from the executive tasks of delivering services to the public; and, in the latter area, to defining and measuring results - 'outputs' as the jargon has it.

(Omand, 1989, p. 20)
This also led to the development of the philosophy and practice of value for money (VFM) and the associated concepts of the 3 Es – economy, efficiency and effectiveness. Butt and Palmer (1985, p. 9–10) provide definitions of these terms. This philosophy was made explicit in the 1982 Local Government Finance Act and the 1983 National Audit Act which required local and national auditors, when reviewing the budgetary arrangements within the public sector, to ensure that arrangements had been made 'to review economy, efficiency and effectiveness in the use of resources' (ibid., p. 4).

The philosophy of VFM and the related doctrine of the 3 Es are often considered to be an 'industrial influence'. However, performance measures and their related indicators are relatively unknown in industry to the extent that they are being developed within the public sector, as Butt and Palmer (ibid., p. 45) state: 'In the private sector detailed performance measurement is relatively less important because profitability tends to be used as the main overriding indicator.'

Profitability, being an indication of 'client satisfaction', is an indicator which for the most part is not available to most public sector organizations. Another is 'market share', which Klein and Carter (1987–8) consider may prove 'useful as a crude negative indicator of performance' when applied to the measurement of the number of parents opting for a particular school as their first choice. Michael Fallon, when addressing the British Association for the Advancement of Science in 1990, is reported as saying that 'the discipline of the market place, the power of the customer and the engine of competition were what had been lacking from British education' (The Independent, 23 August 1990, p. 5).

This drive for enhanced financial accountability of institutions was just one part of the changes in procedures for accountability introduced during this period. The issue of accountability is discussed in depth in Chapter 8.

Management and governance

The 1986 Act brought particular changes to the governance of schools. These provisions coupled with those of the 1988 Education Act have had and will have for some time to come an enormous impact on the structure and functioning of the education service, but a less predictable impact on the quality of work in the classroom.

The membership of governing bodies was extended to include more parents and members of the local community. HMI (DES, 1990) voiced concern at the poor quality of education management and the DES set up a 'School Management Task Force' which drew on the expertise of industrialists and educationalists in examining the problem.

During this period, a view was prevalent that management models used in industry could usefully be transferred to education. Approaches to improving quality were also influenced by industrial models.

Further education colleges in particular adopted the approach to quality management set out in British Standard 5750 (1987) – a rather mechanized approach to quality management similar to the school-based review procedures of the mid-seventies. The concept of TQM (total quality management) with its focus on setting quality standards (Randall, 1991) also influenced 'school managers' (i.e. headteachers). The Department of Trade and Industry was encouraging efforts in this field in industry (Department of Trade and Industry, undated). TQM is similar in some ways to the approach schools use in development planning (Hargreaves et al., 1989; Hargreaves and Hopkins, 1991) but as with BS 5750 the approach requires reinterpretation to fit it to the educational context.

This move from the traditional forms of management and accountability of education brought a clash of values. Much of value in educational terms cannot be measured in ways used in industry. In obtaining 'value for money' it is hard to place a monetary value on the 'quality of teaching and learning' or 'independence of thought' yet it is those areas which are the principal concern of teachers – with good reason: for they are seen as delivering quality.

Educational evaluation strategies

In accord with developing practice in educational evaluation in the late seventies, evaluation was made an integral part of the TVEI and LEATGS schemes. Although this work derived from contractual obligations, in practice it often prompted the development of sound professional accountability systems. Developmental work in evaluation techniques and 'needs analysis' continued throughout the eighties.

Strategies for self-appraisal, peer-appraisal and for appraisal systems based on professional notions of bringing about change were developed on the basis of earlier work and taken up in a national pilot scheme on appraisal. But there was concern that these professional approaches to appraisal seemed to be 'at odds' with the more contractual approach to appraisal suggested in DES Circular 12/91. It remains to be seen what impact this national approach to appraisal has on the quality of the education service.
Inspection: HMI and the role of LEA staff

In the areas of advice and inspection, the interpretation of an LEA's responsibilities after the 1988 Act changed the ways LEA teams worked. LEAs were under pressure to change their practice from support to teachers and schools through advisers to inspectorial approaches – to check that the National Curriculum was being implemented.

The implications of these changes and new funding arrangements meant that the infrastructure (advisers/advisory teachers) used for helping teachers to keep up to date and for supporting the implementation of new government policies was weakened. As teachers' centres closed and advisory teams disappeared, individual teachers lost access to other colleagues – such access had, in the past, enabled a sharing of understanding about developments in a teacher's specialist field.

Michael Fallon, Minister of State for Schools, indicated in an interview that he did not know what role 'these people' (LEA advisers and officers) played in the education service (Sharron, 1991). Changes in funding and pressures for accountability following the 1988 Act meant that the role changed. In the summer of 1989 many LEAs changed advisers' posts to inspectors' posts. Some LEAs introduced or kept a dual system of advisers and inspectors.

Throughout the eighties, audit/management consultancy firms were increasingly called upon to comment on educational management and structures and this issue is further discussed in Chapter 2.

Initial teacher training and teacher supply

'School takes on "good lad" of 18 to teach' (front-page headline in The Observer, 8 September 1991, p. 1). The teaching profession was nearly an all-graduate profession in the mid-eighties but since then there have been substantial attempts to bypass qualifications for entrance. The appointment of an 18-year-old who had just taken A-levels to the post of geography teacher in a school in Hertfordshire (not London where teacher shortages are usually more acute) highlighted this change in attitude.

Although the offer of the post was rescinded in the face of public criticism, a similar appointment had been made the previous term with a 19-year-old being employed to teach maths in the same area. Whilst it could be argued that these appointments were a 'flash in the pan', anecdotal evidence from a number of counties suggests that 'market forces' and shortages have led to increased numbers of unqualified people taking teaching posts.

Change Today: The Managerial Phase

Schemes for licensed (those over 26 years of age with two years' higher education) and articulated teachers (those with degrees but no teaching qualifications) were introduced during the late eighties to cope with shortages of teachers – both groups went straight into schools. The articulated teacher scheme which provides training off as well as on the job was, at the time of writing, receiving favourable reports although it was much more expensive than the traditional one-year full-time post-graduate (PGCE) course.

Proposed changes in teacher education at the time of writing bear the same hallmark as change in other areas. The proposals are poorly thought through but must be implemented in a rush. 'Successful' schools (i.e. those with good examination results) are to be designated training schools, and funds are to move from the colleges to the schools. The implications for children's learning and for their examination results in the training schools has not received a mention.

The National Curriculum

Within a short time of its introduction, there seemed to be general acceptance among teachers that the notion of a national curriculum was a step forward. But there were shortcomings. The model developed was too detailed, particularly for primary schools and, unfortunately, the curriculum was introduced piecemeal without proper piloting. This caused problems as parts had to be rewritten – the Maths and Science National Curriculum Attainment Targets were revised in the summer of 1991, within a couple of years of introduction, and the teachers who had worked hardest at changing the content of their teaching, their assessment strategies and schemes of work were faced with doing this work over again. Those who had held back in implementing the National Curriculum were seen to have gained most. This is not the message that those managing change should be giving!

The assessment strategies, too, were inadequately piloted. All primary schools were involved in Key Stage 1 assessment in the summer of 1991 and, although this was a 'pilot', results were to be reported to parents and the results for LEAs were to be published nationally.

But ambiguities in administration and inconsistencies in interpretation of the 'tests' emerged throughout the testing period. At the end of the affair, there was little certainty among teachers that a child who had been given Level 3 in English in one school would be given Level 3 in another school. These confusions were ignored when a league table of LEAs' results was published by government and used to back up statements about, for example, appropriate funding levels for education.
Local management of schools

The LMS initiative had two major prongs. One was to give governors more responsibilities for the running of schools, the other was to provide schools with a budget which was to cover all their expenditure and which was based on the number of pupils. Some weighting was also allowed for small schools, pupils with special needs and so on.

There were 'winners and losers' among schools when the formula was applied. There was little scope for funding on the basis of need established through professional judgment. At the time of writing, the full impact of these changes is yet to emerge. A number of the issues arising from the early stages of LMS are addressed in Chapter 10.

INSET

During the eighties, the INSET available to teachers underwent considerable change. There were two main areas of change which opened up new opportunities but which also closed off previous opportunities.

Firstly, the funds used for long-term secondments available for the few in the seventies were redirected into new schemes (TRIST/GRIST/LEATGS/GEST) which allowed for a variety of uses of the money. Schools were delegated money for INSET and planning INSET to fit the analysed needs of staff became widespread. A consequence of this is that few teachers now have the opportunity to gain release to study for a higher degree.

Secondly, the requirement that schools organize five 'professional training days' per year ('Baker Days') provided the time and the opportunity for teachers to discuss professional issues. In many schools, this time was used to plan the work of the school and to work on the school development plan through a collaborative process.

Teacher morale

Poor relationships between teachers and the government were a feature of the eighties. There were extended strikes in the mid-eighties and the education of many children was disrupted over a period of years. Negotiating rights for teachers were withdrawn and changes in service were imposed. The introduction of TVEI in the early eighties was accompanied by suspicion about the government's approach to curriculum development. It was widely seen as a back-door approach to change. The cutbacks and rapid pace of poorly planned curriculum change of the latter part of the decade exacerbated problems.

Some changes, such as the five professional training days or Baker Days allowed positive collaborative work to develop in schools. Others, such as the requirement for teachers to spend 1,265 hours of 'directed time' per year in school seemed to be based on a child's-eye view of teaching - that the time spent in front of the class represented the totality of the teacher's work. This issue of directed time confirmed teachers' views that the demands of the job were not widely understood.

Conclusion: preoccupation with the short term - a British problem

'In the thirties there began to be interest in the question of how long educational reforms take. Mort and Cornell ... found that it took nearly 50 years before any particular improvement was used by 100% of schools' (Van Velzen et al., 1985, p. 285). Less than twenty years ago the UK education system was 'pre-ROSLA' - only the most able were catered for through the examination system; restricted-access grammar schools provided the route to further education; the secondary curriculum was undeveloped; and further education post-16 was only available for the most able.

Change in the intervening years has been dramatic. Yet, quite rightly, aspirations continue to spiral upward. A highly developed education and training system is now required which caters for all young people up to 19 or 20 years of age and which provides services to meet a multitude of different demands, and it is wanted now - in one go!

To achieve these goals it must be accepted that change is normal - that no one has to be blamed for the necessity for updating the education system. Regular reviewing and updating of the education system is part of a natural process of renewal which enables the service to respond to the ever-changing demands of modern society. But those with a stake in education have the right to expect that such change will be handled effectively and will be the result of careful consideration. Supporting and developing the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom must be the focus of reforms, and improvement needs to be a joint venture between society, the community, teachers and students.

In Chapter 3, four phases in the development of education in England and Wales were identified:

Phase 1 (the mid-forties to the mid-sixties) was teacher focused.
Phase 2 (the mid-sixties to the mid-seventies) was curriculum focused.
Phase 3 (the mid-seventies to the mid-eighties) was school focused.
Phase 4 (the mid-eighties to the early nineties) was focused on systems of management.

At this point, development in education has had as major focuses: teachers, the curriculum, the whole school, and management systems. Each phase of this development has provided information about ways of improving quality but this information has tended to be lost as another phase is implemented.

As a result of this developmental work over the last fifty years, there is now a body of knowledge about the functioning of major aspects of the education system - although the accumulation of this knowledge might have been an unconscious process. The time is now right for a conscious attempt, nationally and locally, to utilize the knowledge acquired about development and to establish the conditions that will enable long-term improvement to take place.

The requirement now is to have a fully developed framework comprising all aspects of development balanced and in phase with each other. It is not a question of a new phase of curriculum development or school development or teacher development but of all aspects tuned together within a long-term arrangement that increases the capacity of the service at all levels.

We believe the case has been made for the necessity for change in the future to be planned coherently - with the long term as well as the short term in view - and for a body to be established which is responsible for overseeing the debate about education and for ensuring that what is best from each phase of previous development is considered when planning future change.

Issues for consideration

1. What balance between different types of teacher education is most appropriate given the different approaches in the past?
2. What are the most appropriate management approaches in education? What are the benefits and disadvantages of financial delegation? Is modification of the scheme needed?
3. What forms of curriculum development and adaptation of the National Curriculum will provide the best possible education for young people?

Further reading

Paper 19

The Managerial Phase

Paper 20

LEASK, M. (1992)

Learning from Experience

Chapter 10

Lēask, M. from Goddard, D. and Leask, M.
The Search for Quality:
Planning for Improvement and Managing Change

London, Paul Chapman Publishing
ISBN 1 85396 190 6
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LEARNING FROM EXPERIENCE

Introduction
There were vital elements missing in the attempts at reform in the late eighties and early nineties - a period which in the future some may categorize as a Dark Age for education in the UK whilst others of different philosophical persuasion may see it as an Age of Enlightenment. Whichever viewpoint one takes, it is time to stand back and examine objectively the reforms and identify their strengths and weaknesses in order to plan for the future.

In this chapter we draw on the work of earlier chapters in order to identify the major problems facing education and to offer possible solutions. We focus particularly on the following components of the education service and system:

1. The framework of the system.
2. Curriculum and assessment, teaching and learning.
3. Teacher education.
4. Teacher quality and qualifications.
5. Management development for education.
7. Resources.

Table 10.1 provides a summary of our proposals. The arguments underlying these proposals form the rest of this chapter.

In the final chapter we summarize the key points raised in the book, list the flawed assumptions behind the push for changes in education in the nineties and discuss principles which could usefully guide action in the future.
Table 10.1 A strategy for the improvement of quality: a summary of proposals

1. The framework of the system

Proposal A
That the improvement of understanding and links between different parts of the system be given priority. Progress will be more certain if there is partnership.

Proposal B
That a coherent framework for the development and operation of the service be established so that strategic planning can be effective. The principle of decentralization should be turned into a reality through the apportionment of responsibility for curriculum, resources and teacher education between the government, LEAs and the schools.

Proposal C
That the necessity for the management and career structure to support development in all its forms (including teacher learning) be recognized and that the development of effective practice in teaching and learning be considered as central to such structures.

2. Curriculum and assessment, teaching and learning

Proposal D
That change in approaches to curriculum and assessment and teaching and learning be based on evidence rather than prejudice and that the professional judgment of teachers should have an influence equal to that of political views in any debate about change.

3. Teacher education

Proposal E
That a national policy on teacher education be developed which ensures that the foundation provided by initial teacher training is built on by the provision of a programme for the continuing professional development of teachers.

4. Teacher quality and qualifications

Proposal F
That the following questions be addressed at national level and that recommendations for future practice are then made:

- What minimum qualifications should teachers have?
- How can teacher-supply problems best be solved?
- Is there a case for setting up a publicly available register of teachers and their qualifications (for England and Wales)?

5. Management development for education

Proposal G
That a coherent programme for management development be designed which can cater for the needs of teachers and other members of the service at different stages of their careers.

Proposal H
That the changes introduced under the local management of schools initiative be evaluated and that the scheme be adjusted in the light of the findings.

6. Evaluation, accountability and motivation

Proposal I
All teachers should be equipped with the professional tools of educational evaluation so that intuitive professional judgments can be backed up by informed professional judgments.

Proposal J
Accountability systems within education should be reviewed and based on a balanced model of accountability, i.e. with a balance between moral, professional and contractual elements.

7. Resources

Proposal K
That the quality of the educational experience for the individual child be a key factor in influencing decisions about class size and school size.

The framework of the system

The framework of the education system lacks coherence. It has evolved rather than been planned and systematically developed. But the time is nigh for the education framework to be reviewed with consideration being given to the needs of the education service as a whole in the context of the nineties. Issues requiring particular attention include:

- decision-making procedures: the balance between centralization and decentralization;
- the lack of coherence in the infrastructure; and
- management structures for development.

Decision-making: the balance between centralization and decentralization

Partnership between community and schools has been claimed to be a central plank of education policy, certainly since the 1986 Act with provisions being strengthened in the 1988 Act. But what is the reality?
Whilst it is true that governors of schools now have considerable powers and responsibilities, it is questionable whether most governing bodies have the knowledge or expertise to carry out these responsibilities. The reality is that there is increasing centralization and politicization of education in England and Wales and decision-making powers are increasingly concentrated in the DES. Centralizing such power over the work of professionals is not a recipe for quality and no other professions have faced the same level of ministerial interference in their professional practices.

The restriction of the role of teachers and LEAs in decision-making in the service means that good practices are often neither recognized nor shared nor built upon. This flies in the face of effective decentralization. The pleas of Brian Sams, the Conservative Chair of Education in the London Borough of Bexley for the return of trust and partnership to the relationships between government and the education service indicate the poverty of this crucial relationship. Sams (1991, p. 14) comments that

A balance is clearly needed if partnership is to have any meaning.

The rejection by the DES during 1991 of the ‘Language in the National Curriculum’ (LINC) project indicates the extent of political control exercised over the curriculum in the early nineties and the low ebb of respect by government for the professional judgment of teachers. A report of the project in The Times Educational Supplement (12 July 1991, p. 6) suggested that the project had received twenty-six million pounds in funding from the DES. Trials of the materials involved many experienced teachers across the country – between them they had the experience of educating many thousands of children. Yet the findings of this work have been able to be discounted at ministerial level. The question must be asked: Will the cause of high-quality education be advanced by such exercise of power? We make the following proposal: That the improvement of understanding and links between different parts of the system be a priority (proposal A). Progress will be more certain if there is partnership. (Work shadowing, e.g. between heads, DES officials, LEA advisers/inspectors, would provide one easily manageable way of enhancing understanding.)

Learning from Experience

Incoherence in the infrastructure

Strategic planning has not been evident in the reforms of the eighties. Changes such as the introduction of grant-maintained status (which lead to schools being directly managed by the DES in London rather than locally), City Technology Colleges, open enrolment, pupil-based funding, the dismantling of LEA advisory services (with the loss of support for schools and teachers) seem to have had more to do with ideology than with improving quality.

At a time of supposed concern about value for money, LEAs have been effectively prevented from rationalizing the numbers of school places available (as in the London Borough of Hillingdon). Schools have been able to ‘opt-out’ of local control to prevent closure, and opt-out schools are able to change their character and develop their own sixth forms regardless of local provision.

Changes are based on the principle of the market without considering the implications of what it means in practice for the children. Often decisions have been taken which are apparently not based on any understanding of interrelationships within the system and service nor do they appear to have been based on any firm foundation such as those provided by research findings.

The danger with ideologically based change is that wave after wave of policy initiatives are made without any grasp of the implementation problems. The assumption that change automatically follows policy decisions is flawed.

The lack of any implementation strategy means that some aspects of the reforms of the eighties will probably never become fully effective as the necessary support systems for change are being eroded. The approach could be likened to that of a car manufacturing firm where the management have ordered the building of a new car but left the detail to the production line to sort out. Just one example of the loss of support systems is in the case of training for the implementation of the assessment of the National Curriculum. In 1991, LEAs across the country organized and carried out the training for the teachers of 7-year-olds. In future years, as this training is required for teachers of the older age groups, the training will, in at least some LEAs, not be available as the money funding the development of the expertise of advisory teams has been switched to inspection. The theory is that schools can buy what they need – but from whom? Although short-term funding may be made available by government, the expertise to train teachers, built up over time, may not.

LEAs still retain an obligation to see that government policy is
implemented and they provide INSET for teachers to support policy implementation. If, as is proposed, the role of LEAs is curtailed, who will ensure that such INSET is made available so that change can be implemented? The result of such a change will be that policy and policy implementation will become separated. There is a flawed assumption that law and inspection are appropriate means for effecting improvement rather than improving the process of development itself.

Proposals in the 1991 Schools Bill mean that schools will be inspected every four years. Where will schools obtain the training to enable recommended changes to take place? Higher education institutions now run on tight budgets. They are unlikely to provide as wide a range of courses as was available at teachers' centres through LEAs. In any case, for many teachers, institutions of higher education are inaccessible. We suggest the following: That a coherent framework for the development and operation of the service be established so that policy development and implementation and strategic planning can be effective (proposal B). The principle of decentralization should be turned into a reality through the apportionment of responsibility for curriculum, resources and teacher education between the government, LEAs and the schools.

Management structures for development

Current management structures in many schools do not take account of the development needs of the school nor of the centrality of the role of teaching and learning.

To obtain higher salaries, teachers take on responsibilities which take them away from the classrooms, culminating in the position of non-teaching head, or adviser. Classroom teachers are the people who are actually teaching yet they seem to have the least say in what happens in education! Although, in theory, good classroom teachers can now be paid more in recognition of this fact, promotion away from the classroom is likely to continue unless a promoted post is created – probably at deputy-head level. This step would allow recognition of the importance of developing classroom practice as well as recognition of the extra responsibilities of the headteacher.

In Queensland in Australia, such a post has been recently introduced – that of 'advanced skills teacher' – but it is not at deputy-head level and so there could well be financial pressure on teachers to follow the administrative route (Queensland Education Department, 1991).

An additional problem with promotional structures is that teachers who are seconded to become advisory teachers often find that their expertise is not accepted as relevant when they apply to return to schools. Similarly, inspectors, advisers and lecturers in higher education do not have sufficient opportunity to develop their teaching further.

Proposal C: That the necessity for the management and career structure to support development in all its forms (including teacher learning) be recognized and that the development of effective practice in teaching and learning be considered as central to such structures.

Curriculum and assessment, teaching and learning

The curriculum and its accompanying assessment provide the body of educational provision – methods of teaching and approaches to maximizing the learning of the young people give the body life. Curriculum goals are crucial – they must be flexible enough to cope with constant change. Yet the nature of the curriculum and the possibilities of different forms of assessment are poorly understood by a number of decision-makers in education. In this section, the following aspects of curriculum and assessment are discussed:

• Misunderstandings about the curriculum.
• Curriculum content as a political issue.
• Assessment: the province of the teachers or the politicians?
• The implementation of the National Curriculum and the implementation of change.

We make the following proposal (proposal D): That change in approaches to curriculum and assessment and teaching and learning be based on evidence rather than prejudice and that the professional judgment of teachers should have an influence equal to that of political views in any debate about change.

Misunderstandings about the curriculum

The National Curriculum is only one part of the whole curriculum – it provides an outline of the educational provision to which each pupil in the state sector is entitled (some might say restricted). HMI (1988) and the National Curriculum Council (1990) provide descriptions of the broader curriculum.

But all of this advice and guidance just provides a framework for learning. Teachers have to juggle with conflicting aims in interpreting these curricular frameworks. They have to satisfy the needs of individual students as well as those of society and they have to focus on short-term goals
at the same time as long-term goals. Some local flexibility about interpretation will always be required so that learning can be made relevant to the children in their own context. For instance, a teacher covering aspects of 'My Body' - a common topic in primary school - will structure the content and approach according to the children's particular experiences of health and life and death. There will, for example, be children with individual health problems in any class, e.g. a terminally ill child. This experience will affect children's understanding and so influence the method of teaching. And the teacher's approach will change the next year with a different group of children who have different experiences.

There seems to be general agreement among teachers that all young people should have similar curriculum entitlement and that a national framework is a positive step towards this. But there is a concern that what is an entitlement could become prescription. The education of children with specific abilities (for instance in languages or the arts) is being constrained in the state sector (because of the National Curriculum) in ways which many adults would have found unacceptable in their own education.

The attempt to reach excellence through the imposition of a national curriculum can be likened to an attempt to produce a Rembrandt following the painting-by-numbers approach.

The concept of the curriculum is not widely understood by lay people. Misunderstandings about the nature of the curriculum among lay governors prompted the DES to write a leaflet explaining its nature (1991a). They had pinpointed a problem with public understanding of the term. Understanding the nature of the whole curriculum is linked with understanding the purpose of education. The best schools acknowledge the importance of the hidden curriculum - that part of a child's education which enables them to develop confidence in themselves alongside the ability to argue, reason and debate the issues of the day. It is this part of the curriculum (which relates to the fourth 'r' - the need to be articulate) which has suffered most in the conflict between teachers and government over the last decade and with the 'innovation overload' suffered by the service.

Curriculum content as a political issue

Decisions about the curriculum are political decisions as what is taught can fundamentally alter the nature of our society. In the words of Eric Hoyle (1975, p. 375), 'Curriculum change is a variety of educational change which in turn is one form of social change'. Curricular decisions affect the attitudes, skills and abilities of all members of society and, consequently, the functioning of society as a whole. Williams (1961, p. 125) puts the point this way:

The way in which education is organized can be seen to express consciously and unconsciously, the wider organization of a culture and a society, so that what has been thought of as simple distribution is in fact an active shaping to particular social ends. It is also the content of education, which is subject to great historical variation, again expresses, again both consciously and unconsciously, certain basic elements in the culture, what is thought of as 'an education' being in fact a particular selection, a particular set of emphases and omissions.

Assessment - the province of the professional or the politicians?

Assessment is a two-edged sword. It can be used positively, to diagnose an individual's weaknesses (formative assessment) and so plan a programme of future work or it can be used negatively to filter out a certain percentage of students (i.e. norm-referenced assessment systems such as A-level). The form of assessment individuals experience can crucially affect their motivation to go on to learn more. This issue has been tackled in the service and various forms of assessment have been gradually introduced particularly at GCSE and in higher education. However, recent ministerial pronouncements have challenged and rejected professional opinions.

An example is in the limiting of assessed coursework at GCSE and the rejection of current assessment arrangements for modular schemes - widely used schemes such as Nuffield Modular Science and Suffolk Science and other popular graduated assessment schemes in maths are affected. These schemes were the result of years of work by professionals with vast experience of educating children. These restrictions on school assessment are being imposed at the same time that universities are moving to modular degrees, with end-of-module assessment and with students able to move between universities for different modules. This inconsistency over assessment strategies is yet another example of the flawed assumptions bedevilling attempts at improvement.

The implementation of the National Curriculum and the management of change

The centre-periphery model of curriculum development which had been used in the sixties was the model used for the development and delivery of the National Curriculum. It was centrally devised but locally delivered.

However, the lessons which had been gained from the sixties were clearly not understood by those responsible for devising the implementation of the National Curriculum. Good practice in terms of management of change did not seem to have been considered. A tremendous opportunity to build
on the commitment of teachers for a national curriculum was not realized because the implementation phase had been poorly thought through. The problems faced in the implementation stage of curricular change were already well known to educationalists with the work of Fullan (1982) and others providing detailed advice on appropriate strategies.

It is well known that where schools have no established processes for implementing and supporting improvement then any proposed changes are doomed to failure. Curriculum changes which are 'bolted on' to the existing system rather than integrated into the system wither and die once particular individuals leave (or, in the case of targeted funding, it ceases). Experiences with the impact of the Technical Vocational Education Initiative in the early eighties provided examples of this problem. The assumption that resorting to the law is effective in the early eighties provided examples of this problem. The assumption that resorting to the law is an effective alternative to gaining professional commitment to change is flawed.

Teacher education

High-quality training and regular updating of teachers is essential if standards are to be improved. Even if no other aspect of teaching changed, subject content changes continually. Just take the example of foreign languages – teachers of these need to keep up with modern idiom. The regular opportunity of a term's secondment suggested in the James Report seems logical and necessary. In this section, two aspects of teacher education are considered:

- The role of in-service training in improving quality.
- Professional development and staff development: maintaining the balance.

In this part, we make one main proposal (proposal E): That a national policy on teacher education be developed which ensures that the foundation provided by initial teacher training is built on by the provision of a programme for the continuing professional development of teachers.

Initial teacher training (ITT) is now being subjected to the haphazard poorly co-ordinated change that schools have suffered and we comment on ITT in the section on teacher quality and qualifications.

The role of in-service training in improving quality

'Educational change involves learning how to do something new. It is for this reason that if any single factor is crucial to change, it is professional development' (Fullan, 1982, p. 257). Fullan makes the point that opportunities for teachers to continue learning are essential if the quality of education is to be sustained and improved. Teaching is a continuously creative and emotionally demanding profession and a range of opportunities is needed to support the continuing learning of teachers. A balance needs to be maintained between staff and professional development as they are for different purposes. There has been an about-turn of policy which has meant that the long-term individual secondments in the fifties, sixties and seventies were almost completely replaced by LEA-based INSET in the eighties. In the nineties, long-term secondments are virtually unobtainable. Funds for staff development have also been drastically cut.

There appears to be an assumption in government policy that once the National Curriculum is in place, no further development will be needed. The most superficial consideration of what the future might hold reveals this to be a damaging invalid assumption. The gains in INSET planning and delivery which were made during the eighties will be lost unless radical steps are taken to recover the ground lost in the years 1990 and 1991. Without the change to school and LEA-based INSET, the reforms of the eighties could not have been speedily implemented. TRIST in 1984 followed by GRIST in 1986 together with the introduction of five professional development days for staff provided a framework and resources for the effective development and implementation of ideas. LEAs were enabled to build up expertise in the form of their advisory service and their work with schools and teachers.

The need for professional development and in-service training is ever with the teaching profession. Even if, at the beginning of their careers, teachers could be fully au fait with everything they need to know in order to teach well, the pace of change in education means that regular updating would be essential. Teachers may practise their profession for more than forty years and at secondary level may well teach five to ten thousand children during that time.

A few moments spent thinking of the changes in the curriculum over the last forty years and the changes of content and approach in, for instance, science and technology should convince the most reluctant of the importance of the substantial funding of in-service training. In the mid-seventies, the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers (ACSTT) recommended that 3 per cent of the salary bill be allocated to training but in the nineties this funding is still at a level of about 1 per cent.

Another dimension is that curriculum reform is often deskilling – teachers have to change practice with which they are familiar and become familiar with new methods, content and resources. Thus an essential stimulus to curriculum change is compatible in-service training. The availability of such
training is linked to who provides the training. Without a doubt, the move in the early nineties to a consultancy model for training, where schools buy in trainers as they need them, cannot deliver what is required. The range of expertise which a school may want to draw on over a year cannot be sustained on a random ad hoc basis. The assumption that the consultancy model works for a statutory system and will ensure effective policy implementation for all schools is flawed. Freelance consultants become quickly out of date - their continuing training, previously provided as part of their work in the LEA, will no longer happen. The loss of savings of scale as funding is devolved to schools means that, unless there is co-ordination at a very detailed level of planning between tens of schools, even a limited version of the service they previously had cannot be available.

Professional development and staff development: maintaining the balance

Whilst there are clearly good arguments for strengthening school-based INSET there is still a case for long-term individual secondments. These provide opportunity for reflection, the development of new skills and the acquisition of knowledge about the education system and its management. Such work provides a sound background for those pursuing posts of responsibility in education whether at senior management level, with the LEA or in departments of higher education. McBride (1989) gives the figures for full-time, one-year secondments as 2,112 in 1986-7 dropping to 439 in 1988-9 (p. 177) with the advent of GRIST funding. On average this is fewer than four teachers in each education authority. In a time of massive change, eliminating a group whose role is to investigate issues and to reflect objectively on what is happening must have the effect of limiting the amount of knowledge about current practice in the profession as a whole. But schools and LEAs have been poor in the past at using the skills of those who have been on secondment. McBride (ibid.) found that teachers who had been on secondments usually return to find their expertise is not utilized and even that their promotion or employment prospects are restricted because they’ve been out of the classroom. What other employer operates their training scheme in this manner? The problem is linked with promotional structures, which were discussed earlier.

Teacher quality and qualifications

The Parent’s Charter (DES, 1991b) provides detail about what schools will do and must do to ensure a good education for the individual child. But it is silent on the obligation of government to ensure the supply of teachers who are appropriately qualified. Why? Is the problem so intractable that they dare not comment on it or do they really believe that anyone can teach? In this part, three aspects of this issue are explored:

- Teacher supply and quality.
- What qualifications should teachers have? Is a non-educational degree enough?
- Learning on the job.

We put forward the proposal that the following questions be addressed at national level and that recommendations for future practice are then made (proposal F):

- What minimum qualifications should teachers have?
- How can teacher-supply problems best be solved?
- Is there a case for setting up a publicly available register of teachers and their qualifications (for England and Wales)?

Teacher supply and quality

‘Every newspaper and every other White Paper proclaims a national shortage of scientists and technologists.’ This shortage has been universally acknowledged throughout the eighties and into the nineties. This quotation, however, comes from the Newsom Report published thirty years ago in 1963 (p. 177).

The supply of appropriately qualified teachers is still an issue which requires concerted effort in England and Wales. There were shortages and special recruitment packages in the seventies and there were shortages and special recruitment packages in the eighties. In the nineties there are licensed and articulated teacher schemes and initial teacher-education providers are blamed for not doing their job properly. The programme Public Eye (Thames Television, Friday 7 June 1991) provides an example of such public criticism. In the view of the Conservative Research Department (1991, p. 16) ‘it is clear that the Teacher Training College monopoly has to be broken, in order that students can pursue a variety of ways into the profession’ - but clear to whom? Is this response not just an easy way out of a difficult problem – an attempt to solve the problems of teacher shortages by reducing entry qualifications? At the time of writing, changes in ITT are being mooted but are not at a sufficiently advanced stage for us to comment.

The mismatch of teacher qualifications with curriculum requirements is a
problem hidden from parents, children and governors and it does neither the government nor the teaching profession any credit that this has been allowed to happen. This mismatch, this problem with quality of training, was earlier highlighted in the Newsom Report where the concerns voiced were about the quality of humanities teachers as well as scientists. The points made are just as valid today:

By quality we are not of course referring to personal inadequacies of character but to professional deficiencies in knowledge of the subjects and of insight into the problems of teaching. These come from the kind of specialized higher education which many incoming teachers have received and from the lack of any professional training from which many of them suffer. The gravity of the present situation... because its effects are to be detected only by a clinical judgment... is largely concealed from administrators and statisticians.

(Newsom Report, 1963, p. 177)

This comment highlights the point that knowledge of content provides only part of a teacher's professional equipment - pedagogic skills play an equally important part.

In the nineties, at a time when teachers need to be more educated themselves in order to deliver the breadth of content in the National Curriculum, the pressure is on to drop standards relating to teacher qualifications. One anomaly is that students who fail B.Ed. degree courses can be taken on as licensed teachers if they have completed two years' higher education.

Teacher quality is crucial at a time of massive curriculum change and improving the knowledge and skills of the teaching force must be an integral part of this change if it is to be successful. Rarely will anyone educated in England and Wales have the broad educational background now required of the primary teacher. Experienced teachers are able to build on their understanding of the curriculum and of the learning of children and are in a better position to develop their knowledge in new areas than the licensed teacher or the instructor who has no relevant training.

The thinking at government level about teacher qualifications in England and Wales is inconsistent. Stringent criteria for the accreditation of teacher training courses (the 'CATE' criteria) were devised in 1986 to improve the standard of teacher training but these are too easily watered down to suit new approaches.

But what qualifications and further training are appropriate for teachers? To compromise in the area of training and qualifications is surely to undermine attempts to improve the quality of the education provided.

Parents do not usually know the qualifications of those who are teaching their children. If a professional register of teachers and their qualifications were available to parents - as is the case for medical professionals, dentists, solicitors, the clergy - then parents would be able to be assured about appropriate qualifications for those teaching their children. Such a register is available to parents in Scotland. It is compiled by the General Teaching Council for Scotland.

HMI identified the mismatch between qualifications and area of teaching as a key factor influencing quality (DES, 1985b). In Scotland the match between qualifications and teaching area is said to be 90 per cent, in England and Wales, 50 per cent (The Times Educational Supplement, 13 September 1991). Yet in the Schools Bill (1991), which is supposed to give parents access to the information they need to choose schools for their children, this vital right is missing.

What qualifications should teachers have? Is a non-educational degree enough?

Teaching requires skills which are specific to the age of the children being taught and which non-educational degrees do not normally cover - how children learn to read, the formation of letters and handwriting, understanding mathematical and scientific concepts, the diagnosis of particular educational needs of children - to mention just a few areas of pedagogy. Similarly, the education of children in special schools should be in the hands of staff with specialist knowledge in methods for helping these children develop their potential.

Possessing a degree in the subject should provide an excellent base from which to start teaching but it will not, unless it includes an education component, provide an understanding of and practice in any of the areas of knowledge and skill which enable a teacher to support the learning of the individual child. The National Curriculum Council (1990) defines a number of factors essential to sound teaching, which include

- effective teaching methods,
- management of the curriculum,
- assessment strategies,
- motivation,
- pastoral care,
- health education,
- information technology,
- study skills,
- problem-solving,
- equal opportunities,
Proposals for the Future

- special educational needs,
- multicultural perspectives,
- economic and industrial understanding,
- careers education and guidance,
- education for citizenship, and
- environmental education.

Neither is the concept of the curriculum and the need for 'breadth, balance, relevance, differentiation and progression and continuity' (HMI, 1988, p. 3) likely to be covered in a non-educational degree. Of course, educational qualifications cannot provide all the understanding and skills a teacher needs - some of these are learned with experience but qualifications provide stepping stones on the path to effective teaching.

It is often assumed that the teaching profession is well trained. That the reality may well be far from this was shown by recent research on science teachers' qualifications (Association for Science Education, 1991).

Learning on the job

Learning on the job is proposed by one group of educationalists as a more effective form of training than college-based training, but the balance between the college and the school parts of the course must be carefully worked out and there are a number of existing successful models on which to draw.

Discussion about the pros and cons of concentrating training in schools always avoids the real issue: What would this mean from the children's point of view? This issue of balance (of the amount of time a child is taught by experienced and inexperienced teachers) must be seriously debated. If the balance is wrong the children's education could suffer. A question those devising these programmes should ask is: Would what is proposed be acceptable if it meant learning on your child? In primary terms, it might mean a student practising for a year of your child's life and learning - opportunities for learning which can never be retrieved. There is no guarantee that it wouldn't happen the next year... and the next. For your sixth former, might being practised on mean a grade or two less (i.e. the difference between getting a university place and not) as the inexperienced teacher comes to grips with the demands of the job and the expectations hidden in the shorthand of syllabuses?

The probationary year (the abolition of which was announced in 1991) at least ensured that trained teachers had continuing support during their early teaching and that they had induction training. Removing this safety net and with it the entitlement to support is a retrograde step in terms of improving quality.

Management development for education

School management has been the focus of major change in England and Wales during the eighties but the system now in place has brought its own problems.

Two aspects of management which seem to be particularly problematic are discussed in this section:

- Management in education: an industrial or an agricultural model?
- Poor-quality management in schools.

The foundations of a high-quality training programme for management in education have been laid with the work of the School Management Task Force and through the use of LEATGS funding. We propose that this work be developed further as a priority. Proposal G: That a programme for management development be designed which can cater for the needs of teachers and other members of the service at different stages of their careers.

A third aspect of management - the local management of schools innovation (LMS) - requires thorough evaluation to establish the scheme's success and problems so we limit our discussion of this initiative to a proposal that it be reviewed: That the changes introduced under the LMS initiative be evaluated and the scheme be adjusted in the light of the findings (proposal H).

Management in education: an industrial model or an agricultural model?

The notion of applying industrial models to education was given a high profile during the eighties but the idea had been around for a long time. But whilst there is always something to be learned from the way others manage their work, models of management drawn from factories do not necessarily work in education where the inputs, processes and outputs are all concerned with the intangible (i.e. thought processes) and affected by the intangible (i.e. motivation). Stephens (in Weick, 1988, p. 57) summed up the argument twenty-five years ago:

we should be making a great mistake in regarding the management of schools as similar to the process of constructing a building or operating a factory. In these latter processes deliberate decisions play a crucial part and the enterprise
advances or stands still in proportion to the amount of deliberate effort exerted. If we must use a metaphor or model in seeking to understand the process of schooling, we should look to agriculture rather than to the factory. In agriculture, we do not start from scratch, and we do not direct our efforts to inert and passive materials. We start, on the contrary, with a complex and ancient process, and we organize our efforts around what seeds, plants, and insects are likely to do anyway. . . . The crop, once planted, may undergo some development even while the farmer sleeps or loafs. No matter what he does, some aspects of the outcome will remain constant.

The agricultural model of development does seem to have more similarities to the process of education than the industrial model.

**Poor-quality management in schools**

HMI (DES, 1990) and the School Management Task Force (1990) have highlighted the poor quality of much senior and middle management of schools:

More generally the management of schools leaves much to be desired. In only about a third of those inspected was senior management judged to be particularly effective. The proportion of middle management so assessed was lower still. Effective senior management is characterized by clear objectives; sound planning; effective implementation and review and evaluation. Such management is rare. Much more common is senior management communicating effectively but being much less successful in setting objectives; planning strategically; reviewing; evaluating; consulting staff; and providing clear remits for middle management.

(DES, 1990, para. 63, p. 10)

Clearly work must be done to improve this situation. There appears to be a case for the provision of a programme of inservice training to take account of the need for management development.

**Evaluation, accountability and motivation**

Government approaches to accountability in education are based on extrinsic motivation as the key motivating factor—inspection, appraisal and allowing governors flexibility over pay scales so that 'good' teachers, heads and deputies can supposedly be rewarded. But in times of recession when money is particularly tight such supposed flexibility is not realistic. Public (i.e. private) schools sometimes pay higher rates than schools in the maintained sector—but they have the freedom to alter their fees to increase their income. State schools are given a fixed allocation related to pupil numbers rather than 'what the market will stand'.

The restructuring of HMI and LEA advisory services so that every school is inspected every four years is a key plank of government plans to improve quality in education. But this presupposes that teachers are chiefly motivated by external pressure. It may be that the proposed model of inspection is based on inappropriate assumptions. In service industries, a key motivator is the knowledge that service has been given and has been valued.

In this part, two key aspects of the debate over accountability structures are considered:

1. Evaluating teaching.
2. Developing professional judgment.

We make two proposals in this area: All teachers should be equipped with the professional tools of educational evaluation so that intuitive professional judgments can be backed up by informed professional judgments (proposal 1); accountability systems within education should be reviewed and based on a balanced model of accountability, i.e. with a balance between moral, professional and contractual elements (proposal 2).

**Evaluating teaching**

Strategies for checking the quality of the educational process are an essential professional tool for teachers if it is accepted that it is inappropriate to focus on final outcomes (e.g. examination results at 16 or 18) to judge the quality of education.

Methods of educational evaluation, action research and critical reflection have become well established since Stenhouse (1975) put the case for teachers to research what was happening in their own classrooms. There is now a substantial body of practice and theory on which to draw so that intuitive judgements can be backed up by hard evidence.

These methods are complementary to developing practice in appraisal methods where such systems are designed on the 'teacher as learner' model rather than the 'teacher as inefficient and ineffective' model.

Knowledge about educational evaluation strategies is widespread in some areas of the service but much work remains to be done. Many student teachers on B.Ed. (Hons) courses carry out action research and/or in-depth research into educational practice as part of their training and, as a result, they go into schools equipped with some of the tools necessary for appraising their work. Many colleagues who have studied for higher degrees or who have been involved in centrally funded projects (TVEI, ESG schemes) have been trained in and practised these skills.

However, there are many members of the profession who, for a range of
reasons, have not yet acquired these professional tools. If teachers do not reflect on their work in any formally recognized way, then the basis for professional accountability is shaky.

As a starting point, a common language is needed, and Chapter 9 covers this issue. It is not uncommon for evaluation to be thought of as confined to providing information of the 'how many' and 'what percentage' variety. Whilst there are times when this is exactly the type of information required to inform decision-makers, there are other times when teachers need to know about the 'feel' or 'impact' of a particular curricular initiative or change in school organization. (The former approach is that of 'quantitative evaluation'; the latter is that of 'qualitative evaluation'.)

Developing professional judgment

When Marilyn Leask was investigating planning practices across the country for the SDP Project (1989-90), she found that many teachers were tentative about the value of their own professional judgments. This finding is backed up by her experience as a Key Stage 1 moderator (1991-2). Many teachers have yet to make the step from relying on intuitive judgments to basing their professional judgments on evidence.

The unpredictability of an individual's abilities and potential and the variation in individuals' levels of motivation will always mean that teachers will exercise caution in making statements about an individual's capabilities, but no one is better placed than teachers to make judgments about an individual's learning and the appropriate teaching methods to apply. The practice and experience gained with hundreds and thousands of children during a teaching career, coupled with a knowledge of the teaching and learning process, is not widely recognized as providing a professional base of knowledge and skill. Moderation processes such as those for GCSE and those being used with National Curriculum assessment at Key Stage 1 are useful in developing teachers' professional judgment and their ability to exercise it but more needs to be done.

Thus a higher level of skill and improved confidence in educational evaluation is required if critical reflection is to become part of a teacher's practice and part of the school's planning processes. A word of warning is needed here. Models of evaluation should be based on what can be managed within the normal classroom context by the teacher and new models of evaluation are required which fit with school and classroom constraints. The model of evaluation used by outsiders working in the school cannot be satisfactorily transferred to the classroom teacher's work. Groundwork has been laid through the work of the Classroom Action Research Network and the work which has been done on this issue at a number of institutions of higher education (such as the Cambridge Institute of Education, the University of East Anglia, the Institute of Education (University of London) and Warwick University). Some national initiatives have also provided advice in this area: TVEI and the School Development Plans Project (Hargreaves et al., 1989). Schools developing work on performance indicators use the basic methods of educational evaluation to collect data.

A challenge for educationalists in the nineties is to develop teachers' understanding and confidence in this area of exercising professional judgment. The tentativeness of the profession in this area in the past has been misplaced by public and government to mean that the judgment of lay people is therefore equivalent to that of professionals.

Resources

There will always be a demand for more funds for education. The frontiers of knowledge are continually being extended. The real question is concerned with what level of support is appropriate within current constraints. The impact on the quality of education received as a result of two central resource issues is discussed in this section. These issues are

- class size; and
- school size.

We make one proposal (proposal K): that the quality of the educational experience for the individual child be a key factor in influencing decisions about class size and school size.

Class size

Class size is a crucial issue for teachers. Although there are researchers who claim class size has little impact on cognitive learning, these researchers have taken the child's eye view of the teacher's work, i.e. that it only happens when the teacher and the child are together. They also ignore certain factors which seriously affect the learning milieu and which can be more easily contained in small groups (such as emotional and behavioural problems).

The marking of work, a significant part of a teacher's workload, is directly related to class size. Take the situation in a secondary school. How much time might a parent reasonably expect a teacher to spend marking their child's work every week? Does five minutes seem too little? A secondary colleague teaching 200 children a week calculated that she would have to spend about seventeen hours a week marking at this level. In
fact, the sixth-form essays she was marking were taking her about half an hour each. A primary colleague, who recently 'retired', reports spending on average three hours a night marking. These figures are not unusual.

When the National Union of Teachers carried out a survey into class size and found that 25% of classes contained over thirty-five children, the Secretary of State for Education (Kenneth Clark) commented that class size was not a major factor in pupil achievement (BBC Radio 4, Today, 18 November 1991). Yet public schools make a virtue out of providing smaller classes. Indeed, within weeks, the Secretary of State was advocating the reading programme developed in New Zealand by Professor Clay which depends on the provision of one-to-one tuition for a short intensive period.

Class size clearly does matter.

Williams (1961, p. 147) draws an interesting comparison between class size in state and public (private) schools:

The continued existence of a network of private education, in the preparatory and public schools, may or may not be socially desirable, but in any case it shows the kind of education, and the necessary level of investment in it, which a particular social group accepts as adequate for itself. The large class has haunted public education from the beginning... In the private network, very much smaller classes, and the necessary investment to ensure them, have been accepted as a private duty, in quite a different way from the interpretation of public duty in the national system.

The difference in the accepted class size for young children (with thirty-five not uncommon) and that accepted at GCSE, in the sixth form and in higher education, is a puzzle. Some say it has historical roots - that elementary schools were traditionally organized in large classes; others say it has to do with power relationships between males and females. Females traditionally have less power than males and they comprise the vast majority of those working in primary schools. Hence they end up with fewer resources and larger classes.

Whatever the reason, the discrepancy has continued for too long. Where children are learning the basic skills of reading, writing and maths on which all future work depends, it seems essential that they are in small enough classes so that their individual needs can be addressed. In the long run, an investment in small class size at the primary level could be expected to be cost-effective as children are better able to come to grips with the curriculum in later years. Better use will be made of the subsequent years of schooling.

School size

School size too does not appear to be considered as influencing the quality of education. Some authorities have merged schools so that there are thousands of pupils. Isn't the main gain in this the anonymity of the miscreant? In a school small enough for all children to be known by the teachers, standards of behaviour are easier to enforce (wrong-doers can be recognized even at considerable distance) and a positive ethos easier to establish than in larger establishments. Some would argue that gains in choice of subjects are at the expense of a sense of community and a sense for the individual child of being important. Handy asks the question: 'Why would anyone want a school so big that it can only meet in a cathedral?' (1984, p. 38).

Conclusion

In spite of the intense focus on educational reform over the past years, much energy has been wasted and much still needs to be done if quality is to improve. Reform in the service should be managed in a coherent way. Piecemeal reform which has affected key aspects of the service in recent times contributes as much to increasing confusion and disillusionment as increasing quality.

This lack of coherent planning coupled with a dismissive approach to professional knowledge and experience is potentially dangerous and damaging to children's education. The concerns expressed by primary teachers that the breadth of the primary curriculum enshrined in the National Curriculum will result in less time spent on the 3 Rs and consequently a drop in pupils' learning of these basic skills must be taken seriously. There is no room for complacency if quality is to be improved.
Paper 20

Learning from experience

ASSOCIATION FOR SCIENCE EDUCATION (1991) Only a Teacher ...? An Enquiry into Science Teacher Provision, Hatfield, Association for Science Education in conjunction with the British Association for the Advancement of Science and the Royal Society.

DES (1985b) Better Schools (Cmd 9469) London HMSO


NATIONAL CURRICULUM COUNCIL, (1990)


Paper 21

LEASK, M. (1992)

Principles of Change

Chapter 11

Leask, M. from Goddard, D. and Leask, M.
The Search for Quality:
Planning for Improvement and Managing Change

London, Paul Chapman Publishing
ISBN 1 85396 190 6
There needs to be an open professional debate about the principles, processes and structures supporting effective learning and high quality in education so that agreement can be reached about sound working practises throughout the service. Whilst the goals for education are open to public debate, how to achieve these goals is a matter for professional debate. In any public debate about what constitutes quality in education, the description of achievement produced in the Hargreaves Report (ILEA, 1984) Improving Secondary Schools, provides a sound starting point (Table 11.1).

The notion that achievement is anything more than examination outcomes has been lost over the last decade. That change is an ongoing and incremental process is also not widely understood. Politicians seem only too keen to keep changing education so that another change is made before the first is properly implemented. Why? Fullan (1982, p. 251) gives an interesting explanation: 'Policy making is both more compelling and more exciting than policy implementation.' Policy implementation also takes a long time and ensuring that implementation occurs is a much more complex activity than producing legislation.

Tawney (1952, p. 1) makes an interesting suggestion that the tendency to change for the sake of change is quintessentially English: 'It is a commonplace that the characteristic virtue of Englishmen is their power of sustained practical activity and their characteristic vice a reluctance to test the quality of that activity by reference to principles.' Perhaps this goes some way to explaining the reluctance of the Scottish and Welsh Departments of Education to follow the rapid change proposed/imposed in England.

A central aim of this book is to stimulate debate about the principles, processes and structures which (if in place nationally, at regional level and in schools) support the provision of a flexible, high-quality learning environment for young people in which new initiatives are carefully planned and managed in such a way that established good practice is developed and not discarded.
Achievement aspect i ... is strongly represented in the current 16-plus public examinations. It involves most of all the capacity to express oneself in a written form. It requires the capacity to retain propositional knowledge, to select from such knowledge appropriately in response to a specified request, and to do so quickly without reference to possible sources of information. The capacity to memorize and organize material is particularly important. Public examinations measure such achievement in that they are mainly written tests, set with strict time limits and with the requirement that pupils have few or no additional resources available to them. The examinations emphasize knowledge rather than skill; memorization more than problem-solving or investigational capacities; writing rather than speaking or other forms of communication; speed rather than reflection; individual rather than group achievement.

Achievement aspect ii ... is concerned with the capacity to apply knowledge rather than knowledge itself, with the practical rather than the theoretical, with the oral rather than the written. Problem-solving and investigational skills are more important than the retention of knowledge. This aspect is to some degree measured in public examinations, but it is often seen as secondary and less important than aspect i. It tends to be more difficult, as well as more time-consuming and more expensive, to assess than aspect i.

Achievement aspect iii ... is concerned with personal and social skills; the capacity to communicate with others, in face-to-face relationships; the ability to co-operate with others in the interests of the group as well as of the individual; initiative, self-reliance and the ability to work alone without close supervision; and the skills of leadership. This aspect of achievement remains virtually untapped by the 16-plus examinations.

Achievement aspect iv ... involves motivation and commitment; the willingness to accept failure without destructive consequences; the readiness to persevere; the self-confidence to learn in spite of the difficulty of the task. Such motivation is often regarded as a prerequisite to achievement, rather than as an achievement in itself. We do not deny that motivation is a prerequisite to the other three aspects of achievement, but we also believe that it can be regarded as an achievement in its own right. For some pupils come to their schools without such motivation, yet the school succeeds in generating it in them and in such circumstances, both the school and the pupils have made an important achievement. By contrast, some schools actively reduce the motivation and commitment of pupils, thereby causing further underachievement in aspects i–iii. In one sense, aspect iv is the most important of all, since without it, achievement in the other three aspects is likely to be very limited, both at school and in the future ...

(From the Hargreaves Report, ILEA, 1984, p. 2.)
Neglected components in the process of improving quality

These assumptions led to the neglect of five of the key components in the process of improving quality which were identified in Chapter 1 and which provided themes running through this book (Table 11.3).

Table 11.3 Neglected components in the process of improving quality

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<td>1</td>
<td>The influence of society’s views and beliefs, actions and priorities.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>The necessity for consultation and reaching consensus about improvement.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>The need for a coherent and improved approach to change.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>The motivation of those involved.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The need for increased understanding of the learning process for pupils and teachers and its implications for teaching.</td>
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This neglect has given rise to fundamental problems which have lessened the capacity of the education service to improve quality. One particular problem is the neglect of the improvement process.

Understanding the improvement process

Understanding the improvement process is crucial if quality in education is to be improved. The various facets of the improvement process identified in Part III are summarized in Table 11.4.

Table 11.4 Facets of the improvement process

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<td>1</td>
<td>The analysis and identification of pupils’ needs.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Creating a balanced curricular framework that is progressively fleshed out from the national statement of aims and policies through local determination of goals to school action.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Continuous curriculum development.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Increased research into and development of learning, teaching and the improvement process.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Establishing a sound evaluation system at all levels that is firmly located within an improvement process.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Complementary high-quality action through staff and curriculum and institutional development programmes within improved planning and plans to support changes.</td>
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Proposals for improvement

The problems facing the education service and the possible solutions discussed in Chapter 10 come from our analysis of the current situation. These proposals are summarized in Table 11.5.

Table 11.5 A summary of proposals for improving aspects of the system and service

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The framework of the system</td>
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<td>• That the improvement of understanding and links between different parts of the system be a priority.</td>
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<td>• That a coherent framework for the operation of the service be established.</td>
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<td>• That a comprehensive management and career structure which supports development be established.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Curriculum and assessment, teaching and learning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• That change in approaches to curriculum and assessment and teaching and learning methods be based on evidence rather than prejudice and that the professional judgment of teachers be recognized.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher education</td>
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<td>• That a national policy on teacher education be developed which ensures the continuing professional development of teachers.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Teacher quality and qualifications</td>
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<td>• That the issues of minimum qualifications, teacher-supply problems and the drawing up of a teachers' register be addressed.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Management development</td>
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<td>• That a coherent programme for management development be designed which can cater for the needs of teachers and other members of the service at different stages of their careers.</td>
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<td>• That the operation of the LMS innovation be evaluated and that findings be acted upon.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Evaluation, accountability and motivation</td>
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<td>• That the tools of educational evaluation be recognized as essential professional skills.</td>
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<td>• That accountability systems should be balanced.</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Resources</td>
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<td>• That the quality of the educational experience for the individual child be a key factor in decisions about class size and school size.</td>
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Principles for the operation of the service

It is from all this earlier work that we derive a set of basic principles for the operation of the service (Table 11.6).

Table 11.6 Principles on which the work of the education service could be built

1. The central function of the education system is supporting and promoting high-quality teaching and learning in the classroom.
2. All partners in education have duties and responsibilities as well as rights.
3. Accountability structures should be broadly based and balanced.
4. Pluralism and flexibility within a national framework is a strength not a weakness.
5. Improving quality depends on investment in people. Motivation is central to improving quality.
6. Management styles should be chosen for their appropriateness to the management of the education service.
7. The need to change is normal but agreement should be reached through consultation and debate based on professional judgements and evidence gained through research.
8. A holistic approach is required for change to be coherent.
9. Long-term approaches to achieving improvement are essential for success. Short-term actions cannot be accommodated in educational provision which for any child is an eleven-year-long process.

Whilst the need for continuous change might be accepted, those with the power for change must avoid lurching from one change to another. It is important to learn how to build on what has gone before. But on what foundations should education in the UK be built? Is there a case, at national level, for agreement to be sought on a set of principles which would provide foundations for the development of the service?

To gain widespread acceptance, such a redifinition of educational goals would require widespread support and perhaps be the product of national debate – not just consultation – but real debate. The debate that followed the Green Paper, Education in Schools: A Consultative Document (DES, 1977) involved conferences and discussions and drew on papers from a wide variety of people. Might this earlier work provide a basis for the way to conduct future debate? It must be remembered that the quality of national debate will improve over time as people become familiar with the approach. The debate on the Green Paper may not have been very effective at that time but if the approach had been pursued it could have led to real consultation.

Conclusion

After a decade of radical change in education, what has happened? What is apparent is that there has been no overall conscious plan for education – political expedience and crisis management have been the national approach to improving education.

The trend to seek short-term solutions to educational problems must be challenged. There needs to be a recognition that without the consideration of the individual’s and the school’s ability to implement change, desired changes in the quality of the education service will not occur and that without a conscious attempt to define the processes, structures and principles providing a quality framework, quality outcomes will be random.

It is time to take stock of education. The implementation of the 1988 Education Act will continue well into the nineties and unless this is properly managed the interests of the children will be damaged. Many schools have developed sound systems for managing change. It is time this good practice – of planning and managing development coherently – was adopted at national level.

Government attitudes to the professionalism of teachers need to change. There is no such thing as a teacher-proof innovation. If change is to be successful, teachers must be fully involved in decision-making, as well as being properly trained and qualified. Teacher involvement and confidence is crucial:

A weakened teaching force will only result in the deterioration of educational standards. Confidence is an essential commodity for the successful management of schools and for the introduction and management of the national curriculum. Also the creativity of teachers is a necessary feature if all major changes are to be satisfactorily implemented. Without a sense of professional power, teachers will be unable to make their contribution to the partnership of pupils, parents and policy makers (professional and lay).

(Goddard, 1989c, p. 2)

There is a desperate need for vision at national level. Those who make decisions need to communicate a clear vision for the future based on an acceptance that the world is fast changing and that risk taking and occasional failure will be features of change as educationalists strive to prepare young people for the unknown.

Quality in education depends on investment in the people involved (and not just cash but emotional capital investment). Without the recognition of
the necessity for such crucial investment or of the need to constantly update the National Curriculum, there is a very real danger that educational practice will become ossified to the detriment of the education of young people who need to be prepared to face the challenges of the twenty-first century.

So how is this coherent planned approach we see as so essential to be managed? Some form of professional council with this specific brief seems to be essential. Senior officials and politicians by the very nature of their careers have only a passing influence in education. The education service needs to operate within a stable, planned framework if quality is to be improved and the resources available not wasted through ad hoc approaches. The nation's future depends on the quality of education our children obtain and nothing less than the best we can provide is good enough.

Improvement in education will not happen as a result of massive swings in direction. It will only occur through a long-term programme of renewal.
Principles of Change

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Paper 22

LEASK, M. (1994)

Modular courses, assessment and student capability

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*London, Kogan Page*
Chapter 4

Modular Courses, Assessment and Student Capability

Marilyn Leask

Developing a modular degree programme

Over a three-year period, the first degree programmes at Bedford College of Higher Education were rewritten as modular degree programmes, partly in response to the national Credit and Accumulation Transfer Scheme (CATS), which eases student transfer between institutions, partly to widen student choice and partly to ensure more efficient use of resources. The courses affected included those for BA, BSc, BEd (primary) and BEd (secondary) degrees.

When the new modules were being devised, staff were encouraged to include a range of assessment strategies to suit the work the students were undertaking. There were, of course, certain constraints. The assessment for each module was to be equivalent to the production of a 2,500-word essay. Modules are designed to provide 30 hours of student/lecturer contact time and 70 hours 'non-contact' time. The modules are taught in two-hour blocks over one semester, i.e. a 15-week period, and the teaching year is divided into two semesters. The sizes of teaching groups vary from about 20 to 120 with some provision for personal tutorials on a one-to-one basis.

In this chapter, the results of a small-scale study reviewing staff and student experience with assessment on the modular programmes are discussed. Although the findings are context-specific, nevertheless a number of issues were raised which are worthy of consideration within the context of enhancing student capability through modular degree programmes. Quotations from students and staff are provided in the text but they are coded to provide anonymity.

Methodology

I collected data from students and staff using questionnaires and interviews. I also analysed course documentation. Open-ended interviews with a small number of staff and students were used initially to identify concerns that could be followed up through a questionnaire. Two groups of students on
the new programmes completed questionnaires. The groups were unknown to each other as they came from different sites and different degree programmes. One group was in the second year and the other was in the first year. I administered questionnaires to students as they attended lectures so there was a high response rate from the sample groups. The questions were open-ended, again to allow the main areas of concern to be identified. A third group of students, from the last cohort on a non-modular degree, were asked to contrast their experiences of assessment (some assessed course work with end-of-year examinations) with those of their friends on the new modular degree.

Questionnaires coupled with selected in-depth interviews were used to collect data from staff. The sample included 60 students, and about 20 per cent of the staff who are significantly involved in teaching on modular degree programmes. The majority of these staff have also taught on traditional degree programmes.

Modular assessment: does it enhance student capability?

In seeking to answer the question above, I identified four main contexts through which modular assessment could be used to enhance student capability:

- where the assessment is used formatively, i.e. if students are able to use the assessments to improve the quality of future assignments;
- where a variety of forms of assessment is used – so that assessment is not narrowly focused on one aspect of performance – for example, the memorization of facts;
- where assessment is seen to be fair and relevant;
- where an overall assessment framework exists which is designed to ensure coherence and progression in student learning.

This is not a definitive list, nor are items listed in order of importance, but the four contexts provided a useful framework for the analysis of the data.

In order to identify central concerns about and the successes of modular assessment, students and staff were simply asked to identify any positive and any negative features of assessment within the modular system. I then used the framework provided by the four contexts to analyse the data. The results are as follows.

The formative use of assessment

More than half of both groups of students found the monitoring of their progress through modular assessment particularly helpful. As one student wrote: 'Assessment ...gives an idea of how you are coping with the course and the results and expectations of the module are available at a time when help is of value' (1P,10). Many students thought that the continual monitoring provided by modular assessment improved attainment. The comment 'You can keep track of your progress. If you do badly in one
assessment, you can pick up on the next assessment’ (IP,9) incorporates the view expressed by a number of students. But about a quarter of the staff commented that because most assessments fall at the end of the module, opportunities for feedback to students are limited. Interestingly, none of the students made this comment and about a quarter of the Year 1 students specifically mentioned the positive help they’d had from tutorial staff. This may indicate that whilst staff see modules are discrete items, students see them as part of a larger process of learning.

Staff commented that the availability of assessment results early in a degree course was useful to students and that students used assessment methods as one criterion for the choice of modules. Two members of staff felt that the quality of student work improved as students were working more consistently throughout the year. Students who said that having to work continuously was an issue were divided in their views about whether this was a positive or a negative feature.

A couple of students commented that the modular system aids learning through investigation and they felt this consolidated their knowledge.

**Variety of forms of assessment**

Staff were urged to integrate a range of assessment strategies into the modular programmes. The CNAA documents (Burgess and Lee, 1989; CNAA 1989, 1990, 1992) were cited by some staff as being particularly helpful in providing examples of different approaches. (See Table 4.1)

**Table 4.1 A summary of the assessment methods used on courses**

Examples of the assessment methods used on courses:

- production of resource packs
- essays (usually on problematic education issues)
- analysis of school policy statements
- teaching experience plans and evaluation
- laboratory manual completion
- staff and peer assessment of seminar work
- display (using IT or visual aids)
- presentation of a sequence (dance or gym)
- formal examination (with a variety of types of question)
- short tests
- analysis of case studies
- group displays
- tests with viva
- seminar notes
- logs or diaries
- seen questions
- investigations
- practical assessments
- oral presentations

Note: The courses are modular and assessment for each module is the equivalent of a 2,500-word essay. There is also an action research project (about 10,000 words).

The experience reported by the students confirms that a variety of assessment strategies are used. All the Year 1 students had experienced at least three different types of assessment in the preceding semester, with the majority experiencing four or five. The assessments included essays, oral presentations, practical assessments, laboratory notes, portfolios of work, examinations. The Year 2 students (on a different degree programme) reported less variety of assessment in the preceding semester. All had
experienced at least two forms of assessment (essay and examination) with many reporting three (the third being either oral assessment or practical assessment). This possibly suggests a fall back to more traditional forms of assessment although their experience of earlier modules is taken into account, the forms of assessment mirror those for the Year 1 students. The analysis of course documentation for both groups indicates that the use of wide variety of assessment strategies is intended.

Some staff commented that assessment could tend to be 'bitty' and that there could be some loss of student capability in essay writing when other forms of assessment are used. A positive comment was that lecturers were able to match content with an appropriate assessment method.

Assessment is seen to be fair and relevant

A number of students made comments similar to the following one – that modular assessment 'makes the course far more interesting and learning becomes a pleasure' (1P,7). Others said the forms of assessment used encouraged students to read more widely rather than just to revise from notes for an examination. 'This [the research required] ensures that the student has an understanding of the topics' (2S,6). Unevenness of assessment between modules and unevenness of standard between lecturers were identified by a small number of students as areas of concern.

The second year group made quite strong statements about their preference for a modular system over a more traditional 'finals' system. Almost all students in this group said the modular system was fairer.

Student workloads

Complaints from students about the assessment workload on the modular degree were among the concerns which prompted this study. However, when students were faced with the option of the alternative system of examinations at the end of a year or two, they clearly considered that modular assessment had significant advantages in spite of the workload. One student summed up the views voiced by more than half of each student group:

'It [modular assessment] takes the pressure off'. Another commented that 'knowing what standard you were working to' was a positive feature of modular assessment.

A couple of students suggested that modular assessment was less demanding for students than traditional examinations – 'less self-discipline is needed to do well', one student suggested (1P,17). Another student made the point that there was 'no reason to retain any of the information after the module finishes' (2S,6). This point reflects staff concerns about the depth of coverage of a subject in a modular system where prerequisites for the taking of modules are kept to a minimum to allow for flexibility. Staff identified progression as a problem as students come with different academic backgrounds. There was also seen to be less scope for individual excellence and specialization.
'Bunching' of assessment was identified by more than half the students in each group and by more than half of the staff as being an issue of concern. The degree submissions do show that assessments are 'bunched' at the halfway mark (after seven weeks of two hours of lectures per week) and at the end of the module. Some staff and students commented that students need to be able to manage their time well.

Over assessment?
The third group of students, the last cohort of a non-modular degree, recognized the advantages of modular assessment, particularly the lack of final examinations and the relevance of assessment of current work. But they were unanimous in their concern about the level of work that they had seen those in the year below them having to undertake. Staff too have voiced the concern that students are 'over-assessed' within the modular scheme. This seems to happen simply because each module is assessed and although the assessment is meant to be the equivalent of a 2,500-word essay where a variety of methods are used, it can be difficult to quantify the work the students actually have to do.

The assessment framework
Staff saw a number of advantages of modular assessment in improving the quality of courses. Assessment could be seen as 'an integral part of teaching' (S2), one member of staff wrote. Others considered that modular assessment demands 'clear objectives' (S7) with the 'learning outcomes set out' (S8). One commented that the planning process was streamlined as 'fewer staff are involved in compilation of assessment' (S5), whilst another considered that 'careful planning and structuring of courses' was a positive demand of modular work.

Communication between different departments within the institution was ad hoc at lecturer level. This meant that strategies which staff devised and lessons which staff learnt from the implementation of the first phase of modularization were not necessarily communicated to those planning the following phases. One example is the assessment framework developed by one department in the first phase of modularization. Staff developing some BSc modules planned their assessment on the basis of three levels which roughly equate to the year of study—Level 1 focusing on acquisition of skills, Level 2 on synthesis of knowledge and Level 3 on interpretation. In anticipation of higher student numbers, staff decided to assess through examinations based on computer-marked multiple choice questions for Level 1. At Level 2 the assessment was planned to be about one-third multiple choice and two-thirds laboratory practical work; at Level 3 assessment included essay work and practical work. Staff marking loads were thus more controlled. Solutions to the problem of increased marking load for staff could have been recognized earlier.

Marking load
The phased introduction of a modular degree means that staff are cushioned
from the full impact of the change for a couple of years. As a modular degree is progressively implemented, the marking load builds up. In the first year, only the marking from one cohort of students comes toward the end of the module; in the second year, the marking for two cohorts falls at the same time and by the third year, with three groups now on a modular programme, the volume of marking occurring at the same time could become a significant problem unless action is taken to avoid marking overload. Staff teaching loads in any one semester vary too, so that staff with heavy teaching loads in one semester could find themselves with an enormous marking load. The higher staff:student ratios of recent years exacerbate the problem and planning needs to take account of the issue. This raises a question about the desirability of a whole-institution policy on assessment.

Other issues

One interesting issue which staff raised, which does not relate directly to modular assessment but is worth mentioning in the context of enhancing student capability, is staff/student relationships. Some members of staff feel there is a loss in continuity of relationships on modular courses as students are no longer identifiable as being on one particular course. As this loss of identity may well have an impact on students' sense of self-worth and the formation of supportive student networks, the issue is worthy of consideration in the debate about modularity and the enhancement of student capability.

While few of the students made comments on the issue of progression in learning and the potential lack of coherence and depth in modular programmes, these concerns were expressed by some staff. These are clearly areas where work needs to be done.

Conclusion

Modular assessment is in a number of respects similar to continuous assessment and the benefits of enhanced student capability identified through this study are probably available to students on courses with traditional teaching structures which use continuous and varied assessment strategies. The problem of 'bunching' of assessment which is perhaps inevitable with modular degree programmes does need to be anticipated and actively managed by students and staff alike.

This case study, limited as it is in scope, raises a number of issues concerning modular assessment and the enhancement of student capability which those proceeding down the modular course route may wish to consider:

- Modular assessment can play a formative role thus enhancing student learning.
- Students need to be well organized and to be able to manage their time well.
• Students consider the system fairer than an examination system but steps should be taken to ensure similar standards between modules and lecturers.
• Modular assessment is generally perceived as relevant.
• A tendency to over-assessment may occur.
• An institutional assessment policy may enhance comparability and progression and ensure the sharing of good practice.
• The phasing of assessment needs to be planned to ease workloads. A constraint is that modules finish at the same time to allow changeover.
• There may be some cost in terms of specialization and depth if a wide choice of modules is permitted.
• Staff/student and student/student relationships may be affected.

If those planning modular courses take account of these points, they may be able to avoid some of the pitfalls that await the unwary treading the new ground of modular assessment and thus more easily reap the rewards of modularization.

References

Paper 23


What do Teachers do?

Chapter 1.1

Leask, M. in Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.

*Learning to Teach in the Secondary School*

*London, Routledge*

0-415-11680-5
Through the units in this chapter, the complexity and breadth of the teacher's role and the nature of teaching are explored. You are posed questions about your values and attitudes because these influence the type of teacher you become. Learning about teaching and learning is, we suggest, a life-long process for the teacher which is aided by regular reflection on practice and continuing education, e.g. through 'in-service education and training'.

Each unit in this chapter examines different facets of the work of student teachers and experienced teachers.

Unit 11 covers wider aspects of the teacher's role, including academic and pastoral roles and we consider the necessity for continual curriculum review.

In the second unit, we discuss the expectations which your college and school tutors will have of you. The meaning of professionalism is discussed and the idea that you will have your own philosophy of teaching is introduced. Phases which mark your development as a teacher are identified. We suggest that as your confidence and competence in managing the classroom grow, you can expect the focus of your work to move from your self-image and the mechanics of managing a lesson, to the learning taking place generally and, as you become more experienced, to the learning for the individual pupil.

Unit 13 provides advice for managing time, both inside and outside the classroom and for preventing stress. There are a variety of competing demands made on your time and if you learn to use your time effectively you will have more time to enjoy your work as a teacher and more leisure time.

To become a teacher you need to supplement your subject knowledge with professional knowledge about teaching and learning and to develop your professional judgement, e.g. about managing situations which arise with pupils. Ways of developing your professional knowledge and judgement provide themes running throughout the book.

1.1 WHAT DO TEACHERS DO?

The answer to this question depends on where and when the question is being asked. You will be teaching in the twenty-first century. We'd like to take you back in time, just for a moment, to English schools in the Middle Ages.

Curtis (1967, pp. 23-24) writes that in England in the twelfth century,

theology was considered the queen of studies, to which philosophy served as an introduction. The studies which led to the supreme study of theology were known generally as the Seven Liberal Arts. The Arts (or sciences) were termed liberal from liber, free and constituted the course of study suitable for the freeman as contrasted with the Practical and Mechanical Arts which were learned and practised by slaves in the classical period. The arts were divided into the Trivium and Quadrivium....

The subjects of the Trivium consisted of Grammar, Rhetoric and Dialectic (logic) and of the Quadrivium, Arithmetic, Geometry, Astronomy and Music - the subjects of the Trivium were taught to younger pupils and the Quadrivium to older pupils. There were grammar schools (providing preparation for university work), song schools (for teaching singing in Latin at church services) and reading and writing schools (effectively providing a primary education). The three schools were often housed under the one roof and the language of instruction changed with political changes - from Latin to Norman-French to the vernacular.

Can you imagine teaching in this way today? Whom would we consider the freemen and whom the slaves? Clearly what teachers teach reflects the times in which they live so change is essential in education. Without change, we would have a fossilised, out-of-date curriculum - what Peddledwell (1939 cited in Goddard and Leask, 1992) called the 'sabre-toothed curriculum'. Peddledwell describes a prehistoric community which successfully taught its youngsters how to deal with sabre-toothed tigers. Unfortunately, the curriculum wasn't updated when the sabre-toothed tigers died out, with the result that the children's education didn't prepare them for the new challenges facing the community. This illustrates the necessity for regular review of the curriculum and, for similar reasons, teachers' knowledge and skills should be regularly updated. So what teachers do depends on what is happening in the wider community. The way society develops an appropriate curriculum is discussed in more detail in Chapter 7.
OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit you should:

- be aware of the range of skills and forms of knowledge which a teacher uses in planning and giving lessons;
- have considered the relationship between subject knowledge and effective teaching;
- have an understanding of various aspects of a teacher's role and responsibilities including academic and pastoral roles, administration and health and safety;
- be developing your own philosophy of teaching.

CLASSEK30 PRACTICE - AN INTRODUCTION TO HOW TEACHERS TEACH

The teacher's job is first and foremost to ensure that pupils learn. To a large extent, what (i.e. the lesson content) pupils should learn in maintained (state) schools in England and Wales is determined through legislation and the requirements are set out in various National Curriculum documents. Parents, through governors, can, however, have a say about sex education. On the other hand, how you teach so that the pupils learn effectively (i.e. the methods and materials used) is left to the professional judgement of the individual teacher, department and school.

Task 1.11

FOCUSING ON COMPETENCES

It may help you to understand what is expected of newly qualified teachers if you find out about the competences required of you by the end of your course. These can be found in your course handbook or in the appendices which include competences for Scotland, Northern Ireland and England and Wales.

Teaching is a very personal activity and while certain teaching styles and strategies might suit one teacher, they might not be appropriate for another. However, although there exists a core of good practice to which most teachers would subscribe there are differences between teachers which relate to personality, style and philosophy. Moreover, observers of the same teacher might well disagree about the strengths and weaknesses of that teacher. In your first days in school, it is likely that you will spend time observing a number of experienced teachers. It is highly unlikely that you will see two teachers who teach identically. Perhaps you will see teaching styles which you feel more at home with, while others do not seem as appropriate to your own developing practice. Of course, there is no one way to teach. Provided effective teaching and learning takes place, a whole range of approaches from didactic (formal, heavy on content) to experiential (learning by doing) is appropriate - often in the same lesson. Unit 53 provides more details about teaching styles.

Learning to manage the classroom is similar in many ways to learning to drive. At the outset there seems so much to remember. How do you manage to depress the clutch; brake; change gear; be aware of oncoming traffic and cars following you; look in the mirror; indicate; obey the speed limit; observe traffic signs and signals; be aware of and sensitive to, changing road and weather conditions; anticipate problems and steer simultaneously? After a short time, however, such skills become part of subconscious patterns of behaviour.

Much of what many experienced teachers do to manage their classes has become part of their unconscious classroom behaviour. Their organisation of the lesson so that pupils learn is implicit in what they do rather than explicit. So much so, that often teachers find it hard to articulate exactly what it is they are doing or why it is successful. This situation, of course, does not help the student teacher. It also gives weight to the spurious notion that teachers are born rather than made and that nobody can tell you how to teach.

Undoubtedly some teachers may well begin teaching with certain advantages such as a 'good' voice or organisational skills. Nevertheless there are common skills and techniques to be learned that, when combined with an awareness of and sensitivity to, the teaching and learning contexts, enable student teachers to manage their classes effectively.

'Teaching is a continuously creative and a problem-solving activity. Each learner or each group of learners, has their own characteristics which the experienced teacher takes into account in planning the relevant learning programme. For example, if there has been recent controversy over environmental issues in the local area or the school has taken refugees fleeing from civil war, an effective teacher will adapt their approach to the discussion of such matters to make lessons more relevant and to allow the pupils to draw on their experience. Although lessons with different groups may have similar content, a lesson is rarely delivered in the same way twice. Variations in interactions between the pupils and the teacher affect the teaching strategy chosen.

THE WORK IN THE CLASSROOM - THE TIP OF THE ICEBERG

On the surface, teaching may appear to be a relatively simple process - the view that the teacher stands in front of the class and talks and the pupils learn appears to be all too prevalent. (Ask friends and family what they think a teacher does)

The reality is somewhat different.

Classroom teaching is only the most visible part of the job of the teacher. The contents of this book are designed to introduce you to what we see as the invisible foundation of the teacher's work: professional knowledge about teaching and learning and professional judgement about the routines, skills and strategies which support effective classroom management. Your subject knowledge comes from your degree and from your continuing professional development. An effective teacher draws on these three factors in planning each and every lesson and the learning for a particular class is planned ahead - over weeks, months and years - so that there is continuity and progression in the pupils' learning. Each lesson is planned as part of a sequence of learning experiences.
Throughout your course, you should expect to develop confidence and new levels of competence in all these areas.

### Subject Knowledge and Effective Teaching

A common misunderstanding about teaching is that if you know your subject then you automatically can teach it well. In the same way that delivering of milk to the doorstep provides no guarantee that it will be taken into the house, so too is it with the subject content of a lesson. You cannot assume that pupils will automatically take in what you had hoped to teach them. The fact that you are an expert in a subject is no guarantee that you can help others learn that subject.

It is usually assumed that students on a one year post-graduate course have a certain level of subject knowledge and their initial teacher education course usually concentrates on subject application to the classroom. These students often find they have to relearn aspects of their subject which they may not have thought about for years as well as material which is new to them. You can expect to have to widen your knowledge base so that you have a deeper understanding of the subject than is required by the syllabus. Wider knowledge enables you to develop differentiated tasks much more easily and gives you confidence that you will be able to answer questions.

Teaching requires you to transform the knowledge you possess into suitable tasks which lead to learning. Acquiring appropriate up-to-date knowledge requires some effort on your part and this is just part of the work of the teacher. The National Curriculum provides a useful starting point for student teachers and most subject associations produce relevant materials and run annual conferences which help you keep up with developments. Addresses of subject associations can be found in The Education Year Book (published annually).

However, to teach effectively, you need more than good subject knowledge.

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**Subject Knowledge Competences**

Identify the competences in Subject Knowledge required by your course (or consult the lists in the appendix). You will see that some of these relate to the National Curriculum. Now look at the National Curriculum for your subject. Analyse it to identify the areas of knowledge that you can cope with now, those you could cope with with some effort and those areas which require totally new learning. Where there are areas which are unfamiliar to you, set yourself goals for improving this aspect of your knowledge. You may find it helpful to discuss these goals with more experienced colleagues. Make sure to check your progress regularly e.g. before school experience and after your final school experience. A personal profile of your developing knowledge of subject matter could be included in your portfolio. Your knowledge needs may be able to be further addressed in your first post as a newly qualified teacher through In-service education, for example.
As already indicated, personality and personal style do influence your effectiveness as a teacher but many skills and strategies can be learned and practised until they become part of your professional repertoire. We introduce you to theories underpinning educational practice and ideas which can provide a foundation for your development as an effective teacher whatever your subject. But what do we mean by effective teaching?

Effective teaching occurs where the learning experience structured by the teacher matches the needs of the learner i.e. tasks develop the individual pupil's knowledge, skills, attitudes and/or understanding in such a way that the pupil is applying past knowledge as appropriate and laying the foundation for the next stage of learning. A key feature of effective teaching is balancing the pupils' chance of success against the level of difficulty required to challenge them. Effective teaching depends on complex interrelationships of a whole range of factors, a major one of which is the teacher's understanding of the different ways in which pupils learn. Chapter 5 provides further information about pupil learning. Understanding about the ways in which learning takes place is essential to your work as a teacher of a subject and this understanding provides the foundations on which to build your professional knowledge about teaching and learning. The more closely the teaching method matches the preferred learning style of the pupils the more effective the teaching will be. The content covers various different aspects of the teaching and learning process which influence a teacher's effectiveness.

As a student teacher you have the opportunity to develop a repertoire of teaching styles and strategies and to test these out in the classroom. The information in various chapters should help you in this process. It may take you considerable time before you can apply the principles of effective teaching to your classroom practice but you can monitor your development through regular evaluation of lessons (see Unit 5.4). We aim to provide a basic introduction to what are complex areas and it is up to you systematically to develop your professional knowledge and judgement through analysing your experience (i.e. through reflection) and wider reading. Figure 11.2 illustrates what we see as the

Interconnections between effective teaching, subject knowledge, professional knowledge and professional judgement.

THE WIDER ROLE

The success of a school depends on the qualities and commitment of the staff as well as the pupils. A teacher's work is very varied and probably no one teacher's job is exactly the same as another's.

Most staff have responsibilities beyond their subject specialism; they may become involved in cross-curricular issues: personal, social and health education; school development planning: work experience: liaison with primary schools: careers advice; links with industry; planning educational trips and social events; curriculum planning and development: assessment; planning and implementing school policies; extra-curricular activities. In addition, teachers have a role to play in supporting the school ethos by reinforcing school rules and routines e.g. on behaviour, dress and in encouraging pupils to develop self-discipline so that the school can function effectively and so that pupils can make the most of opportunities available to them.

Under the 1988 Education Reform Act, teachers have responsibility for implementing the National Curriculum and for the spiritual and moral welfare of their pupils (Unit 8.4) sets out statutory duties so most teachers have both a specialist academic role and a pastoral role. Both roles encompass administrative as well as teaching responsibilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The academic role</th>
<th>The pastoral role and spiritual and moral welfare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The academic role of the teacher encompasses a variety of activities including:</td>
<td>Pastoral duties vary from school to school. They often include:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* subject teaching</td>
<td>* working as part of a pastoral team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* lesson preparation</td>
<td>* teaching personal and social health education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* setting and marking of homework</td>
<td>* taking part in the daily act of worship required by legislation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* assessing pupil progress in a variety of ways including marking tests and exams</td>
<td>* getting to know the pupils as individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* writing reports</td>
<td>* helping pupils with problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* recording achievement</td>
<td>* being responsible for a form registering the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* working as part of a subject team</td>
<td>* following up absences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* curriculum development and planning</td>
<td>* monitoring sanctions and rewards given to form members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* undertaking visits, field courses</td>
<td>* reinforcing school rules and routines, eg. on behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* reporting to parents</td>
<td>* writing reports, ensuring records of achievement and/ or profiles are up to date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* keeping up to date (often through work with the subject association)</td>
<td>* house/year group activities (plays/sports)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* implementing school policies</td>
<td>* liaising with parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* extra-curricular activities</td>
<td>* ensuring school Information is conveyed to parents via pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* examining for GCSE and A level boards</td>
<td>* giving careers and subject guidance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* extra-curricular activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11.2 Subject knowledge is part of the effective teacher's professional tool kit
There are a number of administrative responsibilities which are part of a teacher's job: for example, record keeping (marks for homework, tests, classwork; attendance), marking, producing pupils' profiles and helping with records of achievement and pupil profiles, writing references, attending meetings and planning. From the beginning of your school experiences, it is worth trying to develop efficient ways of dealing with this administration otherwise you will waste a lot of time. Developing your word processing skills may be useful. Unit 1.4 on time management provides further advice. Later units provide more detailed information on a variety of aspects of the academic and pastoral roles.

HEALTH AND SAFETY

All teachers are responsible for the health and safety of the pupils in their charge. Legally, as a student teacher you cannot take on that responsibility. Whenever you are teaching, the ultimate responsibility lies with the class teacher.

Nevertheless, in planning your lessons you must take into account the health and safety of your pupils by appropriate planning, e.g. identifying activities that do not endanger pupils, e.g. climbing on chairs; or for science and related subjects following the COSHH (Control Of Substances Hazardous to Health) regulations. Sharing your lesson plans in advance with your class teacher is an essential feature of your responsibility to both the pupils and your teachers. If you have any doubts about the safety of the lesson, ask for advice. If advice is not available, then don't use that strategy.

Whilst you are teaching, an experienced teacher must always be available in the classroom or nearby. If the lesson has special safety considerations, e.g. in PE or science, then if the class teacher or a suitably qualified teacher is not available, you must not proceed as if they were. Have an alternative lesson up your sleeve which does not require specific subject specialist support but could be carried out with the support of another teacher. Sometimes you may have to cancel your planned lesson.

It follows from this situation that, legally, you cannot act as supply teacher to fill in if the regular teacher is absent.

HEALTH AND SAFETY PROCEDURES

Find out who is responsible for health and safety in your school experience school. Find the school and departmental policies on health and safety. Check the procedures you will be expected to apply – for example, in science, find out how you should check the safety of the chemicals or other equipment you may use, locate the eyewash bottle and gas, water and electricity isolating taps switches; in PE check that you know how to test the safety of any apparatus pupils might use. Find out the names of the First Aiders in the school, where the first aid box is, what you are permitted to do if an incident occurs and what forms have to be filled in to record any accident.

We suggest that you take a first aid course and find out particularly how to deal with faints, nose bleeds, fits, asthma attacks, epilepsy, diabetic problems, burns, bleeding and common accidents. But you should not administer first aid yourself unless qualified and even then, only the minimum necessary. You should report any incident and make a written record. There will usually be a record book in school for this purpose. Your subject association should be able to provide you with subject specific safety information and local branches of the British Red Cross or St John Ambulance have information about first aid courses. St John Ambulance produces a first aid text for schools (details are provided at the end of this unit).

Task

HEALTH AND SAFETY – WHAT SHOULD YOU KNOW?

What should you know and be able to do if you are to discharge your duties as a student teacher and as a teacher in your subject area? Discuss this with your tutor and other student teachers in your specialist area. To what extent do school and departmental rules help staff and pupils understand their duties in the area of safety?

Teachers also have a wide range of statutory duties which are further discussed in Unit 83.

Summary and key points

In the UK, while the curriculum is to a large extent centrally determined, the choice of teaching methods and materials is largely in the hands of the individual teacher. Your own philosophy of teaching affects the way you approach your work – this philosophy should develop over time as you acquire further professional knowledge and your professional judgement develops.

Clearly there are core skills which the effective teacher possesses and you can identify many of these by skimming through the contents of each chapter. As a student, you have to move from knowing about these skills to being able to exercise them flexibly so that the planned learning can take place. The lists of competences for newly qualified teachers are best regarded as highlighting areas for development in which you will improve your capability. There are no ready-made patterns for success in teaching. Key elements in becoming a successful teacher, i.e. teaching effective lessons, include:

• adequate, secure subject knowledge
• attention to planning
• awareness of pupil needs
• concern for the welfare of pupils.

A range of different solutions can be employed in most situations and different strategies succeed with different pupils.
Paper 23

What do Teachers do?

Paper 24


The student teacher's role and responsibilities

Chapter 1.2

Leask, M. in Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.

Learning to Teach in the Secondary School

London, Routledge
0-415-11680-5
THE STUDENT TEACHER'S ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES

INTRODUCTION

The school-based experiences of the student teacher depend on a three way partnership between the school, the student and higher education institution, except in those cases where the school is undertaking teacher education on its own. These experiences include the periods of whole class teaching as well as those occasions when direct class teaching is not the main purpose of the exercise.

In most partnerships between the school and the student teacher, roles and responsibilities have previously been agreed and worked out. It is important that the student teacher is aware of what those are. The same principle applies when two institutions are in partnership with the student. In all cases agreed roles and responsibilities can often be found in the handbook for the course.

In this unit we discuss your tutors' expectations of you and open up the notion of professionalism. We then go on to discuss the phases of development through which a student teacher is likely to pass.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit you should:

- have clarified your own role and that of your tutors in the partnership;
- have an understanding of your working role within the school;
- be aware of your responsibilities and your tutors' expectations of you;
- have developed an understanding of professional responsibilities and behaviour required of a newly qualified teacher;
- recognise the phases of development you are likely to be going through in the transition from student to effective teacher, including taking on a pastoral role.

THE SCHOOL TUTOR

Schools identify members of staff to support and advise student teachers, often from the student's subject department. Increasingly schools are appointing a general school tutor or mentor, to oversee the work of student teachers in the school. You can expect to meet regularly with school staff to discuss your progress, any lessons observed and wider school issues.
ARRANGEMENTS FOR SCHOOL EXPERIENCE

What is expected of you in school?

Your school-based work is usually built up through a series of structured activities:

- detailed observation of experienced teachers: where you look at specific aspects of teaching in a lesson, e.g. how teachers use questions to promote learning;
- team teaching: where you share the lesson with others – planning, giving the lesson and evaluating together;
- micro-teaching: this is a short teaching episode where you teach peers or small groups of children – it can be useful to video-tape your micro-teaching so that an analysis of different aspects of your teaching can be carried out;
- whole class teaching with the class teacher present; and finally
- whole class teaching on your own. (As a student, you should always have an experienced teacher nearby.)

An important issue for students on school experience is the way feedback is given on lessons. The amount of feedback students get from teachers watching their lessons varies. In any case, some student teachers like to have feedback on every lesson and feel deprived if they don’t get it. Some students prefer a small amount of very focused feedback, others can cope with a page or more of comments. Written feedback is essential because it provides a record of your progress and ideas for your development. In practice, your course will have agreed conventions governing this aspect of your work. These take into account how you are to achieve the competences required in Scotland, Northern Ireland and England and Wales. Full details of these are included in the appendices.

You will probably find comments on your teaching divide into those relating to tangible technical issues which can be worked on relatively easily and those relating to less tangible issues relating to pupils’ learning. Technical problems such as your use of audio-visual aids, the quality and clarity of your voice, how you position yourself in the classroom, managing transitions from one activity to another in a lesson are easy to spot, so you may receive considerable advice on these issues. Problems with these aspects of your work are usually resolved early in your course whereas less tangible issues which are directly related to the quality of pupil learning require ongoing reflection, attention and discussion, e.g. your approach to the explanation of lesson content, your style of questioning, your evaluation of pupil learning.

THE STUDENT TEACHER ROLE

You are expected to play a full part in the life of the school – taking on as many aspects of a teacher’s work as possible – and you should take advantage of any opportunities to extend your experience. As well as the structured teaching activities identified above, you can expect to undertake a wide range of activities. Table 111 provides a full list.

Teachers have other roles and responsibilities such as planning the curriculum and liaising with outside agencies but these are not usually undertaken by student teachers.
However, you may have the opportunity to help to write course materials if your department is developing new areas of work.

In addition to these general responsibilities, staff have expectations relating to:

1 your organisation and teaching approach
2 your professionalism
3 your social skills.

Table 1.2.1 Summaries expectations staff may have of you in these areas.

Table 1.2.1 The school's expectations of the student teacher

(i) Organisation and teaching approach
You will be expected to:

• be well organised
• arrive in plenty of time. And that doesn't mean arriving just as the bell goes. It means arriving considerably earlier in order to arrange the classroom; check the availability of books and equipment; test out equipment new to you; talk to staff about the work and the children's progress and clarify any safety issues.
• plan and prepare thoroughly. Be conscientious in finding out what lesson content and subject knowledge are appropriate to the class you're teaching. In many cases, you will be teaching material which is new to you or which you last thought about many years ago. Staff will expect you to ask if you're not sure but to work conscientiously to improve your subject knowledge. They will not be impressed if you frequently show you have not bothered to read around the subject matter of the lesson.
• keep good records: have your file of schemes of work and lesson plans, pupil attendance and homework records up to date. Your evaluations of your lessons are best completed on the same day as the lesson.
• know your subject
• try out different methods of teaching. Teaching practice is your opportunity to try out different approaches without having to live with the results of failures, but you have a duty to the class teacher not to leave chaos behind you.

(ii) Professionalism
You will be expected to:

• act in a professional manner, e.g. with courtesy and tact; and to respect confidentiality of information
• be open to new learning: seek and act on advice
• be flexible
• dress appropriately (different schools have different dress codes)
• become familiar with and work within school procedures and policies. These include record keeping, rewards and sanctions, uniform, relationships between teachers and pupils.
• accept a leadership role. You may find imposing your will on pupils uncomfortable but unless you establish your right to direct the work of the class, you will not be able to teach effectively.
• recognise and understand the roles and relationships of staff responsible for your development
• keep up to date with your subject
• take active steps to ensure that your pupils learn
• discuss pupil progress with parents.

(iii) Social skills
You will be expected to:

• develop good relationships with pupils and staff
• keep a sense of humour
• work well in teams
• be able to communicate with children as well as adults
• learn to defuse difficult situations.
PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Part ii of Table 12.1 provides some guidance about professional behaviour but professionalism extends beyond personal behaviour.

What does it really mean to be a professional?

There is some debate about whether teaching is a profession and, over the years, you will come to your own conclusions. However, we would suggest that the hallmarks of a profession are that there is a substantial body of knowledge which the professional needs to acquire, that substantial training is required before an individual can be accepted into the profession and that the profession is self-governing as well as publicly accountable. On the basis of this definition, for you, becoming a member of the teaching profession means that you make the following commitments. That you will:

• reach an acceptable level of competence and skill in your teaching by the end of your course. This includes acquiring knowledge and skills which enable you to become an effective teacher and which enable you to understand the body of knowledge about how young people learn and how teachers can teach most effectively.

• continuously develop your professional knowledge and professional judgement through experience, further learning and reflection on your work.

• be publicly accountable for your work. Various members of the community have the right to inspect and/or question your work: the head, governors, parents, inspectors. You have a professional duty to plan and keep records of your work and that of the pupils. This accountability includes implementation of school policies, e.g. on behaviour, on equal opportunities.

• to set personal standards and conform to external standards for monitoring and improving your work.

There is a professional code of ethics which is currently unwritten in the UK but which you are expected to uphold. For example, you are expected to treat information about individuals with confidentiality; provide equal opportunities for the pupils in your care; deal with pupils in an objective, professional manner regardless of your personal feelings; keep up to date in your subject; reflect on and develop your teaching; adopt appropriate language and a professional demeanour. From time to time, there is debate in the profession about adopting a code of ethics but no code has been accepted in the UK.

In some countries (e.g. Scotland, Australia and parts of Canada) teachers must have their qualifications accepted and registered with a national or state teachers' council before they are allowed to teach. Their names may be removed from this register if, for example, they are found guilty of professional misconduct. In England and Wales recognition of qualifications by the Department for Education (DFE) is required before you can teach in government-funded schools but the DFE does not have a professional role as do teaching councils in other countries. The idea of a General Teaching Council for England and Wales which would have a role in establishing and monitoring a variety of aspects of education has been discussed for over a hundred years but nothing has come of it. One barrier to the
formation of a General Teaching Council is the diversity of interests and principles of the many teaching unions which promote the welfare of their individual members.

**PROFESSIONAL ACCOUNTABILITY**

As a teacher, you are held professionally accountable for your own work. What does this mean in practice? Discuss this question with other student teachers and make a note of the standards which you would wish to govern your own professional conduct.

As a student teacher you gradually take on the responsibilities of a teacher and develop as a professional. To do this you go through three main phases of development. In the following section, we discuss these so that you can get a sense of how you may achieve the goals you are setting yourself.

**PHASES OF DEVELOPMENT**

Initially most student teachers are concerned with how they come across as teachers (self-image), how they are going to control the pupils, if there is sufficient material for the lesson and whether the pupils will ask difficult questions. It is only when you have achieved some confidence in your classroom management skills that you are able to focus on whether the learning outcomes you’ve planned for have been generally achieved. Your initial focus is the self, after which the needs of pupils begin to emerge.

In becoming an effective teacher ready to take up your first post, you can expect to pass through three broad overlapping stages which we identify as:

- Phase 1: focus on self-image and class management
- Phase 2: focus on whole class learning
- Phase 3: focus on individual pupil’s learning.

Many students are six or eight weeks into their school experience before they feel a level of confidence about their image and the management of the class (phase 1). They can then start to focus on whether the learning taking place is what was intended (phase 2). Once a student teacher feels reasonably competent in classroom management and in achieving global objectives, they should be able to shift their focus to the needs of individuals (phase 3).

Figure 12.1 shows how the focus of your work may change over time as you become more effective as a teacher.

As you move to phase 3 we would expect you to become aware of your pupils’ personal development as well as their academic development. On school experience you can initially expect to assist the form tutor, which will introduce you to this area of work.
PHASE 1: SELF-IMAGE AND CLASS MANAGEMENT

How do I come across?

Do you see yourself as a teacher? Student teachers can find it quite hard to change their self-image from that of learner, in which they may have had a passive role, to the active, managing, authoritative image of a teacher. Up until now, you may have been a learner in most classrooms you've been in and now you have to make the transition from learner to teacher. This requires a change in self-image. Teaching is sometimes likened to acting and thinking of this comparison may enable you to assume a new role more easily. Accompanying this role is a need to change your perspective. As a learner, the teachers were 'them in charge', as a student teacher, teachers and tutors are also 'them in charge' of you, but as a class teacher, you now become 'one of them in charge'. Your role and your perception of it change during your school experience.

As your experience increases, your professional judgement should develop alongside your store of professional knowledge but confidence and self-belief are also needed to help you carry off the part. Figure 12.2 illustrates the interdependency of these different aspects.

There has been much research on what makes teachers effective and the various texts on teaching skills and classroom management listed throughout this book provide a wide range of perspectives on effectiveness (e.g. Robertson, 1989). A summary of the attributes of effective teachers drawn from these texts is listed in Table 12.2.

Pupils' perceptions of teachers were researched as part of a wider study on discipline in Scotland (Munn, et al., 1990). Pupils identified over 75% of their teachers as being effective in terms of getting the class to work well, although as the authors point out, getting the class to work well is not the same as ensuring that the pupils learn what was intended. Humour as well as use of sanctions and threats were perceived by pupils as
important characteristics of the effective teacher. The amount of talk between pupils in lessons is usually of concern to staff. Yet pupil comments about the effect of the level of talk were mixed, i.e. some felt a high level of talk was a sign that the teacher wasn't in control, while others did not suggest this link. Making it clear to pupils about the types of talk which you allow in the classroom can be helpful to pupils. 'Partner talk' is an example of what you might allow when pupils are working together, i.e. a soft voice which only one other person can hear.

It is unlikely that any one teacher will have all the attributes listed below. In any case, you could probably have many of the attributes listed below but still lack authority in the classroom. Neither the attributes themselves nor relationships between teachers and pupils can be developed by checking attributes off on a checklist. However, you can monitor and evaluate their development. We have included this list in order to give you ideas to consider when you are undertaking your own self-evaluation.

**Figure 1.2.2** Becoming an effective teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>humorous</th>
<th>enthusiastic</th>
<th>enjoys the subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>relaxed</td>
<td>organised</td>
<td>makes the work relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imaginative</td>
<td>supportive</td>
<td>is active in helping pupils learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>warm</td>
<td>cheerful</td>
<td>uses a variety of methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>firm</td>
<td>flexible</td>
<td>has high expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>listens</td>
<td>encourages</td>
<td>explains clearly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fair</td>
<td>sympathetic</td>
<td>gives praise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friendly</td>
<td>responsive</td>
<td>applies sanctions fairly and doesn't make empty threats</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Will they do what I say? Classroom management and control

Controlling adolescents is one of the biggest worries student teachers have initially. Unit 23 provides a considerable amount of information to prepare you for this aspect of your work and Unit 21 contains guidelines about observing teachers and classrooms. Developing an aura of authority takes time, effort and reflection on what has happened in order to modify your behaviour. The tasks in Unit 21 are designed to help you analyse the routines and expectations which appear to be operated, often effortlessly, by the teachers whose classes you take.

To see how these routines and expectations are established you would have to shadow a teacher new to a school from the beginning of the school year. The early weeks that teachers new to a school spend with their classes are crucial to setting up the working relationship as is the way new teachers conduct themselves in the corridors and playground. The pupil grapevine is a powerful means of spreading a teacher’s reputation. Teachers who have been at the school for some time are automatically treated in a certain way by pupils because their reputation has gone before them. So you need to work at establishing your reputation.

PHASE 2: WHOLE CLASS LEARNING

Teaching is not the same as learning, nor is telling pupils the same as them learning. Teaching means organising experiences and activities which cause pupils to engage actively with the material and thus learn. Copying notes, for example, does not, in our experience, lead to active engagement, whereas constructing notes with help and guidance is good practice. The teacher’s role is then to monitor the outcomes from these experiences and activities. Chapter 5 provides further details about learning.

As you become more competent in classroom management, your concerns shift from asking ‘Will I survive?’ to ‘Are the pupils learning anything from me?’ The way you present your lesson and explain the material (the exposition) and the methods you use for asking questions about it become the focus of your attention as you try to improve the learning taking place for the whole class. In Unit 22 on lesson planning, the importance of setting clear objectives for each lesson is stressed. These identify the learning outcomes which you expect from that lesson such as skill development, mastery of content,
development of attitudes, understanding of processes. However, what is important is that
the objectives are clear enough for you to identify when the pupil has achieved those
objectives, by action or other behaviour. Individual lesson objectives give a cumulative
picture of the outcomes that you expect your class to achieve. Assessment is then based
on the achievement (or otherwise) of outcomes.

Your lesson evaluations help you monitor the learning of the class. They provide an
analysis of what went well and what could have been improved. You can expect your class
teachers and tutor to discuss your evaluations. In this second phase of your development,
such post-lesson discussions focus more on the learning taking place rather than on the
image and management issues which will have preoccupied you initially.

PHASE 3: INDIVIDUAL LEARNING

Later, as your analytical and planning skills develop and you build your confidence and
professional knowledge about learning, you become able to design your lessons so that the
academic needs of individual pupils are better catered for, i.e. you can more easily build
differentiation into your teaching.

Effective teachers help individual pupils to grow. If a teacher can manage, in spite
of the pressures of time, to give individuals a sense of achievement and self-worth then
their pupils' motivation is usually increased. The converse is also true.

**THE AVERAGE CHILD**

Reflect on the poem below 'The Average Child'. Think about the implications for
your own teaching. In your classroom observations and evaluations, focus on an
'average child' for a number of sessions. Plan your interactions with a small group of
these pupils so that you leave them feeling 'special'. Discuss your perceptions with
other student teachers.

The Average Child

I don't cause teachers trouble, my grades have been okay.
I listen in my classes and I'm in school everyday.
My parents think I'm average, my teachers think so too.
I wish I didn't know that cause there's lots I'd like to do.
I'd like to build a space rocket, I've a book that shows you how.
Or start a stamp collection, well no use trying now.
Cause since I've found I'm average, I'm just not smart enough you see
I know there's nothing special that I should expect of me.
I'm part of that majority that hump part of the bell*,
who'll just spend all his life in an average kind of hell.

Buscemi (date unknown)

*This refers to the bell shape of a 'normal distribution' curve.
Whilst student teachers are expected to analyse their effectiveness in achieving their lesson objectives, the skills and experience required to be able to provide differentiated work usually take longer to develop and opportunities should arise to develop this understanding further after your initial teacher education course. Differentiated work is work which is designed to allow pupils with different abilities to achieve preset goals, i.e. it provides the opportunity for pupils to undertake different tasks or to achieve different outcomes depending on ability. Unit 4.1 provides further information about how you may differentiate work.

**WHAT HAVE THE PUPILS LEARNED?**

Towards the end of your school experience, arrange to interview individual pupils before you teach them about what they know about a topic. Have specific questions in terms of knowledge and understanding that you expect them to achieve through their work on the topic. Then interview them after the lesson to find out what they understand about it after being taught. Consider the implications of the findings for your teaching.

**Summary and Key Points**

In this unit we have introduced you to some of the complexities of your role as a student teacher. The role of a teacher is diverse but with practice, support, increasing experience and ongoing learning, you can expect your level of competence to rise and with it satisfaction.

Because of the dynamic nature of educational practice you should expect to go on learning throughout your career. Your initial teacher education course only provides a foundation on which to build your professional knowledge and your professional judgement.

In becoming a teacher, you can expect to move through the three phases (self-image and class management, class learning, individual learning) as your experience, confidence and competence increase. We hope, by identifying each phase, that we have helped you understand the task ahead of you. Evaluation through critical reflection is one of the tools in your professional tool kit which you can use to analyse your effectiveness in helping pupils learn (see Unit 5.4). The professional knowledge and judgement of the experienced teachers with whom you work also provide a rich resource on which to draw in developing your own knowledge and judgement about how to support pupil learning effectively.

**FURTHER READING**

This article contains an interesting discussion of the arrangements for looking after student teachers, expectations and some school responses in the Oxford Internship schemes. It identifies 'language' as an important factor in identifying and setting roles. By language, the authors mean the definitions of roles and expectations written into the agreements between the school and college or school and student.

BBC (September 1994) 'Simple minds' video – Education Special: Understanding Science Series.

This video has some interesting material which shows how transient learning can be, even for graduates.


This article provides interesting data from a three year research project on discipline in schools in Scotland. The pupils' perceptions of the characteristics of the effective teacher are interesting to consider in the light of your own teaching experience.


Robertson provides advice and strategies for students to use in developing good relationships with pupils. He focuses particularly on analysing and dealing with unwanted behaviour and establishing and expressing authority. Chapters 1, 2 and 3 deal with how to convey an impression of being in authority. Chapter 4 covers the role of enthusiasm in creating good relationships and the remaining chapters analyse and discuss behaviour issues.


This text gives wide in-depth coverage of all issues relevant to school experience – in particular the management of individual and small group learning.
The student teacher’s role and responsibilities


Paper 25


Teaching Styles

Chapter 5.3

Leask, M. in Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.

*Learning to Teach in the Secondary School*

*London, Routledge*

0-415-11680-5
TEACHING STYLES

INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, you were asked to consider what kind of teacher you would like to become. In working through this unit, we hope you take the opportunity to analyse your teaching to see what has to happen if you are to achieve your goals. Everyone's 'natural' teaching style varies but you also need to be able to use other teaching styles which are more appropriate to particular lesson objectives and particular characteristics of the pupils. Thus building your repertoire of teaching styles is a necessary part of your professional development.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit you should:

- understand how teacher behaviour and teaching strategies combine to produce a teaching style;
- understand the importance of using a range of teaching styles;
- have experimented with different styles of teaching and evaluated their effectiveness.

We suggest you check the competences for your course to see what is required in the area of teaching styles.

WHAT DO WE MEAN BY A TEACHING STYLE?

Teaching style is the term used to describe the way a learning experience is conducted. It is built from the behaviour of the teacher and the strategy chosen to ensure that the planned learning takes place, that the lesson objectives are achieved. Table 5.3.1 illustrates this point.

By teacher behaviour we mean the demeanour of the teacher and the way the teacher relates to pupils; for example, a teacher may choose to be distant, to be more friendly or to convey enthusiasm for their subject. The teacher indicates their expectations to pupils through their behaviour when teaching the class. Teachers also adopt particular forms of

Table 5.3.1 Defining a teaching style

| teaching style = teacher behaviour + teaching strategy |
behaviour to foster certain types of learning. For example, the teacher may see themselves as a facilitator of learning in a situation where group discussion has been chosen as the teaching method and the teacher’s role is both to help individuals to contribute fully and to ensure the group functions effectively. Or the teacher may take the role of transmitter of knowledge where knowledge acquisition is the desired outcome.

By teaching strategy, we mean the choice and range of teaching methods used for a lesson; for example, a teaching strategy for a drama lesson might include the methods of individual enquiry (pupil research), discussion and pupil demonstration. Unit 5.2 provides examples of a range of methods which might be used when you are deciding your teaching strategies. Discussion, role play, investigational work and demonstrations are among the methods from which a teacher may choose. The method chosen influences decisions about assessment, routines, grouping, choice of materials.

In any lesson you are likely to use a range of styles in order to achieve your objectives. It is, for example, common to start with a didactic style, setting out what is to be done in the lesson and then move on to a facilitator/pupil-centred style as pupils tackle the work set. Precisely defining the teaching style of a particular teacher is a difficult if not impossible task as in each teaching and learning situation there are many individual variables operating.

Some of the terms often used to describe ways of teaching are experiential, didactic, chalk and talk, teacher-directed, pupil-centred, practical, theoretical, traditional, progressive, transmission, content-based, process-based, whole-class-based. But these are general descriptions which at best give an indication of how a teacher might conduct a lesson or part of a lesson and the boundaries between the styles implied are blurred. On their own, these descriptions provide just part of the picture of how a teacher teaches. For example, two teachers could both use ‘chalk and talk’ as a teaching strategy but their behaviour would influence their overall style and thus the pupils’ learning. If one was very formal, the learning of pupils in that class may be more passive than for pupils of a teacher who was enthusiastic, interested in them and actively engaged in the material.

LEARNING OUTCOMES AND TEACHING STYLE

Teaching styles are chosen to suit the characteristics of the pupils (i.e. their attitudes, abilities, preferred learning styles) and specifically to help you achieve your lesson objectives. For example, an ‘instructional’ style is particularly appropriate in achieving certain types of learning – when you want to develop particular skills such as explaining how a piece of equipment is to be used. It may not be the most effective approach in other instances such as learning about colour mixing in art which may best be done through practical activities which reinforce the learning taking place. In choosing objectives for a particular lesson, you need to decide which of a whole range of potential learning outcomes are to be the focus of the lesson. The style you choose should be one which best enables those objectives to be realised. Table 5.3.2 provides examples of learning outcomes. These are based on the aspects of achievement defined later on in Table 6.2.2.

If you always use a particular style then there is a danger that the learning outcomes for your pupils may be restricted to a narrow band. Your pupils may be high achievers in one aspect of achievement but low achievers in another aspect. Of course, pupils do not depend on their learning in one subject for their overall development; a school needs to ensure that across the whole curriculum there are opportunities for pupils to achieve in the areas outlined in Table 5.3.2.

Table 5.3.2 Examples of learning outcomes from a lesson

| Aspect 1 Acquisition of knowledge and ability to demonstrate this e.g. through focusing on knowledge retention, memorisation, written expression, acquiring theoretical knowledge, individual achievement |
| Aspect 2 Ability to apply knowledge through developing communication skills, oral skills, investigative skills, transferability of knowledge, ability to research, organise, select material |
| Aspect 3 Improved personal and social skills such as self-confidence, leadership skills, accepting responsibility, initiative, ability to work with other people |
| Aspect 4 Improved attitudes in learning demonstrated through increased motivation, perseverance, commitment, self-reliance |

For your pupils to be realised. Table 5.3.2 provides examples of learning outcomes. These are based on the aspects of achievement defined later on in Table 6.2.2.

If you always use a particular style then there is a danger that the learning outcomes for your pupils may be restricted to a narrow band. Your pupils may be high achievers in one aspect of achievement but low achievers in another aspect. Of course, pupils do not depend on their learning in one subject for their overall development; a school needs to ensure that across the whole curriculum there are opportunities for pupils to achieve in the areas outlined in Table 5.3.2.

FACTORS AFFECTING CHOICE OF TEACHING STYLES

As well as taking account of the characteristics of the pupils and the desired learning outcomes, your choice of teaching style is a matter for your professional judgement. Any judgement you make about appropriate teaching styles is based on:

- your professional knowledge;
- the environment in which you teach;
- your personal qualities.

Extent of your professional (pedagogic) knowledge

This book provides a brief introduction to the body of pedagogic knowledge available. Teacher education is considered to fall into three phases: initial teacher education, induction – which is the education and training you are given during your first year of teaching – and in-service education and training (INSET – see Unit 8.2 for further Information) which should be available during your teaching life.

Your choice of teaching style is affected by your beliefs, views and assumptions as well as professional knowledge in, for example, the following areas:

- Your theories of how teachers should teach and how pupils learn. For example, teachers hold differing views about pupil choice, the place of negotiation in the classroom, appropriate teacher/pupil interaction, appropriate pupil/pupil interaction, the teacher’s role (purveyor of knowledge, interpreter of knowledge, facilitator of learning) and the use of questions. Decisions you make about the balance in your lessons between the process
of learning and the content influence your style. By a ‘process’ approach to teaching and learning we mean an approach that focuses on teaching through activities like problem solving, skill-based learning, experiential learning, role play, simulations, collaboration. At the other end of the spectrum, content focused teaching means that mastery of content is the focus and it is achieved through, for example, a transmission style, chalk and talk, rote learning or didactic teaching. Your theories about learning reveal themselves in a number of ways: for example, whether you make subject matter relevant to pupil experiences and interests, in the variety of resources you use or in-the way you group the pupils.

- **Your approach to classroom management**: Your views on maintenance of discipline, including noise, movement and talk, influence the way you teach (see Unit 3.3).
- **Your confidence and competence** with the subject matter and with classroom management affect your behaviour and hence your teaching style.

The environment in which you teach

There are many environmental issues which affect your teaching – physical and mental state of the pupils, school/department decisions about pupil grouping (setting/streaming/mixed ability), type and layout of room and the range and availability of teaching materials and equipment. Resources are usually limited and you need to adjust to the circumstances in which you find yourself. Two other influential factors are class size and your assumptions and knowledge about the pupils.

- **Class size** There are some government ministers and officials who argue that class size has no effect on achievement. It is a convenient argument for those who allocate resources to education as the theory supports the limiting of resources. However, we believe that class size inevitably influences your choice of teaching style and so affects what can be achieved. Teaching a large group of pupils where a significant majority are demotivated is not the same as teaching the same size group of highly motivated pupils. Similarly, developing oral skills in a class of thirty is a different matter to developing the same skills in a class of six.
- **Your assumptions and knowledge about the pupils** Teacher expectations have a significant effect on pupil self-esteem, motivation and achievement and it is too easy for teachers to make damaging assumptions about pupils from backgrounds different to their own. This can lead to discrimination and so needs to be avoided. This can be done by increasing your knowledge and understanding of the social and cultural influences on the pupils. Educational researchers such as Feuerstein, Vygotsky and Bruner have written extensively on the impact of social context on learning and their work is referred to in the texts listed at the end of the unit.

Your personal qualities

Your imagination, enthusiasm, energy, ability to form positive relationships with pupils as well as prejudices and assumptions about gender and race all contribute to your classroom behaviour and thus influence your teaching style. Your communication skills such as body language, voice and the other issues outlined in Chapter 3 also significantly affect your teaching style.

**IDENTIFYING TEACHING STYLES**

The findings of research on teaching styles used by teachers involved in the Technical Vocational Education Initiative is reported in Table 5.3.3 and the framework used to analyse styles may provide you with an approach to analysing your own styles. Three broad bands of style were identified:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.3.3 Pupil participation and teaching styles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The participation dimension</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tightly controlled by the teacher. Not negotiable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher controls the topic, exams of reference and tasks; criteria made explicit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussed at each point; joint decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative knowledge and skills; simplified, monolithic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress on empirical testing; processes chosen by teacher; some legitimation of pupil ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search for justifications and principles; strong legitimation of pupil ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pupils’ role</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance; routine performance; little access to principles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Join in teacher’s thinking; make hypotheses, set up tests, operate teacher’s frame.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss goals and methods critically; share responsibility for frame and criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key concepts</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Authority’: the proper procedures and the right answers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Access’ to skills, processes, criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Relevance’: critical discussion of pupils’ priorities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Methods</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expository worksheets (closed); note giving; individual exercises, routine practical work, teacher evaluates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposition, with discussion eliciting suggestions; individual/group problem solving; lists of tasks given; discussion of outcomes, but teacher adjudicates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group and class discussion and decision making about goals and criteria; pupil plan and carry out work, make presentations, evaluate success.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Barns et al (1994), p. 253
closed – which was a more didactic and formal way of teaching with little pupil involvement in the material of the lesson;
framed – where the teacher provided a structure for the lesson within which pupils were able to contribute their own ideas and interpretations; and
negotiated – where the direction of the lesson was to a considerable extent dependent on pupil ideas and contributions.

As an aim of TVEI was to develop pupils’ initiative and involvement in their own learning, participation in the lesson was a focus for the analysis of teaching styles. In the table, choices teachers made about teaching styles are analysed under the headings content, focus, pupils’ role, key concepts and methods.

Task
5.3.1
PUPIL PARTICIPATION AND TEACHING STYLES
Look at the continuum of styles identified by Barnes et al. in Table 5.3.3

and consider what the level of pupil participation in your lessons is. Check, through discussion with your tutor or other student teachers, that you understand and would recognise these different styles. With the agreement of the teacher or student teacher concerned, use the framework provided by the table to analyse the teaching styles in some lessons or parts of lessons which you are observing.

Mosston’s Continuum of Teaching Styles
Mosston and Ashworth (1986) carried out careful analytical work on teaching styles and their ideas are worthy of much more detailed consideration than is possible here. They define the components of different teaching styles in considerable detail and use a framework (the ‘anatomy of a teaching style’) as a basis for analysis and comparison for each one. Table 5.3.4 provides a brief outline of the styles they define. Like Barnes et al., they see these styles as being part of a continuum – moving from teacher-controlled and directed learning experiences through to more independent learning.

Mosston and Ashworth describe the links between ‘teaching behaviour, learning behaviour and the objectives of each style’ (Mosston and Ashworth, 1986, p. viii) – the ‘L-O approach’ to use their terms. They point out that there are two aspects to objectives intended objectives and the actual objectives observed. They also describe in detail the scenarios made by teacher and learner during three phases of learning: pre-impact (preparation), impact (execution and performance) and post-impact (or ‘evaluation’), which is ongoing throughout the lesson (Mosston and Ashworth, 1986, p. 7). A number of x styles above require the teacher to teach the pupils the style of learning they are expected to be undertaking. Developing such awareness on the part of the pupils can be seen as one of the objectives for learning.

Table 5.3.4 Mosston’s continuum of teaching styles

| The command style | This style is often described as autocratic or teacher-centred. It is appropriate in certain contexts, e.g. teaching safe use of equipment, learning particular routines in dance. The practice style | Whilst similar to the command style, there is a shift in decision making to pupils and there is more scope with this style for the teacher to work with individuals whilst the group is occupied with practice tasks such as writing for a purpose in English or practicing skills in mathematics. The reciprocal style | The pupils work in pairs evaluating each other’s performance. Each partner is actively involved – one as the ‘observer’ and one as the ‘teacher’. The teacher acts in the role of the ‘teacher partner’. The teacher works with the ‘teacher partner’ to improve their evaluative and feedback skills. This style provides increased possibilities for interaction and communication among students and can be applied when pupils are learning a foreign language or learning routines in gymnastics.

The self-check style | This style is designed to develop the learner’s ability to evaluate their own performance. The teacher sets the tasks and the pupils evaluate their performance against criteria and set new goals in collaboration with the teacher – for example, some mathematics programmes are organised to allow this type of personal development. All pupils start at the same level and move up when the teacher deems them ready. The instructional style | In this style, differentiated tasks are included to ensure that all pupils gain some feeling of success and so develop positive self-concepts. E.g., if an angled bar is provided for high jump practice, all pupils can succeed as they choose the height over which to jump. They decide at what level to start.

Guided discovery | Mosston sees this as one of the most difficult styles. The teacher plans the pupil’s learning programme on the basis of the level of cognitive development of the learner. The teacher then guides the pupil to find the answer – reframing the question and task if necessary. Pupils with special educational needs are often taught in small groups and this approach might be used by the teacher to develop an individualised learning programme for each pupil.

Divergent style | The learners are encouraged to find alternative solutions to a problem, e.g., in approaching a design problem in art. The individual programme: learner’s design | The knowledge and skills needed to participate in this method of learning depend on the building up of skills and self-knowledge in earlier learning experiences. A pupil designs and carries out a programme of work within a framework agreed and monitored by the teacher. Pupils carrying out open-ended investigations in science provide an example of this style.

Learning’s initiated style | This style is more pupil-directed than the previous style where the teacher provided a framework. At this point on the continuum, the stimulus for learning comes primarily from the pupil and not wholly from the teacher. The pupil actively initiates the learning experience. Giving homework which allows pupils freedom to work on their own areas of interest in their own way, would fall into this category. The teacher acts in a support role.

Self-teaching style | This style describes independent learning without external support. For example, it is the type of learning that adults undergo as they learn from their own experiences.

Source: Adapted from Mosston and Ashworth (1986)

Task
5.3.2
MOSSTON’S CONTINUUM OF TEACHING STYLES
Consider Mosston’s continuum. Think back to a recent lesson you taught which did not go as well as you had planned. Was the dominant teaching style you used the most suitable, i.e., did it achieve the objectives of the lesson? How else could you have tackled the lesson material? Discuss Mosston’s work with other student teachers. Are his categories useful in providing you with alternative approaches? If not, why not?
ANALYSING YOUR TEACHING STYLE

One of our student teachers who carried out an analysis to establish the level of her interaction with pupils during a lesson found that over a twenty minute period, she spent only about ninety seconds supporting the work of individual pupils. For most of the rest of the time she was addressing the class as a whole. What surprised her was that she had intended her lesson to be much more pupil centred and thought she had gone some way to achieving that. Unit 5.4 gives examples of ways in which you can evaluate factors influencing your teaching style. Acquiring knowledge of different teaching strategies and becoming aware of your own behaviour in the classroom are important steps on the ladder to effectiveness. However, you need to move from knowing about how these aspects influence teaching style to being able to apply this professional knowledge to your classroom teaching so that effective learning can take place. Applying a reflective approach to your teaching helps you develop your skills. The following unit provides details of reflective strategies which will help you in the further analysis of aspects of your own teaching.

Table 5.3.5 An observation grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time (min)</th>
<th>Type of interaction (G = group, W = whole class, I = individual) at five second intervals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>G G G G G G W W W W W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>W W W G G I G G G G</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ANALYSING ASPECTS OF YOUR TEACHING STYLE

Arrange for another student teacher to observe two of your lessons where you try out contrasting styles. Ask them to focus on particular aspects of your work which interest you, e.g. the use of open ended questions or giving praise. You probably need to devise your own observation schedules to record the findings. In the discussion afterwards you may find it useful to answer the following questions. Did you achieve your objectives? How successful were you in varying your teaching style? What factors influenced your success? How could you have done things differently? What could you try next? If you can repeat this exercise regularly, you will build up your repertoire of styles and your responsiveness to changing classroom situations.

FURTHER READING


This is a book which will challenge your views about what you should teach and how you should teach it. It describes a number of Thinking Skills/Critical Thinking programmes in the UK as well as discussing international developments such as the Philosophy for Children programme which was started in the USA by Matthew Lipman and Feuerstein's Instrumental Enrichment programme which originated in Israel.


This is a very practical book. It includes an introduction to the theory supporting the experiential learning approach as well as a host of ideas and practical activities which may be used in experiential learning situations.


Gibbs and Habeshaw have published a range of books which provide practical ideas for teachers - this is just one from their range.


Joyce and Weil identify models of teaching and group them into four 'families' which represent different philosophies about how humans learn. This is a comprehensive text designed for those who have knowledge of teaching and learning issues.
Teaching Styles


Improving your teaching: an introduction to action research and reflective practice

Chapter 5.4

Leásk, M. in Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.
Learning to Teach in the Secondary School

London, Routledge
0-415-11680-5
INTRODUCTION

How do you know your lesson went well?

This is a question you can expect to be asked from time to time and you need to be able to provide answers. The purpose of your teaching pupils, is that they learn. The fact that pupils are quiet and look as if they are working industriously is no guarantee that the learning you have intended is taking place.

Children should not be able to pass through your class unaffected by the experience!

In this unit, we introduce you to simple techniques which may help you find answers to your questions about your teaching. In carrying out the tasks in this book you are engaging in ‘reflective practice’. Action research is a term used to describe ‘reflective practice’. Action research is the investigation of professional practice by practitioners themselves. Action research methods encompass the methods you have been using – of observation, keeping a diary, obtaining the perspectives of different interested parties (pupils, staff) and examining documentation. The work in this unit provides a brief introduction to this area and we suggest that once you are qualified, you extend your knowledge and understanding of the tools of action research as part of your further professional development.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should:

- be able to demonstrate an understanding of the action research process;
- be able to discuss characteristics of effective teaching and learning;
- know about different forms of evidence which you could draw on in answer to the question ‘How do you know your lesson went well?’
- have applied action research strategies to evaluate and improve aspects of your teaching;
- understand that acquiring a high level of professional knowledge and professional judgement is a long term learning process which can be developed by the use of reflection based on evidence gained from action research.

Check the competences for your course to see which in particular relate to this unit.
THE PROCESS OF ACTION RESEARCH

Action research describes a process which teachers use to find out about the quality of teaching and learning taking place. It is based on a simple process.

In your classroom observations, you may have started with a clear focus or a question to answer (e.g., what routines does the teacher use in managing the work of the class?) and you may have collected evidence from various sources to answer that question. You may have observed and made notes about what the pupils and the teacher actually did during the lesson; you may have looked at the pupils’ work and the teacher’s lesson plans; you may have cross-checked your perceptions with those of the teacher as a way of eliminating bias, improving accuracy and identifying alternative explanations. So, like any action researcher, you have gathered data from different sources, checked for alternative perceptions/explanations and drawn on all of this in making your conclusions so as to improve your work in the future.

Table 5.4.1 sets out the process in more detail.

Table 5.4.1 An action research framework

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What do we want to know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is important to define the question clearly – perhaps breaking the question down into several sub-questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Who has or where is the data needed to answer the question?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>How much time and what other resources can be devoted to exploring this issue?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>How are we going to collect the data?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When do we need to collect the data?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>What ethical questions arise from the collection and use of this data?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>How are we going to analyse and present the data?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Are we prepared and able to make changes in the light of the findings?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HOW DO YOU KNOW YOUR LESSON WENT WELL?

To help you answer this question, we provide you with a set of criteria (see Tables 5.4.2 and 5.4.3) to use in a small action research project in which you evaluate some aspects of teaching and learning.

FOCUSING ON EFFECTIVENESS

Look at the criteria listed in Tables 5.4.2 and 5.4.3 and identify those that you feel competent with already. Now consider those with which you have had difficulty. Choose one or two of these issues for further investigation. Later in this unit, you are given a task that asks you to plan a strategy for investigating these issues in the classroom.
Table 5.4.2 Criteria for evaluating teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching quality is to be judged by the extent to which:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- teachers have clear objectives for their lessons;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- pupils are aware of these objectives;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- teachers have a secure command of the subject;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- lessons have suitable content;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- activities are well chosen to promote learning of that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>content;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- activities are presented in ways that engage and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivate and challenge all pupils, enabling them to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make progress at a suitable pace.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: OFSTED (1993, Part 2, p. 27)

Table 5.4.3 Some characteristics of effective learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The learners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- clearly perceive the purpose of the lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- see a practical application for what they are learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- solve genuine problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- have an active role in the processes of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- use their initiative, exercise imagination and think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for themselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- acquire knowledge and develop skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- develop good habits of work, including perseverance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and a concern for correctness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- derive enjoyment and satisfaction from a job well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>done and realise that these are related to the amount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of effort they put in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- discuss their work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- receive constructive assessment of their efforts from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the teacher and from fellow students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- learn from their mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- perceive their own progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- change their ways of thinking about a subject or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- improve their confidence and image of themselves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The teaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- has a clear purpose and a strategy for achieving it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- is firmly structured with a beginning, a middle and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an end, yet with the possibility of being varied to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take advantage of opportunities which arise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unexpectedly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- takes account of differences in learners' abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- offers variety of activity and strikes a good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>balance between oral, practical and written work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- involves effective use of learning aids and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- proceeds at a brisk pace without sacrificing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rigour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- covers a good deal of ground in a challenging way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- demands high standards and provides the learner with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the opportunities and encouragement to achieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- generates a dynamic atmosphere in which the individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can experience a shared sense of achievement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: DES Conference N213, September 1988

Having listed criteria for effective teaching and learning, we move on to the question: what evidence can be collected to show that effective teaching and learning are taking place? The collection and evaluation of evidence should enable you to answer with some confidence. But what counts as evidence?
SOURCES OF EVIDENCE ABOUT TEACHING AND LEARNING

The evidence available for drawing conclusions about teaching and learning can be divided into two types:

• qualitative data which is collected through observation, interview, questionnaires (especially open-ended questions), analysis of documents, diaries, video, photographs, discussions;
• quantitative data which is collected from, for example, statistical returns, questionnaires or other sources which can be reduced to numerical form.

Both of these forms are used in action research. You simply choose forms most appropriate for the issue under investigation.

ACTION RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

You have already been using diaries, observation, discussions and documents to inform your thinking about teaching and learning. Here we provide further advice about two areas which you may find particularly useful during your initial teacher education: observation schedules and paired observation.

Observation schedules

Unit 21 (Observing classrooms) provides an example of an observation schedule as does Unit 5.3 (Teaching styles). You should by now have used forms of these to observe classroom-routines. Hopkins (1993) and others listed in the further readings provide other detailed examples of observation schedules. However, Hopkins suggests that you devise your own observation schedules to suit your particular purpose. It is not possible to record everything that happens in a classroom so you need to focus on, for example, a particular group or pupil or aspect of the teacher's work and record behaviour over time. The observation schedule provides a useful framework for recording classroom behaviours.

Paired observation

This is a streamlined procedure which enables you to obtain feedback on aspects of your work which are difficult for you to monitor. The example in Unit 5.3 of two students working together with one providing feedback on the topic chosen by the other, is an example of paired observation in practice. Paired observation works in the following way.

Two colleagues pair up with the purpose of observing one lesson each and then giving feedback about particular aspects of the lesson or the teaching of the person observed. The person giving the lesson decides what the focus of the observation should be. The three stages of a paired observation are:
Helping pupils learn 259

Step 1: You both agree the focus of the observation and what notes, if any, are to be made.
Step 2: You each observe one lesson given by the other. Your observations and notes are restricted to the area requested.
Step 3: You give each other feedback on the issue under consideration.

And you can repeat the cycle as often as you like.

| Task 5.4.2 |
| A MINI-ACTION RESEARCH PROJECT |
| Look at an issue you identified in Task 5.4.1 for further investigation: |
| • Describe how the issue relates to your own teaching and the concerns you have about your teaching. |
| • List the behaviour related to the issue which you would expect to see displayed by a teacher successfully exercising this skill. |

For example, if you select 'clear objectives', identify

• what is meant by clear and to whom is it clear?

Discuss with your tutor how you can improve your work in this area and then evaluate your success using action research strategies described in this unit.

There is a wealth of information about your teaching which could be collected each lesson. However, you need to focus on specific aspects or you could be so swamped with information that you might feel unable to proceed. The goal is to become a more effective teacher through regular reflection to check your skills as well as to develop your professional knowledge and judgement.

Ethical issues

A word of warning! There are ethical considerations to be taken into account when you are collecting data from pupils and teachers. You must have agreement from those who are in a position to give this - your tutor may advise you to get the permission of the headteacher. You need to take your responsibility in this area seriously. Table 5.4.4 outlines the key areas to consider.

If you intend to develop your action research skills, then we suggest that you read several of the set texts and consult with experienced colleagues.
Table 5.4.4 An ethical approach to action research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ask a senior member of staff as well as the teachers directly involved with your classes for permission to carry out your project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Before you start, provide staff involved with a copy of the outline of your project which includes:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- the area you are investigating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- how you are going to collect any evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- from whom you intend to collect evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- what you intend to do with the data collected (e.g. whether it is confidential, whether it will be written up anonymously or not)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- who the audience for your report will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- any other factors relevant to the particular situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Check whether staff expect to be given a copy of your work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>If you store data electronically, then you should check that you conform to the requirements of the Data Protection Act. For example, you should not store personal data on computer discs without the explicit authorisation of the individual.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary and key points

Developing your teaching skills is one important aspect of your professional development. But other important attributes of the effective teacher which we stress in this book are the quality and extent of your professional knowledge and judgement.

Skills can be acquired and checked relatively easily. Building your professional knowledge and judgement are longer term goals which are developed through reflection and further professional development.

In this unit, we have opened a door on a treasure-trove of strategies which you can use to reflect on the quality of your work. We suggest that you come back to this work during the year and again, later in your career, when you have fully mastered the basic teaching skills. The application of action research to your work at that stage opens your eyes to factors influencing your teaching and learning which you didn’t know existed.

Over the early years of your teaching you acquire many teaching skills – they become part of what you could think of as your professional tool kit. But teaching skills, like tools, can become rusty or are perhaps not suitable for the job in the first place. Critical reflection aided by action research, by individuals or by teams, provides the means by which the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom can be evaluated as a prelude to improvement.

If, through studying this section, you were hoping to find an easily adopted method which ensures that you will be a good teacher then we’re afraid you will have been disappointed. If, however, you are seeking to understand an approach which provides you with tools to evaluate your own professional work then we hope this has helped. You should now have ideas of how to evaluate the quality of your teaching through using a continuous cycle of critical reflection so that you can plan improvement based on evidence.
FURTHER READING

The following texts all provide a grounding in aspects of action research.


Improving your teaching: an introduction to action research and reflective practice


Paper 27


Accountability, contractual and statutory duties

Chapter 8.3

Leask, M. in Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.
Learning to Teach in the Secondary School

London, Routledge
0-415-11680-5
ACCOUNTABILITY, CONTRACTUAL AND STATUTORY DUTIES

As a newly qualified teacher in the state system your work is controlled by the requirements of national and local government; school; subject; parent and pupils - so you are accountable to a whole range of interested parties for the quality of your work. To help you understand the context in which teachers work, we have provided a description of the system within which teachers in the state system operate.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should:

- understand the structure of the state education system;
- be aware of the legal and contractual requirements that govern the work of the teacher.

WHERE DO TEACHERS FIT WITHIN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM?

The structure of the education system in England and Wales is set out in Figure 8.3.1 to show the relationships between classroom teachers and the rest of the education system. The Secretary of State, ministers and staff at the DFE do not usually have teaching experience. They are provided with professional advice by advisory bodies such as the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA) which have some members with a wide range of expertise in the profession. However, Local Education Authority officers and professors and lecturers in education normally start their careers as classroom teachers.

Whilst the responsibilities within the school, listed in Figure 8.3.1, are shared out differently in different schools, the structure is not usually too dissimilar. In Scotland and Northern Ireland, the structures are similar but the terminology used is in some cases different.

There are also numerous support staff whose contribution to school life is essential to the smooth running of the school: caretaker (school's premises' officer); nurse; secretarial staff; technical staff; cleaners; lunch time supervisors. Staff from other professions are also linked with the school, e.g., the education welfare officer, school psychologists and some pupils have social workers who have an interest in their progress.
Learning to teach in the secondary school

Accountability

Within the structure of the education system and individual schools, teachers are accountable for what they do and the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) plays a major part in monitoring the work in schools. As an individual teacher, you are also accountable to parents, to colleagues, to pupils, to your employer.

Bush (Goddard and Leask, 1992, p. 156ff) identifies three ways in which a teacher experiences accountability. Bush calls these:

- Moral Accountability
- Professional Accountability
- Contractual Accountability

Moral accountability is related to your conscience about how you should carry out your work. You are 'moral accountable' to students, parents and to society.

Your professional accountability relates to your responsibility to your colleagues and to the teaching profession, to do your work to the highest standard of which you are capable.

Contractual accountability is defined by legal requirements set down by your employer as well as in legislation passed by Parliament.

Whilst this may seem an oversimplification of a teacher’s accountabilities these three aspects provide a useful framework for developing your own understanding of your accountability. However, the way moral and professional accountability is perceived depends on the values of the individual teacher and on the standards they set themselves.

**Task 8.3.1**

**MORAL ACCOUNTABILITY AND PROFESSIONAL ACCOUNTABILITY**

Consider what being morally and professionally accountable means for you and for the way you approach your work. Discuss this with other student teachers or your tutor.

The following section sets out in some detail your legal duties, both contractual and statutory.

**Legal duties**

You have various legally binding contractual responsibilities and statutory duties. In addition you also have, as do all citizens, 'common law duties' which mean, among other things, that you have a duty of care towards other people. Teachers, again as citizens, are subject to criminal law. One aspect of criminal law you should note is that if you hit a pupil or if a pupil hits you this constitutes assault. It is also common sense to protect yourself against allegations by ensuring that you do not spend time alone in closed environments with individual children. Talk to your tutor about these issues and about practice in your school experience school.

**Contractual duties**

Your contractual duties are negotiated between you and your employer. In the case of teachers employed in state schools in England and Wales, the document that sets out teachers’ contractual duties in England and Wales is School Teachers’ Pay and Conditions which is produced by the DFE and updated annually. Additional conditions may apply in individual schools. There may also be ‘implied terms’ to your contract, i.e. terms which are not written down, e.g. that you will behave in a manner befitting your role – some schools operate a dress code. You can obtain detailed advice from one of the teachers’ unions. The Headteacher’s Guide to the Law (annually updated, Croner) is recommended further reading for those with a particular interest in this area.

In School Teachers’ Pay and Conditions, guidelines are laid down for the exercise of your professional duties under the headings of teaching, other activities (which covers pastoral work), assessment and reports, appraisal, review, further training and development, educational methods, discipline, health and safety, staff meetings,
cover (for absent colleagues), public examinations, management, administration and working time.

Statutory duties

Statutory duties are those which the government has established through legislation.

In Table 83.1, we provide a summary of those statutory duties of teachers in which you are most likely to be involved as a student and early in your career. A fuller version of the statutory duties of those involved in education is set out in the OFSTED Handbook for Inspection, Part 6: The Statutory Basis for Education where information is provided covering the statutory duties of heads, governors and parents. Table 83.1 is taken directly from this handbook. In the handbook, the legislation related to each aspect is also listed.

Table 83.1 Statutory duties of teachers: this summary is taken from the OFSTED handbook (1994, Part 6)

5.1 Pupils' spiritual, moral, social and cultural development
The curriculum of a maintained school must promote the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development of pupils and of society; and prepare pupils for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life.
... All pupils, unless withdrawn by their parents, must attend a daily act of collective worship.

5.2 Behaviour and discipline
The head is responsible for maintaining discipline taking the governors' views into account...
Corporal punishment has been abolished for all pupils in maintained schools and for pupils in independent schools whose fees are wholly or partly met from public funds. Corporal punishment may be applied to privately funded pupils in independent schools with more than 50 boarders.
Child Protection parents, in effect, give schools the authority to act 'in loco parentis'. Schools should take independent action to deal with emergencies. They have a general duty to act independently in respect of suspected abuse at home.

5.3 Attendance
... All schools must keep an attendance register in which pupils are marked present or absent at the beginning of each morning and afternoon session. Schools must distinguish in their attendance registers between authorized and unauthorized absences of pupils aged 5-16 and must publish rates of unauthorized absence in prospectuses and annual reports...

5.4 Provision for pupils with SEN
Where a pupil has been assessed as having special educational needs, a statement of needs must be prepared and maintained in accordance with its provisions. All pupils in maintained schools should follow the National Curriculum to the maximum extent possible, but the application of its provisions may be disabled or modified in relation to pupils with statements of special educational needs.

6.1 Teaching and non-teaching staff
All qualified teachers, except those in non-maintained schools, employed full-time or at least 50% full-time on contracts of not less than one year, are subject to appraisal of their performance on a two-year cycle...

6.11 Resources for learning
A local authority shall not intentionally promote homosexuality or publish material with the intention of promoting homosexuality.
Licences are required for derogaphics and recording of broadcasts.
Schools must use resources safely, especially low level radioactive materials...
Summary and key points
As a student teacher, you need to be aware of the full range of a teacher's duties. Whenever you are working in a school, you are acting with the agreement and support of qualified teachers. When you take over their classes, you are responsible to them for upholding the legal duties which guide their work.

We recommend that you return to this unit from time to time as you become more familiar with the work of the teacher so that you can check your practice against the requirements. Students and teachers who are union members will find that advice is readily available from their union. The addresses of teachers' unions can be found in the Education Year Book which is available in many libraries (or can be obtained from the address at the back of this book).

FURTHER READING


Croner produce a range of publications which provide up to date advice for headteachers and other staff.


The provisions in this document are based on the statutory conditions affecting the employment of teachers (in all sectors primary, secondary, special) who are employed by local Education Authorities or governing bodies of voluntary or most grant-maintained schools. It provides useful information about salary scales and conditions of work.


This document sets out the statutory basis for the work of teachers. The main requirements affecting the work of beginning teachers have been summarised in this unit.

Throughout this book, we have mixed enquiries and tasks with information and background. The tasks are intended to provide opportunities to examine the practice of other teachers, of yourself and the organisation of schools. The tasks which focus on enquiries generate the data or ideas upon which an understanding of and an explanation for the complex world of teaching and learning in schools is built.

The relationship between practice and explanation is a dynamic one; explanations are needed to make sense of experience and inform practice. Some explanations will be your own, to be tried and tested against the theories of others, often more experienced teachers and educators. At other times you may use directly the explanations of others. Explanations in turn generate working theories, responsive to practice and experience. Theory is important; it provides a framework in which to understand the complex world of the classroom and to direct further research into improving the quality of learning. It provides, too, a reference point against which to judge change and development, both of yourself and schools. It is the encompassing of these ideas, the interplay of theory and practice, which underpins the notion of the reflective practitioner.

We ask you, as one last task, to consider the message in the following poem which we have occasionally found displayed on staffroom walls:
Accountability, contractual and statutory duties

BUSH in GODDARD & LEASK, (1992)
DFE. (1994c) *School Teachers’ Pay and Conditions Document*, London HMSO.
Paper 28

in Capel. S. Chapter 8.2 Developing further as a teacher,

In Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.  
*Learning to Teach in the Secondary School*,  
London, Routledge:
Initiating development and change through the school development plan

Involvement in development and change processes, most often through school development planning, is a valuable form of INSET. Further, you are more likely to effect change through being involved in this process. You are unlikely to effect change if you 'jump in with both feet' as a new teacher because you are unlikely to understand the particular school context, its politics, rules, routines, procedures and policies and the reason that these are in place, to have developed effective channels of communication and working relationships with established staff.

A school development plan enables a school to:

organise what it is already doing and what it needs to do in a more purposeful and coherent way ... it brings together, in an overall plan, national and LEA policies and initiatives, the school's aims and values, its existing achievements and its needs for
development. By coordinating aspects of planning which are otherwise separate, the school acquires a shared sense of direction and is able to control and manage the tasks of development and change. Priorities for development are planned in detail for one year and are supported by action plans or working documents for staff. The priorities for later years are sketched in outline to provide the longer term programme.

(Hargreaves et al., 1989, p. 4)

School development plans should start from where the school is now, developing whole school, departmental and other plans covering all aspects of school life, e.g. teaching, curriculum and assessment, management and organisation, resources, staff development and finance. Development planning comprises four processes. These are:

- audit: a school reviews its strengths and weaknesses;
- plan construction: priorities for development are selected and turned into specific targets;
- implementation: of the planned priorities and targets;
- evaluation: the success of implementation is checked.

(Hargreaves et al., 1989, p. 5)

This is illustrated in Figure 8.21.

Figure 8.21 The planning cycle for school development planning

Source: Hargreaves et al. (1989, p. 50)
School development plans work best when all staff are involved. This requires consultation so that the views of all staff are considered, including support staff and any parent–teacher association. To work best, everyone needs to know how they can contribute and what they are expected to do. Different processes and activities are shared out; for example governors, the head, senior managers, the INSET co-ordinator, curriculum leaders and department, teams of staff may be responsible for different aspects of the plan. You may be involved at different stages of school development planning in a number of different ways, depending on the foci of the plan for any one year. Take the opportunity to be fully involved in all appropriate aspects of the plan in order to initiate development and change within the school and to further your professional development.

Professional development is part of your professional accountability as a teacher. You should therefore monitor your progress as a teacher and your professional development.
Paper 29


School-based Initial Teacher Education: the unanswered questions

*Paper presented at ATEA Conference, 1995
Sydney, Australia*
School-based Initial Teacher Education:

the unanswered questions

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Details about the author

Marilyn Leask is a Principal Lecturer in Education at De Montfort University, Bedford and she contributes to both primary and secondary teacher education courses at undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

Before joining the university she worked as a researcher, as a science teacher and as an advisory teacher in Evaluation and Assessment. As co-ordinator of the London Borough of Enfield’s evaluation of the Technical Vocational Education Initiative she was responsible for the work of teams of teacher-evaluators who carried out action research into the impact of TVEI. She was the Research Fellow on the Department for Education funded and Cambridge based School Development Plans Project (directed by Dr David Hopkins and Prof. David Hargreaves). As Project Officer to The Recruitment of Science Teachers from Ethnic minorities Project at the Institute of Education, University of London, she was particularly responsible for carrying out the field work.

Her most recent book (with Capel S. and Turner T.) is Learning to teach in the Secondary School: a companion to school experience (Routledge, 1995). This is designed to support student teachers and school mentors in school-based teacher training programmes. A companion volume to this, Starting to teach in the Secondary School is directed at newly qualified teachers and their mentors. This is due in 1996. Twelve subject specific books will complete the series and these are due in 1997. Her book, The Search for Quality: planning improvement and managing change (Paul Chapman Publishing, 1992) analyses the challenges facing decision makers in education in the context of the nineties and research into these issues continues as part of her research programme.

She is also currently directing a project evaluating the impact of the information superhighway on teaching and learning in schools. Colleagues interested in participating in an international project in this area are asked to make contact.

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School-Based Initial Teacher Education: the unanswered questions

Abstract

In this paper, a range of issues related to the move in the England and Wales to school-based teacher 'training' is addressed. The potential impact of this form of teacher education on schools, pupils, teachers, higher education institutions and the student teachers themselves is discussed from the perspective of their experience, their responsibilities and the allocation of resources.

The following questions form the central themes of the paper:

What is the philosophical basis for this change in approach to teacher education? What values are driving these changes in the system of training teachers? How should educational change be managed in a democracy? What ethical issues should be considered in educational change and experimentation?

What are the implications for pupils, teachers, student teachers, schools and institutions of higher education in terms of their work and experience, their responsibilities and their access to resources.

To what extent do the changes have implications for the development of the knowledge base of the teaching profession and for research into education (as resources for higher education institutions shrink)?

Are the forms of school-based initial teacher education currently being developed in the UK sustainable in the long term?
School-based initial teacher education in England and Wales:

THE UNANSWERED QUESTIONS

CONTENTS

1) Introduction: focus and definitions of terms

2) Methodology: status of the ideas in this paper

3) Recent history of ITE in England and Wales

4) Philosophy driving change in England and Wales

5) The move to school-based training
   Examples of formats of current courses

6) Implications of the changes for stakeholders:
   for
daily life/work experiences
responsible resources

7) Comments

8) Unanswered Questions

9) Conclusions from a disillusioned early supporter.

References and Bibliography
School-Based Initial Teacher Education:
the unanswered questions

1. Introduction

The ease of world wide communication has had considerable impact on the development of education systems. The pace of change endemic in modern life coupled with this ease of world wide communication has meant that ideas about how to ‘improve’ a national education system are quickly and easily imported from other countries. Unfortunately, like viruses, bad ideas are easily caught. The transfer of ideas from other systems often occurs before an innovation has been properly tested in its country of origin and before the implications of cultural transplantation have been fully considered. Alien transplants are likely in time to be rejected and no doubt educationalists from all countries will have experience of such problems with imported ideas.

This paper has been written with two purposes in mind. One is to inform colleagues from other countries of the issues we in England and Wales are facing in implementing new ideas about partnerships between higher education institutions (HEIs) and schools, in the provision of school-based initial teacher training programmes. The paper focuses on courses which provide student teachers with their pre-service training/education. (The debate about whether the word ‘training’ or ‘education’ should be used in this context is left for others to discuss.) A number of other countries are reforming their education systems (McWilliam 1995; Sutton, 1994) and it may be that the pitfalls apparent in the system in England and Wales could be avoided by others. The other purpose of the paper is to inform debate/discussion/decision making in the UK.

A major contention of this paper is that two aspects of the changes in initial teacher training (ITT) in England and Wales, i.e. the removal of resources previously concentrated in HEIs (and their dispersal to a large number of schools) coupled with the reduction of the HEI role to a theoretical and managerial role, are likely to seriously damage the professional knowledge base and thus limit its future development. Furlong et al (1994) raise the spectre that the changes forced on initial teacher education by a ‘New Right’ philosophy may actually result in the development of the types of courses in HEIs which such critics of teacher education were criticising in the first place i.e. theoretical non-practical courses.

Definition of terms

This paper is written for an international audience many of whom may be English speakers. However, communication of concepts developed in one culture to an audience from another culture is extremely problematic. Inevitably new concepts are understood in the context of one’s own culture. In an attempt to avoid misunderstanding and in the recognition that even in England and Wales the terms carry a range of meanings, the key terms are defined here.

mentor - for the purpose of this paper, the term mentor applies to a school teacher who has responsibility for working in the classroom with student teachers in the school. This role supplants that of the school-based supervisor of teaching practice. The mentor is usually from the student’s subject area in the secondary school. In addition, there is a professional tutor in a school who has overall responsibility for all students in the school. In school-based schemes the mentor and professional tutor will normally be given some training. Mentors and professional tutors are selected by the school not by the HEI. Furlong et al (1994, p.297) raise an interesting point about the quality of practice in schools: ‘implicit in the partnership model is the assumption that current practice within schools is adequate to form the basis for involvement in initial teacher education’. This assumption is also applied to mentors. It is assumed that they are reasonably well equipped to do the job. Does it matter that they may not have studied their subject beyond the level of their initial training? In comparison with HEI staff, it seems likely that fewer will have masters’ qualifications or above and that fewer will have had experience in the wider education system (as advisers or
inspectors). Some will be mentoring students in subjects they themselves have not studied formally but which they are now teaching.

The role of the mentor is variously defined. Turner (1993) provides a useful overview of the literature in this area and he sees the supportive developmental role of the mentor as relatively unproblematic. However, coupling an assessment role to this supportive role is seen as very inappropriate (Heath-Camp and Camp cited by Turner 1993). Yet this is a feature of many of the school-based schemes and one that is reported as difficult by the mentors themselves (Furlong, 1994; Taylor, 1994).

Partnership - this means more than school/HEI co-operation over school placements for students. Partnership as it is defined in England and Wales implies that there has been a shift of resources and responsibilities to schools from HEIs. Furlong et al. (1994, p.282), in reporting the findings of the MOTE (Models of Teacher Education) project, identify various models of partnership operating successfully throughout England and Wales only one form of which appears to be favoured by the Department for Education (DfE) i.e. the government department responsible for school education. Barrett et al. (1992) in their topography of ITT in England and Wales also identify the patterns of partnership operating prior to the recent changes. Wilkin (1990) provides an overview of the move towards partnership which was initially instigated from within the teaching profession. The definition of partnership preferred by the DfE is illustrated by the inspection criteria described in draft documents produced by the inspectorate (OFSTED 1993). These are set out in figure 1.

Figure 1. The proposed model for inspection of school-based ITT schemes from the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED, 1993)


**Effectiveness of partnership**

8.4 Partnership is regarded as satisfactory when:
   - the training is recognised as a shared responsibility by the partners;
   - schools have an opportunity to contribute to setting programme objectives, planning the training and selecting the students;
   - training, assessment roles and responsibilities are documented and understood by those involved in the partnership;
   - co-ordination ensures that all partners contribute to a coherent course of professional training;
   - management procedures and responsibilities are clear and there is effective liaison;
   - arrangements are in place for monitoring and evaluating the quality of the training;
   - the basis of funding allocations is explicit and resources provided to the school for purposes of training are used appropriately;
   - outcomes are at least satisfactory.

8.5 A very good partnership would have some of the following additional features
   - regular contributions by school staff to HEI-based training;
   - good or very good outcomes;
   - rapid and flexible response to a student in difficulties or to a school in temporary difficulties over its training commitments.

**Quality of training in the School**

8.6. The training in the partnership school is considered to be satisfactory when:
   - the school provides a programme of training within subject departments and the whole school which builds on and supports other aspects of the students' training;
   - students are given adequate opportunity to observe and participate in the teaching of pupils with differing needs across the age phase of their training;
   - there is regular, sustained classroom observation of the students' teaching and both written and oral comment provide them with feedback and formative guidance;
• the student's developing teaching competencies are monitored, with support given where identified needs exist.

67. For the training in the partnership school to be graded very good, there should also be:
• a systematic programme of good quality for developing students' teaching competencies and regular meetings of the staff involved to evaluate and plan;
• effective monitoring of the progress of individual students in relation to the Secretary of State's criteria, providing a basis for target setting and future development;
• a stimulus to self-evaluation and critical thinking by students.”

Note:
a) The Teacher Training Agency is currently establishing what are considered quality outcomes for courses. Student employment is proposed as one of these. However the LMS system discriminates against mature entrants and the new universities have a higher proportion of mature entrants than the old universities.
b) The requirement for a flexible response to a student in difficulties has funding implications for most partnership schemes where the money is guaranteed so that teacher time can be made available. Where does the money for the next placement come from? One institution pays by the day but this makes school planning to free teacher time problematic.

Clearly there are many different models of partnership. Miles and Middleton (1993, p.109) suggest that ideology has driven the choice of partnership model in England and Wales: 'What the government understands by partnership is a commercial relationship driven by competition rather than one based on co-operation, and a shift in control that would place major responsibility for all aspects of course planning and the training and assessment of students in the hands of teachers. ...these proposals should not be seen in isolation, but in the context of the government's broader plans for more centralised control over education.'

school-based teacher training - this term is used to describe a range of models which have at their heart the fact that the school has the major responsibility for training students which goes beyond the traditional teacher's role supervising students in the classroom. These models are discussed in more detail in a later section as are the implications for pupils, teachers and schools and well as teacher-educators and HEIs.

Wilkin and Sankey (eds., 1994) and McIntyre, Hagger and Wilkin (eds. 1994) provide a wide range of perspectives on developments in school-based training and mentoring in particular.

2. Methodology

An overview of the issues raised by the move to school-based training is provided by this paper. The outcomes of the changes are still to be fully evaluated but a number of outcomes and side effects are being identified. School-based training may be, as one mentor said 'The best form of teacher training' but there are a number of issues of professional concern which need to be addressed.

The ideas and concerns addressed in this paper come from several sources:
• evaluation data collected as part of the monitoring process on a pilot scheme of 1 year post-graduate secondary courses;
• interview and questionnaire data collected from eight HEIs;
• interviews and field notes recording data from students, mentors, head teachers and HEI tutors.
• A review of literature.

The focus of the paper is on secondary teacher training courses - the one year postgraduate certificate course in particular - but the issues seem to be relevant to both primary and secondary contexts.
3. The recent history of Initial Teacher Training in England and Wales

There are a number of routes into teaching in England and Wales. Depending on prior experience and qualifications, student teachers may embark one 1.2.3 or 4 year courses, full time or part time. The total number of students on IIT courses in any one year is over 40,000.

1992 was a watershed year for initial teacher education as government intervention requiring shifts in funds and responsibilities to schools took place (DiE, 1992). The national survey of teacher education carried out by Barrett et al (1992) before these changes came into effect documents the provision operating prior to these changes so their work provides a useful basis of comparison between previous forms of provision and current provision.

Change in the UK over the last fifteen years of Conservative Government appears to have been driven more by ideology than a genuine desire to improve education based on an analysis of what aspects of the system are functioning well and what aspects need to change. Criticism of this approach to change comes from both HEI teacher-educators (Miles and Middleton, 1993) and teachers alike (Handscomb, 1994, Collarbone and Farrar, 1993). In the view of one primary head teacher, "the efficiency and effectiveness of the education service is threatened by the deliberate exclusion of professional opinion and politically constrained funding." (Waterhouse, 1993, p. 21.) In fact there has been considerable consultation but it has all been within a predetermined agenda.

Legislation and the redistribution of funds have been key strategies used to manipulate and change the education system. The ‘cheque book approach to curriculum development’ of the early eighties (Goddard and Leask, 1992, p.56) was just the beginning of a series of initiatives where the pace of change was forced by reallocation of funds. An early example of this approach was the differential funding of schools to achieve politically motivated ends. Schools were bribed to opt-out of local education authority control. As a result of this policy, local planning of provision of school places has been disrupted and massive inefficiencies have resulted as problems with the oversupply of school places could not be tackled - the local authority had no power to reduce places in 'opted-out' schools. In some cases, those who opted-out gained massive amounts of extra funding. Wallace (ed. 1992) provides further analysis in this area.

A similar strategy is now being applied to manipulate the provision of initial teacher training. A DiE circular in 1992 (DiE, 1992), set out a series of changes required in initial teacher training. These are summarised as follows:

- student teachers were required to spend a specified amount of time in schools (32 out of 120 teaching weeks in school if they are on a 4 year degree course and 24 out of 36 weeks for a 1 year postgraduate course;

- teacher training was to be competency based. The competencies expected of the new teacher cover the areas of: subject knowledge, subject application, class management, assessment and recording pupils' progress, further professional development (Capel, Leask, Turner, 1995 list the competencies for England and Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland);

- there was to be a shift of resources from higher education institutions to individual schools so that schools would take on enhanced responsibilities for training. The effect on training institutions was that there were cuts in resources - particularly staffing - and on most courses, the number of college lecturers students received was reduced by considerable amounts - 1/2 or 2/3 in some cases;

- schools were to be allowed to train teachers independently of higher education institutions (DiE, 1993a).
From this brief description, it will appear that there was a move to a diffuse model of training where maintaining quality, the provision of equal opportunity and the entitlement of the student to a certain standard of provision were all going to be harder to monitor.

As a result of these changes, HEIs must devolve a significant proportion of student-teacher tuition fees to schools. On average 25% or more of the money previously provided by government per student is given to schools - £800 to £1000 is commonly paid per placement per year. However, if schools decide to train teachers independently of HEIs they are given more money per student than the HEI. Currently they receive about 25% more per student than an HEI does.

In the case of the reallocation of funds for initial teacher training, the government made a serious miscalculation which will adversely affect the cost of initial teacher training for the foreseeable future. School placements were previously provided by schools on a goodwill no charge basis. Hence the basic school placement of ITT had never been costed and indeed had been given freely by the schools. The introduction of market-place ideologies i.e. the notion of payment for every service, meant that schools expected everything to be paid for - the school placement as well as the additional responsibilities for delivering parts of the course previously delivered in the HEI. In addition, where teachers in schools were delivering parts of the ITT courses previously done in the HEI, they were doing so with a much lower tutor:student ratio than had been the case in the HEI. Barrett et al (1992, p.55) in their survey of ITT courses in England and Wales put forward the view that those reforming teacher training had, in their minds, a model of teacher training based on lectures on theoretical subjects which certainly did not exist by 1992. Changes in the UK are taking place in a climate of anti-intellectualism and anti-professionalism which is affecting all the professions.

Successful models of teacher training such as the Oxford Internship Model, where the students spent more than the average time in schools were used as examples of good practice which could be followed. Two key dimensions of the Oxford model were however not necessarily able to be applied by other institutions. It appears to have been a more costly model than other institutions were running. ‘...The LEA (Local Education Authority) has from the beginning given collaborating schools enhanced staffing of 0.1 for each pair of interns they accept.’ (McIntyre and Hagger, 1992, p.264). If a 16:1 student:staff ratio is taken as being average for a HEI, then on the Oxford scheme, the LEA was putting in the equivalent of 0.8 of a member of staff—nearly double the staffing of a traditional HEI course. This LEA subsidy is not widely available. In addition, HEIs are not funded to the same extent for the same courses (Barrett, 1992, p.5) and this would affect a HEI's ability to implement this model.

In a time of serious financial constraints on education, implementing a more costly approach to teacher education is an interesting step for a government to take. Measuring cost effectiveness in initial teacher training is a complex exercise and one which has not yet been undertaken in any depth. OFSTED inspectors estimate that 1 in 10 of newly qualified teachers are not effective and should not be in the profession.

There is considerable wastage in the teaching profession with many teachers leaving within a few years and early retirement at 50 or so cutting the working life significantly. The change to business oriented education management - the Local Management of Schools (LMS) approach has had profound effects on school staffing. LMS has led to a system in England and Wales where experienced teachers are often not valued. Instead, they are seen as expensive teachers and large numbers have been ‘early retired’ - a British euphemism for being made redundant. Schools are given money for staffing based on average teacher costs across the system so schools with higher proportions of experienced staff simply do not get the money to pay these staff. New young teachers are often only given temporary contracts for a year or a term (Waterhouse, 1993, p.18). This gives schools flexibility if the budget allocation does not cover costs. A deputy head with whom I was discussing these issues had the job of working out which eight of his school’s temporary staff would not be having their contracts renewed at the end of the academic year. All of their newly qualified teachers from the previous year were on temporary contracts.
The previous system where the LEA managed staffing budgets on a very large scale gave scope for redeployment of staff and differences in staffing costs were spread across the system. Wallace (1992) provides background information about LMS.

4. Philosophy driving change in England and Wales

That change is being driven by ideology is a viewpoint voiced by many educationalists. Barrett et al (1992, p.1) describe Kenneth Clarke, the then Secretary of State for Education as giving a speech in January 1992 which was part of an 'unprecedented series of attacks on conventional approaches to the training of teachers.' (Clarke, 00) In September of that year, the Department for Education issued a circular 9/92 (DfE, 1992) which, as mentioned earlier, heralded the move to school-based ITE. Miles and Middleton (1993, p.109) see the reforms of initial teacher training as 'part of a sustained attack on education professionals'. Bolton, previously Senior Chief Inspector in H. M. Inspectorate (in Wilkin and Sankey, 1994, p.23) speaks of the government view that 'teacher-educators and the training courses they ran were ideologically predisposed against the policies of Conservative governments, and were in control of the soft, progressive left. A related but older belief was reasserted, that the teaching profession generally, and primary teachers in particular, had been seduced away from sound traditional teaching methods into progressive, soft-centred relativism by academic teacher trainers and various assorted gurus.'

In recent years, there has been unprecedented interference in professional matters with for example, government ministers making pronouncements on what constitutes a appropriate teaching styles Clarke, 00). Miles and Middleton, 1993 provide detailed comment on government proposals for reform of primary ITE in particular but the philosophy driving reform in the secondary sector is the same. The establishment of a General Teaching Council in England and Wales is seen by some as essential in providing a buffer which will protect pupils and teachers from the over hasty implementation of ill-conceived change by governments bringing about change for ideological reasons.

As with many of the developments in education in England and Wales in the last 15 years, the government doesn't appear to fully understand the implications of their own policies. The new Teacher Training Agency (an agency responsible for attracting new teachers, awarding funding to institutions and monitoring quality) is apparently concerned about the quality of recruits into teaching and is 'exploring ways of attracting more people and possibly older people into the profession' (Pyke, 1995 p.10) This goal was repeated in public by Anthea Millett, the chief executive of the TTA in a speech to the National Commission on Education Learning to Succeed conference, 24 June 1996 at the Institute of Education, University of London.
5. Models of school-based initial teacher training in England and Wales - 1 year postgraduate secondary courses

There is no one model of initial teacher training operating in England and Wales although all courses are operating within constraints set by government (DfE, 1992, 1993a, 1993b) which require that on one year postgraduate courses, students spend 24 weeks in school and schools play a significant part in the training of students. The draft criteria (figure 1) put forward by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) i.e. the inspectorate, give an indication of the changes of responsibilities envisaged.

Diversity is a feature of the system. One of the more significant differences between courses at different HEIs is the way in which partnership is developed. On courses where the development of the student’s subject specialism is seen as important, there will be partnership between the school mentor and the HEI subject tutor visiting students teaching the subject in school. On other courses, where the student is seen as a teacher of children first and subject second the partnership is likely to be between the professional tutor in school (a senior manager) and the HEI link tutor - a level more remote from the work done in the classroom with students. So, depending on the model of course, a student may have considerable contact with the HEI subject tutor who may visit up to 6 times or so over the year, or they may have virtually no contact with the HEI subject tutor as this ‘partner’ will not be allocated school visits as part of their work. Consequently the student may not be seen teaching by subject specialists outside the school.

The OFSTED criteria for assessing the quality of school-based training (figure 1) read well. They paint a picture of a scheme where ‘the partners’ are operating together to provide a sound experience for the student. However, the reality of the scheme’s operation is much more complex.

At the level of detail, the term partnership has different meanings for each HEI/school partnership, different meanings in each school and different meanings for different partners. In each school, there are numerous partners and the major partners and stakeholders are listed in Table 1. Most schools will have staff taking two key roles - the mentoring role and the role of professional tutor which may involve running training sessions for all students and overseeing the whole student experience. HEI institutions will usually have subject tutors, link tutors (between the scheme and the school) and possibly professional studies tutors. In the following section, the impact of school-based training on the daily work/experience, responsibilities and roles, and resources for each stakeholder are examined.

6. Implications of school-based training for partners and stakeholders:

The change to school-based teacher training (where schools are responsible for supervision as in the past in addition to aspects of assessing, training and education previously done by the HEI) is examined from the point of view of the different partners and stakeholders. The distinction between partners and stakeholders is made because, for example, pupils and parents are not seen as partners yet their daily lives may be affected more than that of any partner. The complexity of the school-based training model becomes apparent when the potential impact of the model on each stakeholder is examined in turn. Table 1 lists the major partners and stakeholders linked to any one school. The HEI will be the partner of many schools and in each school many staff will be involved in ITT albeit with different roles and responsibilities. Collarbone and Farrar (1993, p.25) in discussing the training programme at their school indicate the size of the student population in comparison with their normal staffing: ‘...(there are) 4 newly qualified teachers and 17 student teachers. This is just under half of our full time equivalent of teaching staff.'
Table 1: Partners and stakeholders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>HEI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- pupils</td>
<td>- subject tutor***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- parents</td>
<td>- professional studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- subject teacher(s)*</td>
<td>(general education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>issues) tutor***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- HOD *</td>
<td>- link tutor****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Senior management*</td>
<td>- course manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- headteacher and governors</td>
<td>- head of department and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>institution as a whole</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Large schemes often are organised around consortia, i.e. groups of schools clustered together and these may have link tutors from the HEI.

* who might be the mentor
** the student is shown separated from school and HEI as isolation from peers and from the HEI is an issue raised by students
*** who may have no school links except for mentor training and whose visits to schools in a year may vary from none to five or six.

Pupils:
What are the benefits to the pupils? Schools make little of their training role in their relationships with parents. How many prospectuses proudly proclaim this important professional role? Does this role feature in the school’s development plan? The reality is perhaps that from the pupil’s point of view, student teachers are mixed blessing. The student teacher may provide a stimulating break from the set routines of the usual teacher or alternatively the student teacher may provide the opportunities for pupils to slacken off. For all that the models vary, one aspect is constant. The same schools, (and so mentors) where possible, are used year in and year out. So for some pupils, it would seem that from their first year in secondary school to their last, there is a high chance that they will have student teachers for part of the year in some subjects, year after year.

Clearly in some cases, pupils benefit from a change in approach. In other cases, however, for example in the case of a failing student, pupil learning will suffer. Whilst there may be general agreement among all stakeholders that pupils and schools should share in the training of teachers, the concentration of students in the same schools year after year is another issue. Taylor (1994, p.5) reports that some mentors are also concerned “that the schools’ pupils may suffer from too much contact with student teachers”.

Monitoring procedures for pupil experience of student teachers appear over the whole of the secondary experience appear to be haphazard or intuitive.

Teachers/mentors: Being a mentor or having students take their classes, can provide professional development and much is made of this potential particularly as many avenues for professional development of teachers have diminished in recent years (McIntyre and Hagger, 1992). But taking care of students also creates pressure on time. Whilst in some schools, teachers who are mentors will be given a time allowance and in very few cases, extra money, in many schools the job will be on top of normal duties. Some departments who have students may be allocated a proportion of the funding by the school. Lack of time to carry out the mentoring role is a serious concern emerging from experience to date. Students complain that the mentor is too busy to see them and have not given support at appropriate times and mentors say they do not have enough time to see the students (Taylor, 1994).

Senior Management: Again, professional development can be a spin-off especially where the manager is a ‘professional tutor with time to carry out the work well. Participating in the scheme does bring money into the school although there is criticism that not enough money is available. This seems inevitable with school-based schemes. Previously, in the HEI, the work now done by the professional tutor in school may have been done by a lecturer on a lower rate of pay than senior managers in schools and with much higher staff:student ratios. For example in some institutions, one lecturer might lecture to the whole of the year group - 150 or so. In the school-based scheme, staff:student ratios - even when students are grouped in consortia for sessions - will inevitably be much lower than was previously the case.

The School as an institution: There can be a range of benefits as well as disadvantages for the school. Benefits in the form of professional development for staff might be considered substantial. Whether the allocation of staff time both of senior staff and classroom based staff is cost-effective and beneficial to the teaching of pupils is a professional question for each school to address. In England and Wales, the schools’ results in GCSE (taken in
year 11) and A-level (Year 13) are published and cases were found where schools were more reluctant to be involved in initial teacher training in case their results were affected. Schools were also reportedly reluctant to take weaker students or students with non-traditional backgrounds (Leask, Turner and Turner, 1995).

Student Teachers: From the evidence gathered so far, student experience is variable. As there is no comparable data from old style courses it is difficult to be precise about the impact of school-based courses on student teachers. Some have commented on the isolation and the lack of access to the facilities and resources of the HEI (Taylor, 1994). Consistency between student experience has always been variable and with longer times spent in schools, students with stimulating placements will clearly have an advantage over other students. Low morale in schools is commented on fairly frequently by students.

Stephenson and Taylor. (1995, p.5) have done some interesting work comparing mentors' assessment of their role with their student teacher protegés perception of it. The disparity of views illustrated in Table 2 is a reminder that evaluation of the teacher mentor’s or HEI teacher-educator’s work should be an essential component of the mentoring process. Stephenson and Taylor asked mentors and their protegés to rate the mentoring process which occurred between the two of them. An analysis of data from twenty-two pairs was carried out and revealed interesting if worrying results. On the nine elements of the mentor’s role which were assessed, ‘on average...a mentor/protege pair...disagreed significantly on 3 of the 9 elements. Since mentors rated consistently higher than students, this means that the average student teacher could well be reporting what they saw as mentoring near misses (and outright failures) on three aspects of the mentoring role that their own average mentor had seen as a success’. The ratings used were on a scale 1-6 with 6 being ‘almost without fault’ and 1 being ‘awful’. Table 2 (from Stephenson and Taylor, 1995) sets out some of the comments from pairs where there was significant disagreement:

Table 2 extract from Stephenson and Taylor, 1995

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extracts from mentor’s summary</th>
<th>Extracts from their student teacher’s summary</th>
<th>Student’s comments on mentors’ effect</th>
<th>Student’s comments about disadvantages of the mentor system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Mentoring process went well...” (overall rating 5)</td>
<td>“I felt I received very little support. Most input was negative...” (overall rating 2)</td>
<td>“very negative”</td>
<td>“Student has no outside adjudicator, can cause paranoia and feelings of isolation”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“...Mentoring valuable to school and students...” (overall rating 5)</td>
<td>“My mentor did not give me enough time or feedback...” (overall rating 1)</td>
<td>“very little interaction”</td>
<td>“where the person acting as mentor is too busy to carry out their role...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“...Useful to have the added perception of a mentor that’s not the class teacher...” (overall rating 5)</td>
<td>“My mentor did not conform to what was required...assumed that I was doing well and coping...” (overall rating 2)</td>
<td>“limited interaction, minimal support” ...</td>
<td>“The mentor must be someone who has the time and energy to fulfil their job...”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we do not have comparable data for students taught under the previous system there is no way of establishing whether student’s satisfaction with those training them is any higher or lower under the new system.

HEI teacher-educators: Apart from the loss of some jobs, the impact of the move to school-based training has led for many teacher-educators to less contact with schools. Ironically, this could have the result of actually breaking down partnerships established at the HEI subject tutor and school subject tutors over the years as the ‘partnership’ is now often played out at a higher level - HEI link tutor to professional tutor (senior school manager). For HEI teacher-educators the move to school-based training can mean a shift in work from training of teachers to inspection and higher degree work as well as the provision of mentor training. Concern was expressed from several sources about the cut back in subject specialist work which can mean that students do not have the opportunities previously available to student teachers to learn to apply their specialist knowledge to the needs of pupils. Discussions with HMI (inspectors) and external examiners on a number of schemes indicates
that it is in this area that schools find difficulty in training students beyond straightforward classroom practice issues.

Overall impact from a HEI perspective:

There are a number of different ways in which work in HEIs has been affected by the move to school-based training.

Work/experience of staff

- fewer staff are employed for effectively the same number of subject areas;
- there is the potential for partnership to develop at higher institutional level i.e. at administrative levels at the expense of lecturer/teacher partnerships;
- the lecturer's role is reduced to a more theoretical role as the school visit role diminishes. This has implications for research questions and for up-to-date knowledge of teacher-educators;
- there is a loss of overview of student teaching quality and the quality of school practice, previously obtained by HEI teacher-educators;
- quality assurance is difficult - school staff deployed are not usually chosen by the HEI and rarely have their CVs checked. They are not subject to the same scrutiny as HEI teacher-educators are on appointment.

Resources

Resources have been cut back with several inevitable effects:

- poorer libraries in universities as resources are dispersed this affects all provision: PhD. masters, inservice courses;
- there is a smaller staff resource base for research;
- there is a smaller resource base for development of professional knowledge base;
- mentor training has to be repeated as mentor turnover is a constant factor yet money to fund this was only available on a transitional basis;
- there is less money for buildings;
- there has been a loss of specialist staff.
7. Emerging issues

a) Mentors

Choice of, experience and background of mentors

Mentors i.e. those teachers responsible for training student teachers in school in their subject knowledge, come from a variety of backgrounds. Some are enthusiastic about their new role. others have taken it on because it was expected of them. This variation of background was not what was envisaged initially - schools were to be 'chosen' to take part in partnership schemes on the basis of suitability. The reality is that some HEIs have difficulties in recruiting school partners. Other issues concerning the mentor role include the following:

- School-based mentors are chosen by the school not by the HEI.
- The criteria for choosing mentors vary between schools and are not those used for selecting HEI teacher-educators (i.e. substantial teaching experience, higher degree, other professional experience such as examining, advisory work, inspection work, breadth of experience).
- Mentors who have built up relationships over years with the HEI have found themselves removed from the scheme by the school 'to give someone else a chance
- Some mentors chosen by schools have had little formal training in the subject they now teach.
- Some mentors are heads of departments, some in their first year of teaching, some are senior teachers.
- Mentors may have no experience of other schools or overview of education practice e.g. one experienced teacher who was a mentor had only taught in one school and had been there for 17 years.

The extent to which each of these points is important is a matter for professional debate.

b) Scale of mentoring and partnership

The number of mentors required on large teacher training programmes run into the hundreds. Leah and Lockwood, (1995) report working with 118 mentors on the first two years of a four year Bachelor of Education programme: it will be another two years before they have trained mentors for all four years of the programme. Trying to ensure a shared vision of their role is difficult - the range variation of prior experience, level of professional knowledge, training, expectations, commitment are all complicating factors.

c) Issues for schools involved in mentoring

Watkins and Whalley (1993, p. 130) draw on a range of sources in identifying factors which schools should be considering and managing if mentoring in their school is to be a positive experience for mentor and protégé. The major points they make are summarised here:

*Whole school issues*: ethos and culture of the organisation, management style ('teams, political or hierarchical'), communication styles within the organisation ('open and wide, well supported and researched, or closed'), attitudes to professional development.

*Communication issues*: recognising different needs at different phases of the training.

*Challenges and conflicts*: Watkins and Whalley acknowledge that the presence of a student can 'highlight issues in the organisation, and examining procedures and practice may trigger a range of reactions causing anxiety and at worst polarisation'. Other conflicts may occur at different levels in the school organisation. 'Interpersonal conflicts' also are acknowledged. 'The tight coupling of HEI and partnership school and the fact that students have little contact with the HEI can make it more difficult for students experiencing such difficulties to find someone outside the situation to talk to and for the HEI to find alternative placements. Previously, HEIs were free to use any school which was willing to be involved.

*Resources*: of materials, time and space have to be allowed for.

*Management of the learning experience*: Watkins and Whalley identify a host of factors in this area which need to be planned for both at the individual and the whole school level.

d) Management issues
Management specialists (e.g. Handy, 1984) make the point that for an organisation to be efficient there should be about four levels within the hierarchy. This theory provides an interesting starting point in the analysis of the structure of partnership schemes. The list of partners and stakeholders (Table 2) gives an indication of the complexity of the structure. Clearly good communication between the different levels is essential if the scheme is to work. Small schemes are obviously easier to manage. The Oxford mentoring scheme which has been held up as a model is a medium sized training scheme (around 150 students) operating in an area relatively close to the HEI. There is also some indication that it was subsided with funds from outside the HEI (McIntyre and Hagger, 1992). Furlong et al (1994) question the viability of partnership schemes where there are large student numbers and schools are physically distant from the HEI. A lecturer from one large provider partnership with a large number of rural schools commented on the masses of paper which were regularly sent to mentors. The breadth of the content in the text produced by Capel, Leask and Turner (1995) for school-based courses, provides an indication of the wide range of issues which the school may be expected to cover with the student. The text was written to provide a bridge between HEI, school and student by providing a summary of the theory underpinning key areas of teacher training and coupling this with classroom activities.

e) Comparability of experience and provision between students and between courses

All those in initial teacher training - students, schools, HEIs, face instability in the system for some time to come. Waterhouse (1993) makes the case for a National Curriculum for Initial Teacher Training and the competence lists now defined for student teachers in England and Wales. Scotland and Northern Ireland see appendices 2, 3, 4 Capel, Leask and Turner, 1995 or alternatively DIE (and Welsh Office) 1992. SOED, 1993 and Department of Education Northern Ireland. (1993) provide some sort of outline curriculum and thus coherence to student programmes in each of the three countries. However, the competencies are very broadly defined.

As has been mentioned, originally it was envisaged that schools would be chosen to be ‘training schools’ on the basis of their acknowledged excellence. In reality, HEIs are in no position often to choose placement schools. Schools opt out of the scheme at will taking experienced and trained mentors out of the system. Large institutions use hundreds of schools for school placements. At De Montfort University Bedford which is the third or fourth largest ITT provider in the country, in the region of 600 secondary students have to be found placements every year together with a similar number of primary students. Leah and Lockwood (1995), and Taylor (1994) discuss issues related to mentor development and the implications of the move to school-based training for such a large provider.

Furlong et al (1994, p.29) identify a potential flaw in terms of the quality of school-based teacher training: “Implicit in the partnership model is the assumption that current practice within schools is adequate to form the basis for involvement in initial teacher education.” The sheer numbers of mentors and schools involved make course coherence difficult. Increasing the length of time in one school and taking out flexibility of placements from the system can adversely affect the training of students who find themselves in less effective training situations.

‘...every student has a different course here...’

This statement, from a tutor on a large partnership scheme, was collected by Furlong et al (1994, p. 296) in their in-depth study of teacher education in England and Wales. The issue of lack of comparability of student experience on school placements has always been present in initial teacher training and it is a matter for professional debate about how important an issue it is.

The difference with school-based training is that not only is the practice different but the course itself may be delivered in different ways. For example, in some schools the work is done at lunchtimes (Collarborne and Farrar, 1993), in some schools no time is given to mentors to teach students, in other schools, an afternoon per week is timetabled for the same work.

f) Course Coherence and Consistency

McIntyre and Hagger (1992, p.268) consider that coherence between the student’s HEI experience and school experience is not to be expected ‘The widely experienced difficulty of achieving effective integration of university components of teacher education programmes with school components has been due in large measure to the fact that the practices followed and encouraged in schools have frequently not reflected the ideas expressed in universities as it has often been assumed they ought to do. The internship model seeks to
resolve this problem not by trying to achieve consensus but, on the contrary by explicitly asserting that consensus is not to be expected.'

But this view about coherence is not held universally. Furlong et al (1994, p.296) raise the issue of consistency in courses. Pointing out that HMI were critical of existing HEI courses, they go on to make the point: ‘However if consistency is difficult to achieve within one HEI, how much more difficult will it be in the new model of partnership training. Evidence from our study was far from reassuring on this matter.’

Collarbone and Farrar (1993, p.25) who are teachers enthusiastic about the potential benefits of school-based training. express their concerns:
‘Coherence seems to be far distant at present. Are we moving inexorably towards an apprenticeship model without the advantages of true apprenticeship? Can a profession sustain this number of routes into it? Are the routes equally valid or is there a preferred hierarchy? Schools now appear at centre stage in this fragmented system. the newest recruits in the teacher training field - with what consequences?’

g) For whom is the student teacher’s training now a priority?

Collarbone and Farrar (1993, p.25) who are school teachers involved in initial teacher training. share one of the deep felt concerns that HEI teacher-educators have about school-based training - that ultimately, the pupils are the teachers’ main concern not the student teacher:

‘Schools exist to teach pupils. Their raison d’etre is to raise achievement and ensure that every pupil performs to their highest possible standard.’

Student teachers may be left in limbo. Evaluation (Taylor, 1994) of a pilot school-based scheme indicates that some students are experiencing isolation. Students may, for example, find it difficult to find someone to discuss problems with who is not involved in their assessment. Previously their welfare was the prime concern of the HEI tutors. Such HEI tutors as are left will usually take on other responsibilities to fill the gaps left in their timetables once the course is devolved to schools (Adler, 1995). Students on the school-based courses may no longer be the prime concern of HEI tutors either. Holder (1994) sets out criteria related to the recognition and definition of the mentor role which he suggests should be met if the role of the teacher training the student is to be taken seriously.

b) Costs and payments for placements

School-based training is not cheap. Tutor: student ratios of say 1:18 for subject work and 1: 120 for, for example, lectures on general issues such as the structure of the curriculum and the education system are replaced by ratios of perhaps 1:2 for subject work and 1:20 or 30 or so if schools are working in consortia.

The Oxford Internship model was based on about 10 interns in each school (McIntyre and Hagger 1992, p.266). At current rates for school placements at about £1000 per student, the income for a school with 10 students is about 1/3 of the salary (including on costs) of an experienced member of staff. There are of course additional costs - photocopying and equipment for example. This level of funding clearly does not buy much teacher time when it is considered that for every two students there will be one mentor as well as the professional tutor in the school.

HEIs have no controls over the expenditure by schools of the funds allocated for initial teacher training and the evidence to date shows that there are a numbers of ways the money is used - to boost staffing, to provide time for mentors, to provide funds for the department, for general school use, for individual mentors (rare).

Differential funding of HEIs by government means that not all HEIs are operating from the same resource base and indeed some pay more for student placements than others.

The high cost of the school-based training partnership scheme has been raised by the HEIs continually since its inception. At the 1995 Spring conference of the Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) ‘the funding dilemmas facing university departments of education’ were discussed - ‘declining unit of resource and increasing costs; (funding) bearing no relationship to actual costs; the increasing cost of partnerships, DIE pressure for tight accountability in audit with more money going on accountants rather than on those involved in teaching.’ These problems are coupled with new financial penalties if student numbers fall below set levels - the ‘Emphasis on completion rates creates strong pressure against
counselling poor students off courses.' UCET 1995, p. 2. The problem of finding enough school placements was also discussed. From observations, it seems likely that the school-based partnership schemes are subsidised by the good will of school and university staff who are working long hours to ensure that courses run satisfactorily.

i) Teacher time

According to Tabberer (1994, p.71), head of information at the National Foundation for Educational Research, teachers spend only about a third of their time teaching pupils. 'the remainder is given to administration, school planning, curriculum planning, subject co-ordination, preparing lessons and materials, marking, record keeping and organisation.' The survey which yielded these results was carried out before school-based training course were widespread. It is then hardly surprising, that the availability of teacher time is a concern to students and teachers themselves.

j) Equity: Course provision and flexibility

'Inequality of experience now seems to be pervading both the first and the second year of training' Collarbone and Farrar, (1993, p.25). Routes into teaching in England and Wales are becoming more diverse than ever before and this raises issues of equivalence of training in different modes. Some students for example, train in schools with no HEI connection except perhaps for examining, others are on three year degree programmes, others four year degree programmes. This diversity also raises the question of student entitlement to a professional training of an agreed standard as well as the acceptability of these various qualifications in other countries and contexts. Students may well not be aware of the status of their particular course in the eyes of employers.

Removing a student whose placement was proving unsatisfactory was a relatively easy step under the previous arrangements where placements were provided through teacher goodwill. This flexibility can easily be constrained once funds for training are turned over to the school. One institution surveyed pays by the day for placements to ensure that there is flexibility over placements - students can be withdrawn in case of difficulty and the money is available to pay for another placement. In other schemes, where the money is paid at the beginning of the year, withdrawal of a student from a school results in loss of the money allocated for their placement and funds for a different placement have to be found from elsewhere.

Previous models of teacher training allowed for much more flexibility in meeting individuals needs in certain areas. For example, it was relatively easy to arrange a school placement to take into account home circumstances e.g. child care arrangements. A school willing to take the students could usually be found nearby. However, within tightly interlocking HEI/school partnership arrangements, university tutors may not have the flexibility which allows them to make special arrangements to accommodate individual circumstances.

k) Pupil experience - ethical issues

The failing student

Where student teachers are effective then there are many advantages for school, teachers and pupils in working with them. However, where they are ineffective, there is a tension between the pupils’ rights to the best possible tuition and the student’s right to have a fair chance. The student must be allowed to continue attempting to develop their ability to teach over a substantial period - this means that a group of pupils must have considerable exposure to poor teaching - out of a 40 week year, this student may teach them for 10 weeks or so.

The issue of who decides if a student is to fail is an important one for the HEI validating the course it also has implications for the mentoring role. A mentoring role is a nurturing role and some argue that it is inappropriate for a mentor to be responsible for decisions about passing and failing. It can be hard and indeed may be inappropriate to fail someone with whom a supportive relationship has been built up. The evidence from OFSTED is that more students should fail (Pyke, 1995) but the survey for this work revealed confidential evidence that in school staff find it hard to fail students with whom they have been working.

The ethics of practising on pupils
There is a general acceptance that the next generation of professionals in a whole range of fields e.g. law, medicine are inducted and trained by practitioners. However in many professions, any mistakes made by those learning are likely to affect only one person at a time and repeat experimentation on the same individuals is uncommon. For example, when a trainee surgeon is developing his/her skills, they practise on one person at a time, and usually, different people each time. With teaching, the same group are used for practice over and over.

There has been considerable experimentation in the education system in recent years and perhaps it is time that the quality of the pupil experience becomes a feature in the debate. One area of experimentation which has been a particular fiasco is that of technology to GCSE. Thousands of children across the country were compelled to study technology but the new courses were found to be unsuitable and scrapped almost even before pupils had finished them; for example, the experience of the 1993-1995 cohort of pupils at GCSE).

There is also perhaps an issue of parental consent - should parents be informed if a student is teaching their child?

1) School-based training and school effectiveness

The impact on effectiveness of a school which concentrates on training teachers is something which the research on school effectiveness is yet to address.

Sammons et al. (1995) in a comprehensive review of school effectiveness research identify factors which improve school effectiveness. Particular factors which could be enhanced by the opportunities offered by involvement in teacher training, are the importance of school leaders being 'leading professionals' and the importance of a school being a 'learning organisation'. Involvement in the reviewing and discussing of practice which occurs when teachers are working with students would seem to stimulate school practice in both these areas. One wonders then whether the involvement of less effective school in school-based training might be especially beneficial.

Handscomb (1994, p.35) a deputy head confirms that involvement in initial teacher training has advantages for the school as a learning institution but he warns that if the scheme is not properly funded this potential advantage will be lost.

"The scheme is woefully underfunded. The undoubted success of the last year has been achieved through the great efforts of teachers with minimum finance for basics like supply cover and training. Most schools have had to subsidize involvement from their own staff development budgets. There has always been an element of underfunding in teacher training but this has been exacerbated with the shift towards school-based-training."

m) Quality assurance

"...perhaps the biggest headache (for Anthea Millett, the new Teacher Training Agency chief executive) will be ensuring the quality of school-based initial training." (Low, 1995).

Monitoring the quality of outcomes between the different partners in ITT and the quality of the contributions of different schools within HEI schemes must be a high priority. There are serious concerns. In the view of one external examiner on ITT courses, the university is now 'franchising (teacher education) without real control' and that 'the university is rubber stamping documents (i.e. student competence profiles) which it has no means of validating'.

Confidence in the quality of the new methods is yet to be established.
8 School-based initial teacher training - some unanswered questions

Are there the resources and is there the will to provide ongoing support and training for teachers undertaking professional tutor and mentor roles?

Are equal opportunities for students likely to be more limited with this school-based system?

Will the inherent instability in the system with schools, mentors and professional tutors changing at will disappear as more and more staff gain this experience? How long will it take to achieve this stability?

Are there ethical issues with regard to pupil's entitlement to the best possible tuition which need to be resolved in those schools where training is concentrated? What about parents - should they be informed?

Can partnerships between HEIs and schools be established within cost-effective parameters for large rural initial teacher training programmes and for programmes providing very specialised placements e.g. dance?

Can an effective balance of priorities between pupils' needs and students' needs be maintained in partnership schools?

What evidence is there for the effectiveness, in costs and professional outcomes, of the diverse routes there are into teaching in England and Wales?

Are the forms of school-based initial teacher training which are being established in England and Wales sustainable in the long term?

How should decisions about change in education systems be decided in a democracy?

What is the role of higher education in initial teacher training? It has already been diminished. If it disappears, how will this affect the development of the knowledge base of the profession?

9. Conclusions

That these are uncertain times in initial teacher training in England and Wales is widely acknowledged and it is impossible to predict whether the current constraints on course provision will remain and whether some providers will cease to operate. There is anecdotal evidence of course closures and cut backs in HEIs and there has been considerable concern about the viability of the changes to ITT within current budgetary constraints (UCET, 1994). 

If the emerging concerns can be met, the future might be rosy. Collarbone and Farrar (1993, p.24) describe their vision for the partnership between their school and the HEI:

"The school development plan outlines a five year programme for a developing partnership with training institutions. The vision is one of a symbiotic relationship where the school and the HE institution share the planning and delivery of initial teacher training courses, run INSET for heads of department on mentoring, set up staff study and reading groups and deliver a diverse range of staff seminars. Staff working parties become the seed bed for small scale research projects and the debate on teaching and learning is extended and enriched for both partners'.

At the other end of the spectrum, Maclure (cited in Barton et al 1994, p.531) is gloomy:

'The sub-plot is more sinister. It is to take teacher training out of the universities and colleges and ultimately to sever the connection between the study of education in higher education and its practice in schools.'

Whatever the outcome, development of the professional knowledge base through research, writing and diversity of forms of partnership with schools, seems certain to be curtailed. This seems to be part of a continuing trend. McIntyre and Hagger (1992, p.282) make the point that 'It is only a few years since government policy in England removed from experienced teachers the liberating possibility of a year or a term seconded to a university for advanced professional study. Now even beginning teachers are to be allowed only a few weeks of professional study in a higher education context.' The real impact of school-based initial teacher training schemes is yet to be felt.
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Paper 30


Towards a Pedagogical Framework for the use of Multimedia and New Technologies associated with the Information Superhighway

*Paper presented at BERA Annual Conference, 1995*
*British Educational Research Association*
*Lancaster*
Towards a Pedagogical Framework
for the use of
New Technologies
associated with the
Information Superhighway
including
Multimedia

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INTRODUCTION - SCOPE OF OUR WORK

Advances in technology require teachers to examine how new technologies may improve methods of teaching and how they may assist students to learn more effectively. Interactive Multimedia and, more broadly, the whole range of opportunities and resources offered by The Information Superhighway pose the latest challenge in the development of pedagogical knowledge and practice.

When I put in the proposal for this paper last year, our work was focused on examining the potential of Multimedia to contribute to teaching and learning. Marian Lamb, who works with Steve Bruntlett and who is speaking next, will be providing you with details about much of the work we have been doing in this area.

As you are no doubt aware, the pace of development in technology is rapid and the focus of our work has broadened since this first submission to encompass the use of new technologies in general across the whole age and sector range. What I have to say here then draws on the lessons we are learning from our work in a number of different areas:

- the impact of the opportunities offered by the Information Superhighway on methods of teaching and ways of learning. The work of the Project Connect Curriculum Development and Evaluation Group is focusing on this area. Members of this group are educationalists - teachers and lecturers covering the whole age and ability range who are focusing on the application of new technologies to teaching and learning. We are also developing our contacts with educationalists in similar situations in other countries so that we can share our learning in this development phase;

- Multimedia skills development work with undergraduates and postgraduates specifically in teacher training and masters courses in design and art. Steve Bruntlett teaches these in the UK, Portugal and Malaysia;

- a review of the literature: There is a wealth of literature on computer-based learning and a growing body of literature on the use of the technology broadly encompassed by the term, The Information Superhighway. Providing an overview of literature in the area is a massive task and in this brief paper I have only been able to touch on what I consider are some of the key issues. Inevitably what I have to say in this paper is broadly focused and some of the ideas discussed are more appropriate to HE than schools and vice versa. I aim simply to provide the beginnings of an analysis of the opportunities and limitations offered to teachers and learners by what we broadly call the new technologies. In our own work, we will be refining this analysis and defining opportunities and limitations over the coming years and we are interested in working with others with similar goals.

RATIONALE AND BACKGROUND

The purpose of this paper is to move the discussion about The Information Superhighway from what the term means, what its potential is and what is available to a more practical basis - to a consideration of what the pedagogical justifications are for integrating new technology into teaching and learning environments and what issues need to be considered in such a development.

It is virtually impossible to pick up a magazine or a paper these days and not find something about The Information Superhighway. I was passing through Singapore recently and in just one copy of The Straits Times there were a number of articles about the Internet. In one article, a couple described how their romance blossomed over the Internet; in another, family members described how they used the Internet to communicate with each other in exchanging recipes; and in another, the educational implications were being discussed. The Chinese community in South East Asia appears very internationalist in outlook and experience - young people travel the world to take advantage of educational opportunities. For such a community, the advantages of being able to keep in touch relatively cheaply must be an added incentive for developing access to the Net. The Australian media that I came across also regularly carried articles just as do the media in the UK.
Educationalists and others who have a concern for teaching and learning using new technologies need to break new ground. We have to be creative and imaginative as well as capable of critically appraising our current practice and moving on when new methods are demonstrated to be of proven worth. In our hands is the preparation of citizens of the future. These young people will need skills and knowledge and an awareness of how to use technology to enhance the lives of all members of the community if these new technologies are not to become the exclusive preserve of the computer buffs and the wealthy. The creation at this conference of the BERA task group on teaching and learning with new technologies may provide a base for the development of this new pedagogic knowledge and practice.

DEFINITIONS

To take part in the debate about new technologies, there are a number of terms which you need to understand. The two particularly relevant to the paper are multimedia and the information superhighway and they are defined here:

**Multimedia** is defined by the National Council for Educational Technology (1995a) as 'the mixing of words, pictures, motion video, sound, animation and photographic images on a computer'. Multimedia packages are commonly available on CD-Roms and CD-Is. Videodiscs are an older version of this technology. Sites on the Internet may provide multimedia packages which can be downloaded.

The **Information Superhighway** is a term which encompasses all forms of computer mediated communication (e.g. video conferencing, e-mail, world wide web, multimedia), many of which have been available for some time but in less developed forms. The linking of computers world-wide through the Internet is the development which draws all these technologies together to form a world-wide resource which can be easily and cheaply accessed by the man or woman in the street. The Internet is formed through the electronic linking of various computers around the world so that the material held on their hard discs can be accessed freely or for a charge. The speed of access depends on the type of connection. Systems using normal telephone lines (narrowband) are much slower than those that are linked with cable (broadband). ISDN links are intermediate band (Department for Education, 1995).


WHY SHOULD EDUCATIONALISTS TAKE THE INFORMATION SUPER HIGHWAY SERIOUSLY?

There has been considerable fanfare over the years as technology has developed. But videos, videodiscs, computers and even televisions have not really changed methods of teaching. Indeed, realising the potential of the resources available through the information superhighway will require huge financial investment and so again, while much is promised educators, little may be realised. There are, however, compelling reasons for thinking that fundamental changes in teaching and learning may occur. In this section, just some of these reasons are discussed.

Building the future

'Internet utopians see the development networks as a space which will one day contain the sum total of human intellectual endeavour and experience.' (John, 1995, p.2)

This is an astounding claim and one which places the potential of the Information Super Highway in a different league from the technological development which has gone before. The size of this archive of human knowledge is limited only by the combined disc size of connected computers. But it's an unstable and anarchic archive. What is in the archive today may be gone tomorrow. Unlike traditional archives which are carefully looked after and to which access is granted by application to the guardian, there are no guardians of the Internet. Individual sites will have guardians of sorts but no individuals have the overall responsibility of guardianship. Nevertheless, this claim for the potential of the Internet is being repeated in many quarters and it is true that the volume of information which can be accessed on the Internet is theoretically unlimited. Currently, the quality of this information is in many cases poor and its origin and the motivations of those providing the information are in many cases hidden. Until existing copyright and intellectual ownership regulations
are reformed so that the originators of this copyright allow their materials to be available on the
Internet then this ultimate potential will not begin to be realised.

It is not uncommon for those commenting on the impact of new technologies to say that teachers will
become redundant but teaching is just one area of work which is being affected - libraries, the
publishing business, and the way many people learn and access and hold information in homes, the
public service sector and businesses is changing. Education, according to Bates (1995, p.3), is
lagging behind. In his evaluation of DELTA, a European Union Telematics Project, Bates makes the
point that:

"...there is a lot of potential for further growth (in distance learning and multimedia) provided
that flexible learning approaches become even more responsive and tailored to customer needs.
Developments in this area should be demand-driven and not supplier-led, which it (was)
considered had been the cause of failures in the past. Regrettably, most European education
institutions have so far largely abstained form these developments. Partly this attitude relates to
unsuccessful experiences; more often it has to do with ignorance about the many new learning
opportunities available, which are increasingly cost-efficient and effective. Development of
flexible learning also requires skills and infrastructure which traditional universities do not
possess."

The European Union is pouring millions of ECU's into Telematics (i.e. new technologies) projects and
there is a question over whether educationalists are taking full advantage of this commitment to
investigate the potential for improved practices.

Quality and Commercial Interests

Much of the information available on the Net and on multimedia packages is of low quality. Anyone
can put information on the Net. Controls on what is available are, it is probably fair to say, weak.
Whilst some owners of computers linked to the Net are selective about what they make available,
others are not. Space on hard discs connected to the Net is simply sold as a commodity. This poses
questions about what learners learn, how teachers guide the learners use of the Internet and what
material educators put on the Internet. Perhaps we should ensure that high quality resources are
available.

At a recent conference arranged by the Australian Government with the aim of stimulating the
multimedia industry, a spokesperson for a major American supplier of multimedia titles made it quite
clear that profit, not educational value, was the prime motive driving his selection of multimedia titles
for marketing. He pointed out that if his product is placed at supermarket checkouts he can count on
getting about 15 seconds of the consumer's attention. In this time his product has to sell itself.
Educational considerations did not come into his balance sheet. Educationalists need to consider the
role of the education system in equipping consumers with the knowledge required to discriminate
between rival products.

Passivity and a lack of critical appraisal in the use of new technologies

Galligan (1992, p.1) among others, warns that teachers run the risk of falling into the trap of non-
critical use of new technologies.

"In my visits to classrooms where computer use is integrated into education programmes, I find a
faltering of the critical spirit with respect to software and computer mediated information. If our
classrooms lack a critical perspective in this area, it suggests to me that students and teachers are
being socialised to accept unquestionably the type, structure and products of computer software
and hardware - to be docile consumers of the high tech products. The causes of this appear to be
multifaceted - everything from appeasement of the feared new god, the equation of social progress
and technological progress and at times a kind of Emperor's new clothes syndrome. What
surprises me most is the failure of teachers' skills in the critical analysis and evaluation of
educational resources to transfer to the new technologically rich context. One does not have to be
a juddite to question. As Barb Garson puts it in The Electronic Sweatshop, you don't have to
be against electricity to differentiate between and electric light and an electric chair. The failure
to look critically at the structure and content of educational software may also mean we are
wasting the potential of computers to facilitate divergent or new ways of thinking."
Teachers using new technologies for teaching and learning may gain from knowing the strategies used by media studies teachers to develop students critical appraisal skills.

Developing new practice

New technologies are not always used appropriately to replace existing teaching methods.

"Early adopters of new technologies such as the World Wide Web have a tendency to 're-purpose' existing media so that it appears that they are doing something innovative, and that somehow, in leading the rush to develop and use these technologies they are magically improving the quality of teaching and learning in the process. Closer inspection of these innovations however, often reveals nothing more than an electronic textbook whose hypertext/hypermedia links do no more for the learning than turning the pages of a book or turning a videotape player on and pressing play'."

(Alexander, S. quoted in Points of View, 1995, p.1)

The work described by Ellis (1994), where a university invests substantially in the development of computer-based learning materials in areas where there are significant benefits for learning and significant returns on the necessary investment, must eventually be replicated across the board. Programmes designed to allow the individual learner to master skills and knowledge at their own pace can be used for obvious benefit. The conceptual models of the computer as teacher and teacher’s aide which Ellis and his team use in designing computer-based learning programmes are described in a later section. In the UK, the dissemination of the findings of the Teaching and Learning Technology Programme (TLTP) and the Computers in Teaching Initiative (CTI) should prompt developments in this field.

In schools, the outcomes of the Integrated Learning System’s (ILS) pilot evaluation (NCET, 1994) showed there are gains and losses in the use of ILS in schools. How such gains and losses change when pupils use the open ended Internet to support their learning remains to be seen: the list may provide a baseline for further work on the new technologies. Table 1 shows the positive and negative outcomes recorded. Significant learning gains were also recorded with higher-ability students making the greatest gains and lower-ability students making the smallest gains. However the report suggests that as these gains had to be related to starting levels the results were inconclusive. There seemed to be ‘no significant differences in performance gains recorded between the genders’ p.21).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Outcomes of the use of Integrated Learning Systems (ILS) in pilot schools</th>
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<td>...the positive outcomes of ILS use were listed as:</td>
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<tr>
<td>- improved concentration</td>
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<tr>
<td>- improved spelling and reading skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- increased confidence and pride in work</td>
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<tr>
<td>- higher work rates</td>
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<tr>
<td>- sustained motivation</td>
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<tr>
<td>- the facility for students to work at their own pace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- differentiated work programmes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Negative outcomes included:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- demotivation</td>
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<tr>
<td>- repetition of favoured programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- boredom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- over-use of guessing techniques</td>
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<tr>
<td>- loss of interest</td>
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<td>- failure to attempt all questions in a module.</td>
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(NCET, 1994, p.19)
Hargreaves (1994) sees advantages for disaffected learners and their teachers:

“The educational potential of the new information technologies especially in interactive forms, is considerable, but has yet to be realised. This potential lies particularly in its capacity to motivate young people, to make learning more enjoyable and less judgmental. Teachers make poor entertainers of bored and reluctant students. There are severe limits to the capacity of classroom teachers to motivate that substantial minority of young people with little commitment to conventional schooling, who develop a sense of failure and resentment, whose achievement levels are worryingly low and who are destined to be an unemployable and alienated under-class. The challenge they post should be a general driver, but recent reforms, such as the National Curriculum do little for this group. If a fraction of the time and money of the multi-million pounds computer games industry were devoted to education rather than leisure, we might, under certain conditions, retain these young people’s commitment and esteem.” pp. 0-41.

Exclusivity and divisiveness


Gender

Gender issues such as the tendency of new technologies to become ‘toys for the boys’ must be addressed. Galligan (1992, p.2) makes the point that “the (gender) bias goes beyond inappropriate language to include motivational techniques and structure which are gender exclusive...”

Access

Unless community access points are easily available, access to the information superhighway may be restricted to a select stratum of society. There are a number of experiments in community developments in different countries and the outcomes of these should help shape a future where access is open to all.

On the plus side, the advantages for physically impaired learners are significant - library access and opportunities for interpersonal communication are just two ways in which new technologies may advantage them. Teachers too, with physical impairment can find their access to students extended through the use of video conferencing.

One special school with whom we have been working has reported on the motivational effect of using e-mail just within the school. Pupils apparently enjoy using the medium more than using pencil and paper. Whether this effect will be sustained through the years when the newness of the technology wears off, remains to be seen. I have not yet come across any evidence about access issues for members of the community with specific learning difficulties - particularly those related to sequencing. Nor have I come across data related to the impact of new technologies in the classroom for the significant minority who have trouble reading. The condition of technophobia too may warrant investigation.

Cultural imperialism

Because the USA is the largest market for products using new technologies, it provides a magnet for manufacturers and many new products are designed to meet the needs of that market. This can mean that American values and perspectives predominate when materials are designed.

Cost benefit and cost effectiveness

Cost benefit analysis is surely warranted before resources are diverted to all educational institutions. In the UK, we must seriously question whether we have had and will have value for money from such investments if resources are spread across the whole age range and the whole range of educational institutions. Class sizes are growing with some primary classes apparently in the forties. New (and
old) technologies require considerable investment and the value they add to an educational experience must be carefully considered.

It may be appropriate for investment in computer-based learning systems to be carefully targeted on particular age groups.

In many primary classrooms today, children are still being introduced to computers through the BBC. Whilst these machines broke new ground, and were useful in the eighties, they are not now the most appropriate machines for anyone to learn on - particularly young learners. The limitations of this old technology may turn learners off.

 Provision of new courses

Those academics who believe they have a responsibility to devise courses which provide skills appropriate to those needed by society are now developing new courses mostly for undergraduates or postgraduates. But it is not only students who need access to relevant courses. The current work force also need to be provided with opportunities for developing skills appropriate to new circumstances. The 'generic competency set for Information Systems in the Information Age' which the P-E Centre for Management Research (1995, p9) introduces as part of its IT Management Programme illustrates the kinds of skills in flexible thinking and problem solving that it is thought information systems professionals require in the current age.

TEACHING AND LEARNING FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

The technologies we are now dealing with are extensions of technologies which have been available in many forms for years (video, audio, computer technologies) and the understanding developed through earlier work on computer-based education and media studies provides a springboard for work which analyses how new technologies can aid teaching and learning. What is different now is the scale of interconnections world wide between computers and the fact that these interconnections are cheap - the cost of a phone call from the user to their nearest computer centre offering the service. The scope and the ease of access is what is pushing computer-based learning beyond what has previously been accomplished using local networks and individual software packages.

New technologies offer:

• resource-based learning - information retrieval on a scale which is unimaginable;
• partnerships with experts;
• networking with individuals and institutions around the world;
• virtual environments;
• access to services (banking, shopping, advice, information);
• open access to information held on all linked computers, is available to individuals or groups without local or national censorship and controls operating. This leads on to
• opportunities for citizens to bypass official channels of communication. For example, when an American pilot was downed in Bosnia recently, one of the airmen who participated in the rescue apparently broadcast sensitive facts about strategy over the Internet.

The Role of the Teacher

How do the new technologies affect the role of the teacher? The vision of the teacherless learner sitting in front of a computer screen has been with us for some time. And computer-based learning packages clearly have a role to play in reinforcing learning (NCET, 1994; Ellis, 1994) e.g. allowing the practice of various subject-based skills, relieving teachers of repetitious teaching, allowing students to monitor and control their own progress. The Internet by allowing for networking across cultures or within the same country as well as access to a huge resource base extends the potential of computer-based learning. Ellis (1994) provides an interesting range of conceptual models which
describe the way that computer is currently used to contribute to teaching and student learning at the Queensland University of Technology (QUT). He describes these models as:

"The computer as Socratic teacher ... the student uses resources to develop an informed response to adroit questions on the computer screen...

The computer as an unintelligent entity..." using the "processing ability and an essentially limitless capacity of recall" for example in simulations,

"Computer-based education as a workhorse" - delivering materials 'where they can be used by students with minimum attendance by staff and where the learning outcome desired fits computer delivery well...

The computer as learning catalyst...providing both guidance and a structured experience that aids students in using texts and other learning resources effectively." (p.2)

At QUT in 1994, the computer-based education section was delivering around ‘100,000 hours of interactive computer-based learning material annually, with a growth of 30 - 35% per annum in this figure. The Section has approximately thirty people involved in management, administration, delivery systems and courseware development.' (Ellis, 1994, p.1). Those in the UK who are finding that they are teaching classes in increasing size will find the approach taken at QUT and other universities with similar resources worth noting.

If computers are used to reinforce the role of the teacher in instilling basic skills and checking understanding, then this should in theory free up teacher time so that the teacher can facilitate, work with individuals more closely as well as have more time for all the other aspects of the role. According to Vygotsky’s learning theories (zone of proximal development) this closer interaction between pupil and teacher should lead to learning gains. However, it may be instead that teaching posts are reduced or the work load extended so much that such gains are lost.

In planning work with students which uses new technologies, teachers will apply similar principles to those they use when planning if they are supporters of active learning (National Commission on Education, 1993, pp. 95-96)- situations where students have the opportunities for: group problem solving, team work, peer tutoring, planning, implementing, evaluating, reporting. Depending on the required outcomes, students can work appropriately in a range of groupings from individuals to teams where members are allocated different responsibilities.

Skills

Specific skills are needed if learners are to learn well in the technological environment. There are clearly skills in using the technology which have to be learned. An anomaly in the UK appears to be the lack of awareness of the usefulness of typing skills to computer users. Computers were introduced into primary school in the UK in the early eighties. Yet there appears to have been little concerted effort to provide all pupils from an early age with keyboard skills. Why? The time any one individual wastes in typing with two fingers for the whole of their life must warrant an investment of teaching time in their early years. Recent advances in the quality and low cost of equipment available on the home market make the advantages of developing keyboard skills in young people even more pressing.

Critical evaluation

As well as these basic skills, students need to be able to critically appraise the information they are receiving. Galligan (1992, p.2) highlights the need to develop critical faculties in the learner. She lists these skills as a number of processes:

"The critical evaluation and interpretation of computer mediated information involves a range of processes (that):

- identify and consider the values embedded in software;
- assess the effect of the structure of software on meaning;
evaluate computer mediated information for bias, accuracy, credibility and underlying assumptions;

recognise the ability of software to amplify, ignore, simplify or reduce aspects of real life;

appreciate the aesthetics of computer mediated images, text and sound, and

discriminate between information and ideas, quantity and quality of information."

These skills apply also to the use of the information superhighway and, in intent, they are similar to the objectives of media studies teachers (Kivi, 1994).

Research skills

Research skills do take on a different form when students are accessing texts through electronic libraries. A time can be envisaged when every text printed could be available to anyone with access to the Internet and the money to pay what ever is required to gain access to the material. Certainly the argument about guaranteed access to resources balances the argument about being able to hold the whole text at once. Few libraries have ever been able to cope with high student demand for key texts - texts which may only be needed for short periods but needed by large numbers of students. Electronic libraries offer a solution which appears to enhance student access to texts.

The work of Arnold (undated) and Wu (et al) in evaluating student response to a pilot scheme for an electronic library at De Montfort University Milton Keynes raises some interesting points.

"The studies to date have produced preliminary yet interesting results which offer a mixture of encouragement and disappointment. We know that the electronic library 'works' in a technical sense, and are heartened by the positive attitude expressed by students to the general concept. Yet it seems that in order for students to use electronic texts in preference to the printed version, there has to be some 'value added'. The major factor here has to be accessibility: when the electronic library is developed to the stage where it holds all high demand and otherwise unobtainable material, when students are able to access it from their study bedrooms or workstations elsewhere on campus at any time of day or night, and when they are able to manipulate specially designed electronic course materials in a way that was never available to them before, the benefits of the electronic environment will become clear to them." Arnold (undated, p.8)

Wu et al (p.8) noted that,"it is quicker (for a student) to search and find a known book from the Electronic Library than the conventional library but it is slower to find an answer from the electronic book than the printed book once the books are retrieved."

Further work is taking place on these issues. The findings from work on student use of electronic texts may well be transferable to an analysis of student use of information found on the Internet.

Thinking skills

"Effective learning requires the development of thinking skills. Teachers need to create situations and tasks which encourage pupils to think hard in order to make progress." (National Commission on Education, 1993, p.85)

The place of thinking skills in the curriculum is widely acknowledged and the following extract gives an indication of the value some countries are placing on these.

"Singapore's education system will move away from the current emphasis on mastery of content to one that will give students more opportunities to acquire thinking and learning skills...The shift towards thinking and learning skills will prepare students of a world of intense global economic competition and rapid changes in technology... knowledge and skills will become obsolete faster than ever before." (The Straits Times, 1995, p.1)

To what extent then can new technologies be used to develop thinking skills? Galligan (1992, p.8) suggests opportunities for 'reflection to facilitate metacognition and linking computer-based and off the computer activities and experience are required if skills developed using computers are to be transferred to other contexts.' If higher order thinking is to be developed in students through the use
of the new technologies then careful planning is essential. Some current critics of Integrated Learning Systems suggest that it is too easy for learners to ‘play’ and to avoid supervision as they appear to be on task.

Learning theories and the new technologies

This section is not comprehensive because the work is ongoing.

Active learning and new technologies

Integrating active learning approaches into teaching programmes is widely held to provide positive benefits for the learner. Capel, Leask and Turner, (1995) identify aspects of active learning which include: meaningful learning, giving a sense of ownership, personal involvement in learning, valuing of student ideas, problem solving, to question, incorporation of talk and debate, resource-based learning, self-discipline needed by learner, collaboration with other learners, some negotiation over content. Teaching sessions using the Internet and/or multimedia can be structured around objectives related to these aspects. The Principles of Effective Learning and Teaching identified by the Queensland Education Department (1994) can similarly be satisfied in lessons using the new technologies as long as planning is thorough. Kwok-Ling (1995) warns that teachers must make sure that collaborative learning with the Internet must go beyond pen pal activities, collaborative tasks must be built into the learning process. Research projects should require active interaction with data collected through the Internet (e.g. collecting and analysing statistical data). On the issue of relevance of learning material, Brown (1995, p. 9) points out that ‘computer-mediated communication allows pupils to work with real data and to consider real problems and global issues.’

Cognitive conflict

Kwok-Ling (1995, p. 17) tackles the issue of cognitive conflict and learning. He suggests that interschool collaboration (such as is available through the Internet) helps set up the cognitive conflicts needed to deepen the understanding of the students of the tasks in hand. Collaboration helps build a learning community.” The situation reported recently where, 50 years after the dropping of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima, pupils in Japan exchanged, through the Internet, views with pupils in Western countries, seems to be one where cognitive conflict may have been set up.

Constructivism

Walker and Lambert (1995) have undertaken an interesting experiment in designing a course on cognitive psychology in which constructivist principles are applied to the use of new technologies. In their view, constructivists would claim that:

“meaningful learning needs to be self-directed and activity oriented, and to involve authentic real life problems and issues. (Constructivists) consider that student control of learning is intrinsically motivating and promotes deeper levels of task engagement, and that activity, inquiry or problem oriented classrooms and curricula, allow students to construct meaning and expand their experiential worlds. From this perspective, the teachers’ role is to facilitate student learning through the provision of high quality educational experiences and resources...the teachers’ role in the constructivist classroom may be considered as more active, diagnostic and interventionist. (p. 4)

To achieve their aims, the course learning environment includes the following:

- hypertext database;
- collaborative learning environment;
- electronic links to educational resources on the Internet;
- e-mail links (staff/students);
- Lectures and tutorials are also included.
Teacher choices in the creation of the learning environment

Clearly the construction of the learning environment is crucial if planned learning outcomes are to be achieved. Structures enabling problem solving, group work, planning research, analysis and reporting skills are likely to produce positive learning outcomes. Approaches to learning which can be adapted to a teaching environment using the new technologies include:

- independent learning;
- individual learning;
- pupil centred learning;
- enquiry, active or experiential learning;
- supported self-study;
- group, co-operative or collaborative learning.

Knowledge of existing approaches should not limit teachers in their development of new paradigms. There is, of course, poor practice which it would be easy to emulate. It is not unheard of for teachers to use videos as a ‘time filler’ when they are unable to take lessons. It would be all too easy for this to happen with poorly managed situations where various new technologies were available.

Lifelong learning

New paradigms for learning need to be developed and evaluated. (Bates, 1995, p.39). The evaluation of the European Union DELTA programme (Bates, 1995, p.1) makes the following point about what has to be done to realise the aims of the European Union 1994 White Paper on “Growth, competitiveness and employment: the challenges and ways for entering into the 21st century:

“The White Paper considered that education and training have a key role to play in stimulating growth and restoring competitiveness. But in a society based far more on the production, transfer and sharing of knowledge than on trade in goods, access to theoretical and practical knowledge must necessarily play a major role. As 80% of the European labour force of the year 2000 are already now in the labour market, all measures must be based on developing systematic lifelong learning and continuing training. This will involve more flexible and more open systems of training, including the use of new decentralised multi-media training tools.” This stress on lifelong learning is echoed in the UK National Targets for Education and Training (National Advisory Council for Education and Training Targets, 1994) where Lifelong Learning targets are identified and goals set for the end of the century.

LIMITATIONS AND PROBLEMS TO BE OVERCOME

Management: the national issue

We have a history of a piecemeal approach to development (Goddard and Leask, 1992) and the work in the area of new technologies appears to be being handled in the same way. John (1995) talks of ‘a tragic lack of leadership at national level’. Apart from the various projects funded by industry (NCET, 1995) the Department of Trade and Industry and the Department for Education and Employment are each organising different projects as is the Welsh Office. The National Commission on Education (1993, p.84) made the following comment about the British approach to managing technological change:

“Looking ... at education and training, it is our conclusion that events are following a familiar British pattern. There is much excellent pioneering work going on both in trying out new approaches to learning and in applying new technology - which usually means information technology - but arrangements to bring new methods into general use are deficient. And yet that last step is crucial for the future and should be receiving high priority.”
Management: the institutional issue

Development planning is a well established approach to the management of change (Hargreaves et al, 1989, Hargreaves and Hopkins, 1991) and the process clearly needs to be applied to the management of the introduction and use of the Information Superhighway in schools.

Schools need to:

- establish procedures for access by pupils;
- establish procedures for monitoring pupil use;
- decide on appropriate siting of user points so that the technology is not colonised by one particular interest group;
- train staff;
- develop staff pedagogic knowledge about the most effective deployment of the resource so that it enhances teaching and learning;
- monitor cost-benefit issues;
- consider how best to deal with the issues related to gender, bias, quality and critical evaluation as discussed above.

Institutions of higher education have an additional issue to face as their students are not closely supervised in the way that school pupils can be. The unauthorised interference with systems by students has clearly to be monitored. The various legal cases pending in different countries indicate that institutions need to have procedures in place for controlling and monitoring student access.

Management: the classroom issue

The use of the Internet in the classroom poses a number of challenges. In secondary schools, if it is used for resource-based learning then secondary pupils will almost inevitably need longer than the traditional teaching periods of around an hour to achieve useful results even if the teacher directs their search. The problem of access to sites not being guaranteed and being difficult at certain times of day causes difficulty for the teacher in planning a coherent programme of work. Downloading files from different sites is one solution which some teachers propose but is there something intrinsically motivating for a learner to have access to an open-ended resource?

Attitudes and Censorship: There is concern among educationalists about the access young people have on the Internet to information which is considered inappropriate for them and/or which is provided by unreliable sources. In considering this, we should not blind ourselves to the ease with which pornographic material is on display in our own society. Concern is expressed about other unsuitable material of a racist, Fascist, anarchist nature and clearly the situation needs to be monitored (Eatwell, 1995, p.23). It is possible to block access to certain sites and those concerned about this aspect of the Internet should seek the advice of the provider of their Internet link. The experience I have had to date suggests that it takes users some time to access, through menus, inappropriate sources and this is most likely to happen where unrestricted access is allowed - this is most likely to occur in universities and in the home, rather than in classroom or school club situations where adults are usually present. The downloading of information from sites and its subsequent passing from pupil to pupil is to be anticipated.

A recent survey (Bell, 1994) of 11,500 consumers in the UK/France/Germany and Italy showed little demand for cable TV, video-on-demand, CD roms and shopping from home. She says that “For computer owners, the most attractive services are educational, with study aids and access to reference works or on-line information scoring highly”(p. 2). However, an analysis of the most popular subject areas on the Web site for Internet magazine does not appear to back up this claim. The claim was
made that the 'Adult' subject area was accessed 8912 times over the period (which wasn't stated) and the 'Education' site was accessed 336 times (Internet editorial, 1995, p.3).

There is nothing to be gained from hiding our heads in the sand. We must face the fact that young people whose homes and schools are connected to the Net now have easy access to material that the censors in the UK would consider unsuitable. We probably should take steps to help them develop ways of dealing with the material to which they are likely to be exposed - by chance, by friends, by those wishing to shock them. The Chinese have responded to this problem of pornographic and other unsuitable materials on the Internet by launching China Internet (The Guardian, Monday 4 September 1995: Internet, September 1995, p.8). This is guaranteed to be free of pornography and is to be developed principally for business use. Whether they will successful in this venture remains to be seen.

Plagiarism takes on new dimensions as students can now download materials from CD-roms or the Internet. The temptation is there for students at all levels. Previously students have had to type up any sections they were plagiarising - at least there was some cognitive interaction with the material. Now sections of text can be selected and dropped in to an essay without very much cognitive processing of the information being necessary. I have come across a case of this at first year undergraduate level. The change of writing style between the student's work and the text they had downloaded from a scientific encyclopaedia was easy to pick and the student admitted what had been done. I suspect all cases will not be so easy to detect.

Access

Class, gender and equity issues related to access have been covered earlier as have positive advantages for physically disabled people. Unauthorised access has also been discussed.

There is an additional problem with the Internet: popular sites can be difficult to access during the working day of North Americans and this is whilst home, business and educational use in the UK and other countries is still at a relatively low level.

Cost benefit

The cost issue is difficult to untangle. There are the optimists who think that we will get free local phone calls in the UK before long. This would remove a major concern about access to the Internet - the fact that in a period of tight financial constraint, an institution may be committing itself to paying virtually unlimited telephone bills. There are a whole range of variables affecting costs: the number of links, the type of link (cable, ISDN etc), the locality of the nearest server as well as hardware costs. These could be balanced by less expenditure on other items. Moore (1995, p.10) suggests that libraries will be able to cut expenditure on CD roms and newspapers. And there is a whole range of information available on the Internet which can be downloaded free of charge. The magazines listed in appendix A provide access to lists of providers of information.

Tweddle (1995, p.22) in describing the well equipped 'Classroom of Tomorrow' project which she visited in Nashville (USA) makes the point that "one of the consequences of having sufficient technology is that it becomes as invisible as other technologies pupils use in their learning. Computers being unemployed at any one time is no more reprehensible than not using books or art materials all day long."

It is not just institutions which currently find the cost of connection and use a high price. Home connections too will be limited by ability to pay for extended use of the phone and additional lines.

CONCLUSIONS

An alternative title for this paper started to emerge as I worked on it.

The Information Superhighway - seductive but non-productive?

I spend hours on the Internet, my research assistant gave up researching the area through the traditional form of the literature search - journals and texts and went surfing. What did we really
achieve? I've read a lot of menus. I've ended up in a lot of dead ends. I've come across a lot of pages in preparation. I've not found much of help to me but I suppose I'm not looking in the right places. As we work systematically with schools and within our own institution to identify the appropriate mechanisms for incorporating the opportunities offered by the information superhighway to teaching and learning, I anticipate that we will be able to produce guidelines for the effective use of the new technologies in a range of subject areas.

If educationalists do not take on the challenge of the new technologies, then the potential of the information superhighway may be a long time in the realisation. Teachers in schools may look back on this period as just another when technology was seen to promise much and deliver little.

It would be nice to think that for once in England and Wales, careful evaluation of the effectiveness of the twenty or so projects in the area would be carried out before too much resource is invested and too many teachers are turned off because of lack of support and poor technology.

Those in Higher Education, lecturers and students, have much more flexibility over the use of time and the incorporation of new technologies in teaching and learning may be easier if only because of the flexibility over course delivery and assessment which universities have when compared with schools - perhaps educationalists in universities should be taking the lead.


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NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY (1995b) *Communications Projects*, mimeo, NCET Milburn Hill Road, Science Park, Coventry CV4 7JJ.

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY (1994) *Integrated Learning Systems: a report of the pilot evaluation of ILS in the UK*, NCET Milburn Hill Road, Science Park, Coventry CV4 7JJ.


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Paper 31


Your wider role within the school

Chapter 8

with Terrell, I. and Stephenson, J.

in Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.

Starting to Teach in the Secondary School

London, Routledge
Your wider role within the school

INTRODUCTION

In joining a school, you become a member of a group of professionals who are responsible for the whole educational experience of the pupils in their care. Hence your responsibilities are not limited to what happens in your own classroom. In this chapter, we include information about your wider role within the school. This includes the management and committee structures within the school; your relationships to parents, governors, Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) inspectors, as well as ways in which you may be asked to contribute to school development.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter you should:

- understand how the main management and decision making structures in your school work;
- understand how change and policy development take place;
- be clear about your responsibilities to parents, governors, OFSTED;
- have an understanding of your basic legal responsibilities.

MANAGEMENT STRUCTURES, DECISION MAKING AND COMMUNICATION

There are many different types of management structure in secondary schools. Collecting details of the structure in which you are working helps you understand how decisions are made and communicated in the school. More specifically you need to understand your relationship with committees and the decisions that they make. You are accountable for carrying through decisions made by different groups and in time, you will become fully involved in influencing decision making.

The school handbook may be a good starting point for looking at management structures and procedures used for decision making. This document gives you the formal and official view of what management structures exist. The way the school describes its management structures tells you a lot about a number of issues such as:

Who is responsible for what.
Who is accountable for what.
How decisions are made and who is involved.
The extent to which staff, pupils and parents are able to influence decision making.
The balance between maintaining what the school is doing now and plans for development.

How the different groups or teams of staff communicate with each other.

TASK 8.1 THE MANAGEMENT AND STAFFING STRUCTURE OF YOUR SCHOOL

Obtain a chart of the management and staffing structure of your school, or if there is not one, draw your own chart of the line management. Put names to each position on the chart. Find out in more detail how the academic, pastoral, and vocational elements of work in your school are organized and whom you should talk to about pupils' academic, pastoral, or vocational problems. Look at your role and write down the different people that you report to in meeting the requirements of your subject and/or pastoral roles. Add this information to your portfolio.

While the formal and official management structure tells you a great deal, there is in any organisation a great deal of room for informal and micro-political decision making around the formal structure. You need to observe and consider this phenomenon. A teacher of considerable experience once commented that he never knew how the school organisation really operated until he went to the pub with the staff after a parents' evening and realised that all the important opinions were formed and decisions were taken there. You may like to consider the following questions about how the informal groupings operate in your school.

What are the major informal groups of staff in the school?
Who are the leaders of these groups?
What are the norms and values of each group, i.e. what do they meet for?
To what extent do the groups exert power?

SOME EXAMPLES OF MANAGEMENT STRUCTURES

Figures 8.1, 8.2, 8.3 are examples of management structures. To understand these diagrams you may need to become familiar with the different terminologies and activities of the groups. See pp. 124-5 for a brief description.
Figure 8.1 Management structures: an example

Figure 8.2 Groups in school

HOF - heads of faculty
HOY - heads of year
MSG - management staff group
TEXT BOUND INTO
THE SPINE
Steering may be produced at a meeting of heads of faculties.

A, a J ~ ic leaders under a faculty are usually on at least one development group.

Pastoral Structure Secondary schools have developed a 'Pastoral System' to cater for the welfare, behaviour, and personal and social development of pupils. This is often organised under either a Year or House system (see Chapter 4 on the pastoral role).

Many schools have taken steps to break down the so-called pastoral-academic divide, the division of responsibilities between the care, welfare and behaviour of pupils and their academic progression. Often this takes the form of departments and faculties taking responsibility for both the academic progression and the personal and social development of each individual pupil.

Year Heads and tutors Year Heads where these exist, take responsibility for the welfare and development of pupils in a particular year. Each pupil belongs to a registration group called a form group, tutor group, or sometimes, a house group. This group is attached to a tutor, who is responsible for registration and welfare. You are likely to be such a tutor.

Occasionally you may find that year groups are further grouped under a 'Head of Lower (or Upper) School': years 7-9 forming the Lower Schools and years 10-11 and 12-13, the Upper School. Some schools with Year Head systems may also have house systems for competitions and sport.

House systems Pupils are organised into 'houses' irrespective of year group. They may be then subdivided into year house groups. Houses contain pupils from different age groups and may contain several pupils from the same family. Staff are usually attached to houses.

Chapter 4 provides more detail about pastoral systems.

Whole School Development Groups and the formation of school policy The school may have a number of groups working on school development issues. These tend to be less permanent structures but are no less important. They normally report to the Senior Management Team. The groups may be formed by invitation, co-option or of volunteers. It is not unusual to expect all staff to be on at least one development group.

Each group has a brief to which to work. They may plan development and may organise in-service training for the whole staff. The activities of each group may be communicated through staff meetings, notice boards and school bulletins. Draft policies may be produced by a group but these would usually be debated by the whole staff. More detail on the development planning process is included later in this chapter.

OTHER GROUPS

Staff meetings Staff meetings may be organised to provide opportunities for staff discussion and debate or for information to be conveyed by decision making groups. They
may be formal or informal occasions, chaired or led by staff or by members of the Senior Management Team. You need to know what the purpose role and function of staff meetings are and whether attendance is obligatory or voluntary (you will probably be expected to attend in either case). In Figure 8.2, for example, there is a ‘staff forum’ which is voluntary. Chapter 9 contains further information about staff meetings.

Staff Association Many schools have a staff association whose function is to organise social functions, end of term farewells to staff who are leaving and sometimes break time refreshments.

The Parent Teacher Association (PTA) Many schools have a parent-teacher association. Usually their primary function is fund raising and the money raised is often spent on resources in response to bids from departments. This fund raising provides vital support for many school activities. Joint work with parents at fund raising events could help you to become accepted and respected as a member of staff quite quickly although you are advised not to take on too much extra work in your first year. In some schools, the PTA is a forum for discussion between staff and parents on wider issues.

Non-teaching staff groups Figure 8.1 provides a reminder of the groups in school to which non-teaching staff belong. These may include groups for: premises management; administration; social, welfare and health services; technical, media and reprographic support.

DEPARTMENT AND WHOLE SCHOOL PLANNING

The school is much more than a collection of teachers teaching their subject. Each school has an individual ethos and promotes a set of values and staff in each school should have a sense of the direction in which they are developing. This sense of direction for the school is often developed through carefully structured development planning procedures involving the whole staff as appropriate. These procedures provide a framework within which priorities for whole school and/or department development are identified. Table 8.1 sets out the series of questions which may be considered during the development planning process.

It is all too easy to have good ideas about what needs to be done. The difficult part is to see change through — to actually make it happen. Action planning is the process which supports the implementation and evaluation phases of change. In your first year, we would expect you to be taking part in discussions about change but not taking responsibility. However, within a couple of years of starting teaching, you can expect to have more responsibility to implement change. Table 8.2 provides an example of an action planning proforma which shows how the questions in Table 8.1 might be used, by a team, to plan and monitor the action they wish to take.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8.1 A framework for identifying priorities, then planning, implementing and evaluating change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Where are we now? (reflection)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Where do we want to be? (goal setting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 How are we going to get there? (planning)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 How do we know we’ve arrived? (evaluation procedures)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Who is responsible for making sure progress takes place? (implementation procedures)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Where do we go next? (goal setting as the cycle starts again)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Goddard and Leask, 1992

If you are involved in action planning it is important to be realistic about what can be achieved within the time and resources available. It is better to have achieved small goals than to set goals which cannot be achieved and which lead to staff disillusionment. Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991) provide further information about school development planning.

WORKING WITH PARENTS AND GUARDIANS

The term 'parents' is used to include guardians. You need to be aware that in any class, it is likely that some pupils will have one parent and others will have guardians.

Developing your relationship with parents is also part of your wider role within the school. The parent/teacher association has already been mentioned. One of the first things you discover as a NQT is that parents are very different. You never see some parents at all (often to your regret). Others are the salt of the earth — always ready to help and support in any way that is needed. A few you may see too much of. They may turn up at inopportune moments, be aggressive and expect instant answers and redress. We give advice on dealing with these difficult situations later in this chapter. Difficult parents really are a tiny minority.

Your colleagues on the staff will display a range of attitudes towards parents. Some will develop good relationships with parents. Others may be more wary. Whilst these attitudes may be understandable in individual circumstances, they do deprive the teacher of the opportunity to work together with the most significant adults in a child’s life, who very properly have great concern for their offspring’s development.

You can influence the atmosphere of these relationships from the start. Establishing relationships with parents may fill you with some anxiety. After all, your confidence in understanding the psychological make-up of a fourteen year old is probably stronger than your confidence in your skills in handling parents, but the effort can be very rewarding in giving you access to the respect, understanding and invaluable help that parents can provide for your school. But how should you achieve such a partnership? Ask your mentor for advice. We include a few suggestions to help you on your way.
Gaining respect

Never assume because you have been trained that you automatically gain parents' respect. You have to earn it. Most parents are concerned about their own child rather than your class as a whole. They respond positively to someone who cares about pupils as individuals, works hard, has good classroom discipline and who shows a professional attitude. (The importance most parents place on a teacher's ability to keep discipline cannot be over emphasised.) This involves being organised, planning work thoroughly, being concerned that pupils understand, making the time to help those who are struggling or just confused. Pupils in their first year of secondary education particularly need help and support to understand what is required of them.

Parents' first contact with you is probably at a distance, through the eyes of their child. What pupils say about your lessons is important as are the tasks you set pupils to do at home. Your attitudes to these and your performance in marking them are influential in forming parents' opinions of you. Homework can be one of the most effective ways of actively involving parents in your work. For instance, in one geography department described in a recent research project into effective schools (Harris, Jamieson and Russ, 1995) an investigative six-week homework project was set in which many parents became involved. The English department also set up a successful reading partnership between home and school.

**TASK 8.2 INVOLVING PARENTS IN HOMEWORK**

Find out what other teachers in your school do to involve parents in homework. Discuss what was most successful for them and investigate any problems that arose and how they were overcome.

Report writing

Another opportunity for influencing parents' attitudes to you comes through report writing and preparing pupils' profiles and records of achievement. Pupils' verbal reporting of what goes on in the classroom is undoubtedly the main source of parents' knowledge about what is 'going on' but the more formal written communication is vital in keeping the parents informed. We have all read of reports making use of the phrase 'could do better'. As a NQT, you almost certainly have to follow whatever pattern has been established by the senior management at your school. However, you can still make certain that what you write is in plain understandable English, jargon and mistake free, so that your parents at least feel you want them to be aware of how their child is performing, have nothing to hide and that you yourself are concerned and knowledgeable about the progress or lack of it, that their particular child has made. When you make criticisms, give advice about what a pupil needs to do to improve. In time, you can also seek to influence your colleagues within the department if you feel reporting practice could be improved.
they can best help their child. In the early stages of your career, you may need to discuss your responses to such approaches with colleagues. Some parents are afraid of school – they may have had negative experiences themselves. In the past, the adult connected with school who regularly visited parents or pupils in their homes was the then Educational Welfare Officer largely chasing truants. Other agencies were involved peripherally. Now some schools designate staff as ‘home visitor’. You may also come across Educational Social Workers (Chapter 4 provides more details of their role). OFSTED (1993d, p. 22) stress that establishing positive links with parents should be one of a school’s priorities. Where there is a teacher who is a ‘home visitor’ she is responsible for developing a range of strategies to encourage better communication and a climate of trust between the home and school. This work is undertaken in the belief that if a relationship of trust is established already, this provides an effective base of communication about the pupil which enables parents or teachers concerned about a pupil’s progress, well-being or behaviour, to approach the issue openly.

Parents’ evenings
At some point early in your career you will take part in one of the official feedback sessions for parents where their child’s progress is discussed and issues raised. This can take a number of forms from the individual personal interview of indefinite length, to the situation where you sit behind a desk in the hall and parents queue up to consult you about their child. Obviously the way you approach this depends on the programme in your school. However, the ability to convince the parent that you actually know their child as a person should be an aim. This is where your class record book or day book (see Chapter 11) can be invaluable. Usually you list the pupils’ names on the left-hand page of your record book and beside these you enter marks, for homework, tests and classwork as well as attendance. The right-hand page can be used for noting comments about pupils as you observe their work in class. If you fold the page back on itself marks in it, these comments are safe from prying eyes. You may then find that a glance at the comment conjures up a picture of the pupil in your mind. Remember, parents see your record book at parents’ evenings – it is open on the desk between you. If there are few marks in it, you are creating the impression of a careless teacher.

At parents’ evenings where there is little or no privacy, you should try to avoid any discussion which could be argumentative or show any of the people involved in a bad light. Referring difficulties to a more senior member of staff or arranging another appointment in the privacy of a school office may be the most appropriate way to deal with such difficulties.

Remember, parents are as important as pupils; without either of them you would not have a job. Good luck!
TASK 8.5 PREPARING FOR PARENTS' EVENINGS

Ask for guidance on the set up of parents' evenings from your mentor or head of department. Find out the norm and preferred ways of giving information and advice. Ask how problems are dealt with and what support there is in preparing for the meeting and whilst it is taking place. For instance, is there a 'trouble shooter'? Are there any queries which must be passed to senior management? What is the code of conduct? Where you anticipate difficulties or have a pupil who is underachieving, be sure that you know the background of the pupil.

YOUR RELATIONSHIP TO GOVERNORS AND OFSTED STAFF

Governors

You probably met one or more of your school governing body when you were interviewed. This governor may have been a nominated governor (usually by local political parties through the LEA), an elected parent governor or teacher governor, or a co-opted governor chosen to fill perceived gaps in the governing body's expertise. The Head may choose whether to be a governor but has the right to attend all meetings in either case. The minutes of governors' meetings should be available for inspection by any interested parties.

Since the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA, 1988) governors have had an increasingly important role to play in the functioning of a school. Governors have considerable responsibilities, e.g. for school policies, e.g. on sex education, on special educational needs, the curriculum, the budget for appointing staff and for health and safety. Governors often delegate some of these responsibilities to the Head and senior staff. Alongside these responsibilities, they have to maintain relationships with staff, parents, community and the LEA if appropriate. Governors should be your allies in helping you achieve the best possible experience for your pupils. In some schools, governors are kept in touch with what is going on in school by linking each governor to a department or area of interest.

Governors are not paid members of staff, yet they have considerable powers to govern the school. Many are trained for their work and take their role seriously. In some schools, governors may appear to work in the background; at others their influence is to the fore.

After their involvement in your employment, their control over the curriculum is likely to be the major impact they have on your life. The policy decisions made as a result of governors' choices can have a far reaching and basic effect on both teaching and learning in the school. It is therefore important that you as a NQT do not dismiss the governing body and its doings as one of the things you can safely leave on one side during your first years of teaching. Your influence lies in the development of the philosophy and ethos of the school and in the relationships you build with individual governors. The most accessible of these are likely to be the teacher governors who have been elected by staff and who normally serve as do other governors for four years provided they are still employed by the school. They are present at the, at least termly, meetings and are responsible with the other governors for carrying out the duties required of them by the government and the LEA.

Parent governors too are likely to meet you both formally and informally around school but the other members may only be seen by you at school functions, or at consultation meetings. One function of the governors is to regulate the conduct and discipline of staff and to dismiss where necessary. Aspects of governors' roles are covered by regulations and codes of conduct. Your professional body can supply information and advice on request.

OFSTED Inspection

For all teachers, an impending inspection can be threatening. You, as a NQT, may be more used to being under scrutiny than your more experienced colleagues as you have recently been observed and required to justify your actions. Your tutors probably encouraged you to reflect upon and evaluate your practice as a matter of course. The thorough preparation, emphasis on interesting materials and marshalling of resources that stood you in good stead as a student teacher also serves you here. The OFSTED inspector is not out to trick you into making mistakes. You may feel that the snapshot judgment which is all a short inspection can reveal, does not do you full justice, but your lesson planning notes and your record book should demonstrate you have clear objectives, that you are aware of what you are trying to achieve, that the pupils' learning as well as your teaching is at the forefront of your mind and that you can analyse their and your performance realistically. You must be able to justify what you teach and show that you give pupils access to the National Curriculum (see also Chapter 5, pp. 61-2).

SOME POINTS ABOUT YOUR LEGAL RESPONSIBILITIES

As an individual teacher in school you have all the normal common law duties of a citizen and some special obligations which are attached to your contractual and statutory responsibilities and duties as a teacher. Your duties as a citizen require you to act in certain ways to other people. Amongst these is the obligation not to act in a discriminatory manner to anyone merely because of any difference of sex, colour, race, language, religion, political or other opinions, national or social origin, association with a national minority, property, birth or other status (Article 14, European Convention on Human Rights; see also Chapter 7). As a teacher in school this has an immediate relevance to your dealing with pupils and their parents.

Discriminating or demeaning language must not be used in addressing a pupil either in anger or in fun. Avoid sarcasm and preferably, do not scream or shout. Apart from being a counter-productive strategy and a poor way of keeping discipline, such behaviour could
be seen as unreasonable behaviour in terms of the relationship of in loco parentis in which you stand when in charge of a pupil in your school. This gives you similar duties and responsibilities as the natural parent, but does not allow you to chastise the pupil physically since this was made unreasonable behaviour by statute 47 of the 1986 Education (No. 2 Act). Sections S.47 and S.47(1) of this Act describe exceptions to this. It is worth noting that not only is corporal punishment banned but also the formal use of force as a punishment, including slapping with the hand, rough handling, and the throwing of objects. If you do any of these, you lay yourself open to a charge of battery. You should understand no circumstances do anything that could be construed as hitting or using force against a pupil. It is a criminal offence to assault a person. You must avoid physical contact in any way and you should avoid being alone with a pupil (particularly if you are male) as the accusation of sexual misconduct could be made against you.

TASK 8.6 DISCIPLINE
Find out what are the agreed forms of punishment in your school and how they are regulated. Make a note of the usual penalties for lesser ‘offences’ and try to deal with them in a similar way to other staff in the school. Pupils are very resentful of what they see as ‘unfairness’.

When you accepted your job and signed a contract you took on what are termed ‘contractual duties’ which have been negotiated on your behalf with your employer. You can find these in the booklet School Teachers’ Pay and Conditions which is updated annually and available from the DFEE. You may find it useful to obtain a copy if you have not already been given one. In addition to the conditions set out in this document there may be conditions peculiar to your LEA or school. As well as these written rules, there may be specific unwritten expectations on the part of your head or governors. These can include such things as dress, expectations about extra-curricular activities or the like. Your professional body can give you advice on these. Statutory duties are those laid down by the government by legislation. A full version of your statutory duties can be found in the OFSTED Handbook for Inspection (OFSTED, 1995m) or Capel, Leask and Turner (1995, Unit 8.3). Finally, mention should be made of the legislation under the Health and Safety Act. This has wide implications for employers and teachers as employees may find they have certain responsibilities. In general, a head teacher is responsible ultimately for everything that goes on in the school. However, you as an individual, also have personal responsibilities such as reporting accidents and cooperating with your employer’s policies, though the obligation is on your employer to ensure you have a basic training in such things as:

- fire procedures;
- accident reporting procedures;
- risk assessments, e.g. if you are dealing with chemicals;
- first aid and hygiene facilities;
- understanding the possibility of hazards, e.g. with chemicals or machines;
- other emergency procedures.

Make sure you ask about any issues to do with safety about which you are unclear. Table 8.3 points out two of the implications of the Health and Safety at Work Act.

Table 8.3 What are your health and safety duties?

...8 All employees have duties ...to ensure they work in ways which are safe and without risk to health both to themselves, other staff and visitors. They must also cooperate with other people who have health and safety duties, for example by adhering to advice and instructions on health and safety matters from their supervisors and by reporting unsafe practices.
...9 ...where any person commits an offence under health and safety legislation which is due to the act of default of some other person, that other person may be charged with and convicted of the offence.

Source: Extract from the Health and Safety Commission, 1992, p. 1

SUMMARY
As a teacher, you have responsibilities to your pupils and your colleagues as well as to parents and governors. In this chapter, we have highlighted some of these responsibilities. As you gain experience and perhaps further responsibilities you need to study some of these issues in more depth – particularly your legal responsibilities and your responsibilities to governors. The further reading provides guidance for your further professional development in this area.

FURTHER READING
Although this book is based on research with parents of primary pupils, it provides perspectives on home and school which apply across the age range. If you ever wonder why you do not see particular parents or what drives parental choice of schools then this book should be of interest to you.

This text provides information and advice about a wide range of professional issues and certainly addresses the concerns of NQTs. It provides down-to-earth advice and we recommend that you read it – preferably before you start teaching.
Your wider role within the school


GREAT BRITAIN EDUCATION (AMENDMENT) ACT (1986) Chapter 1, London, HMSO.


Paper 32


The information superhighway and teaching and learning

Chapter 14

with Lamb, M. in Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.
Starting to Teach in the Secondary School

London, Routledge
14 The information superhighway and teaching and learning

INTRODUCTION

Not very long ago, and in many parts of the world even today, young people would learn skills they could use in their work throughout life. Today, in industrial countries, most people are doing jobs that did not exist when they were born.

(Papert, 1993a, p. vii)

In deciding what to teach and how to teach it, teachers are inevitably preparing pupils for the unknown - the future. This future is one which the pupils themselves will make by building on the foundations which parents, teachers and society have laid for them.

Current advances in information technologies are likely to bring unimaginable changes in the way we live and work. Papert (1993a, vii) makes the point that 'The most important skill in determining a person's life pattern has already become the ability to learn new skills, to take in new concepts, to assess new situations, to deal with the unexpected. . . . The competitive ability is the ability to learn.' Information technologies have a part to play in preparing pupils for this future.

You have a responsibility to integrate into your teaching the opportunities made available by new information technologies. In using the term information technologies we include both computer-based systems and telecommunications-based systems such as satellite and cable communication systems, telephone, radio and TV broadcasting systems. There is now a wide range of these electronically-based information and communication systems and their applications have hardly been tapped. What is covered in this section applies to the data-base and electronic mail (e-mail) facilities available through the Internet, interactive TV, video-conferencing and associated developments, CD-Is and CD-ROMs. (CD-Is are compact discs similar to music CDs but carrying pictures as well as sound.) More detailed definitions of these terms can be found in the following sections.

Currently there are experiments in electronically networking communities in different parts of the UK and around the world (DFEE, 1995). There are schemes evaluating the impact of equipping pupils with palm top or lap top computers in schools (NCET,
1995b) and schemes evaluating the use of the Internet in schools (Leask, 1995). You can expect to see the findings of such experiments widely disseminated and the resulting new ideas implemented within a short time. Depending on your subject, homework, for example, could be sent electronically to you. Many pupils now are word-processing school assignments and then printing them off to hand in. Those pupils with e-mail facilities at home could easily send this work straight to those of their teachers who are similarly connected. The days of teachers having to carry hundreds of exercise books around could well be numbered — but only if we as teachers grasp the opportunity and find ways to use new information technologies to improve our own ways of working.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should have some idea of:

- ways of using information technologies to complement your teaching;
- how to find out about the use of information technologies in your subject area;
- different forms of learning which can be stimulated through the use of information technologies.

BACKGROUND AND DEFINITIONS

To take part in the debate about new information technologies, there are a number of terms which you need to understand. Those particularly relevant to this section are the information superhighway, the Internet and multimedia. They are defined below:

*The Information Superhighway* is a term that encompasses all forms of information technologies including computer mediated communication and telecommunication based technologies, e.g. Internet, CD-ROMs, interactive TV, video-conferencing, electronic mail. The Internet (the *highway*) is formed through the electronic linking (networking) of various computers around the world so that the material held on their hard discs can be accessed freely or for a charge from any linked point. Information on the system can be held as text, tables, video and still pictures. The material found on the Internet is not vetted by anyone, unlike material found in books.

In the UK, many families may be able to afford the relatively low charges for connection. The costs involved are a small monthly charge and then the cost of a phone call to the nearest Internet linked computer. Thus worldwide access to this resource is available for the price of a local call and a low monthly connection charge. In the future, libraries may provide access points to the Internet for a small charge. This will ensure that the information resource is widely available within the community.

The linked computers (known as servers) are usually owned by private companies or large public organisations (schools, universities). Electronic mail services (e-mail) are
usually provided for subscribers. No one owns the Internet as a whole and no one is in overall control of the information available on the Internet. Access to sites on the Internet can be restricted, but dedicated computer hackers (of all ages!) seem to be able to crack protective systems.

_Multimedia_ is defined by the National Council for Educational Technology (1995a, p. ii) as 'the mixing of words, pictures, motion video, sound, animation and photographic images on a computer'. Multi-media packages are commonly available on CD-ROMs. Videodiscs are an older version of this technology. Sites on the Internet may provide multimedia packages that can be downloaded, i.e. taken from the Internet to your own computer. In some schools, pupils produce their own multimedia compositions including sound and moving pictures as well as text and still pictures. Equipment for this work is now easy to use and pupils can produce interesting visual materials for assignments, to provide records of school trips or productions and so on.

**Developing your own skills**

The extent of the use of information technologies in schools varies enormously. Some schools were equipping their pupils with computer-based skills in the early eighties, some are still allowing their pupils to leave school as computer illiterates. You need to assess you own needs for professional development in this area and perhaps discuss these with your mentor. Over a period of time, build up a bank of ideas and resources on information technologies to support your teaching. As well as drawing on support from staff in your own school, you may find it helpful to contact subject associations, LEA staff (where these exist), the National Council for Educational Technology, higher education institutions. You may find INSET is available.

Familiarity with computer-based equipment comes with experience and you are unlikely to gain this if you are restricted to using such equipment during the school day.

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**TASK 14.1: INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES AND YOUR SUBJECT AREA**

Find out about access to the Internet in your school and the availability of e-mail. Ask about the procedures governing pupil access and for monitoring their use of the resources. Ask about the availability of CD-ROMs and computer software to support your area of the curriculum. The school library or your department may have a budget for buying these resources. Consider using pupils to help you find and evaluate such materials for your teaching programme. Find out if your school has the facilities for multimedia production and see what has been produced so far. Plan to incorporate the resources available into your teaching, over time.
Discuss your needs for further professional development in this area with your mentor or contact the organisations mentioned earlier.

TEACHING AND LEARNING FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

The information technologies we are now dealing with are extensions of information technologies which have been available in many forms for years (video, audio, computer technologies) and the understanding developed through earlier work on computer-based education and media studies provides a springboard for work which analyses how new information technologies can aid teaching and learning. What is different now is the scale and cheapness of interconnections worldwide between computers. The scope and the ease of access are pushing computer-based learning beyond what has previously been accomplished using local networks and individual software packages.

The role of the teacher

How do the new information technologies affect the role of the teacher? The vision of the teacherless learner sitting in front of a computer screen has been with us for some time. Those whose view of teaching is that the pupils passively receive knowledge from the teacher have a limited view of how computer-based systems might be used in the classroom, i.e. for drill and practice routines (but even in the use of these a teacher is required to set pupils work at the appropriate level).

Those who believe that interaction with material is an important part of learning find information technologies offer pupils tremendous opportunities to explore the world and to undertake projects under the teacher's guidance. Daily contact can be made with pupils, schools and communities around the world - joint history, art, science projects can provide immediate insights into the life experiences and environments of others. Experts in different fields can sometimes be contacted. In the introduction, we drew attention to this need for teachers to consider new forms of teaching and learning as society changes (see Holland, 1995).

As always, the role of the teacher is to understand the learner and to construct situations that allow the learner to learn. The computer can act as an aid to certain types of learning but it cannot act independently and spontaneously as a teacher does in guiding pupils onto the next stage of learning. Ideally, computers can be used to reinforce the role of the teacher in instilling basic skills and checking understanding, so that the teacher can work with individuals more closely.

Integrating active learning approaches into teaching programmes is held to provide positive benefits for the learner. Capel, Leask and Turner (1995) identify dimensions of active learning which include: meaningful learning, giving a sense of ownership, personal involvement in learning, valuing of pupil ideas, problem solving, questioning, incorporating talk and debate, resource-based learning, self-discipline needed by learner,
collaboration with other learners, some negotiation over content. Teaching sessions using the Internet and/or multimedia can be structured around these approaches. The learning environment is discussed more fully later in this chapter.

In designing lessons that incorporate pupil use of new information technologies, teachers apply the same principles that they use when planning all lessons. Depending on the required outcomes, pupils may work as individuals, groups or teams and on the same or different tasks.

Pupil learning

New information technologies offer pupils a variety of opportunities which teachers can build into teaching programmes. The following list provides examples of some of these:

- resource based learning – information retrieval on a scale which is unimaginable;
- partnerships with experts – through e-mail links;
- networking with individuals and institutions around the world;
- virtual environments – you can ‘stroll’ through art galleries around the world;
- access to services (banking, shopping, advice, information);
- open access to information held on all linked computers without local or national censorship and controls operating. This open access means that ‘ground rules’ must be established when the resource is used in schools (Figure 14.2 provides a set of such ground rules).

When considering the use of new information technologies in your lessons, you need to examine the demands made on pupils. Clearly pupils require technical skills which need to be developed. However, the use of new information technologies in the classroom also provides opportunities to develop higher level cognitive skills (Chapter 5 explains these more fully). In particular, skills of critical evaluation are required so that pupils are able to evaluate the quality of information that they are receiving. These skills of critical evaluation must be taught.

Technical skills

Specific skills are needed if learners are to learn effectively in the technological environment. Clearly, there are skills in using the technology that have to be learned such as keyboard skills and the skills of using the equipment to accomplish tasks, to access information. Once these are acquired, then skills in evaluating information have to be developed. Figure 14.1 shows the skills expected of pupils in one secondary school who wish to use the Internet. They first obtain their ‘surfing licence’, i.e. certificate of competence, and the figure shows what they have to do to earn this licence. If you wish to use this idea you will probably have to adapt the ideas to suit your software. Addresses on the Internet often change so if you are unable to get through to those suggested here,
The information superhighway

ask colleagues for alternatives or look up addresses in an Internet magazine. You may also
find useful addresses in the educational sections of newspapers.

THE SURFING TEST

Remember to read all instructions carefully. Accuracy when using the Net is very
important.

If you are unable to get through to a location because it is busy, move on to the next
task and return to that one later.

1 Log on to the system and open the Internet connection.

2 Using each of the following search tools with graphics off. (Graphics simply
take a long time to download.)

- Lycos: http://lycos.cs.cmu.edu
- Web Crawler: http://webcrawler.com/
- Yahoo: http://www.yahoo.com/

Find out information about any of the topics set by your teacher.

3 Use one search tool to find out information about one topic. Show the
document on the screen to one of the staff and get your test-sheet initialled before
moving on.

4 Add one of the documents to the 'quicklist' [Note to readers: this is a shortlist of
documents which are often used. The name of this facility varies with different
software], make sure a member of staff has seen the document added, now delete it.

5 Find out information about a topic you are doing in another class. It is your own
choice but first you must write down on your test-sheet what the topic is and how
you intend to search for the information. For example, 'I intend to find out
information about volcanoes in Japan, I shall do this by using a search tool.' You
must not use the quicklist for this. Show the quicklist to a member of staff before
beginning.

6 At the end of your search, write down what you did and explain how you
got there. Get a printout of your webmap. Show this final evidence to staff
and ... 

Congratulations, you have completed your surfing test.

Source: Adapted from Mundella Community College, Leicester
Figure 14.1 The surfing test
Thinking skills

Effective learning requires the development of thinking skills. Teachers need to create situations and tasks which encourage pupils to think hard in order to make progress.

(National Commission on Education, 1993, p. 85)

If higher order thinking is to be developed in pupils through the use of the new information technologies then careful planning is essential. Some current critics of computer-based learning systems suggest that it is too easy for learners to 'play' and to avoid supervision as pupils may appear to be on task.

Skills in critical evaluation

Information technologies convey information from non-vetted sources and so it is particularly important that pupils learn to critically evaluate what they are receiving. They need routinely to consider questions such as:

• who is providing this information?
• what do they hope to achieve by providing this information?
• are they in a position to provide accurate information?
• in what way might the information be biased or inaccurate?

Pupils must be made aware that information on the Internet is produced for particular purposes as is that in the press and TV to which they are exposed daily so it may be unreliable and biased. Whilst some providers may have education as a priority, other providers want to sell products or to influence recipients' thinking.

Galligan highlights the need to develop critical faculties in pupils so that they can effectively evaluate software and information providers they come across. She lists these critical skills as a number of processes. Pupils need to be able to:

• identify and consider the values embedded in software;
• assess the effect of the structure of software on meaning;
• evaluate computer mediated information for bias, accuracy, credibility and underlying assumptions;
• recognise the ability of software to amplify, ignore, simplify or reduce aspects of real life;
• appreciate the aesthetics of computer mediated images, text and sound;
• discriminate between information and ideas, quantity and quality of information.

(Galligan, 1992, p. 2)
NEW INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES AND PUPIL MOTIVATION

The use of e-mail, access to information on the Internet and multimedia work all have the potential for stimulating pupils in what is an audio-visual generation. Hargreaves (1994) makes interesting points about pupil motivation and new information technologies:

The educational potential of the new information technologies especially in interactive forms, is considerable, but has yet to be realised. This potential lies particularly in its capacity to motivate young people, to make learning more enjoyable and less judgemental. Teachers make poor entertainers of bored and reluctant students. There are severe limits to the capacity of classroom teachers to motivate that substantial minority of young people with little commitment to conventional schooling, who develop a sense of failure and resentment, whose achievement levels are worryingly low and who are destined to be an unemployable and alienated under-class. The challenge they pose should be a general driver; but recent reforms, such as the National Curriculum do little for this group. If a fraction of the time and money of the multi-million pound computer games industry were devoted to education rather than leisure, we might, under certain conditions, retain these young people's commitment and esteem.

(Hargreaves, 1994, pp. 40-41)

Research into the use of computer-based learning systems in classes confirms that there is increased motivation for many pupils and 'significant learning gains' for both high and low ability pupils have been identified (NCET, 1994, p. 19). No significant differences in 'learning gains' between boys and girls were found in this study. Practice in educational uses of new information technologies is still developing. The points mentioned here may provide useful information for you to consider when you are planning the use of new information technologies in your lessons.

THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Clearly the construction of the learning environment is crucial if planned learning outcomes are to be achieved. Your lesson objectives, which indicate the outcomes you desire and the teaching strategies you use to achieve these, may, for example, include problem solving, group work, planning research, analysis and reporting skills. Approaches to learning which can be adapted to a teaching environment using new information technologies include independent pupil-centred learning, enquiry or active learning, cooperative or collaborative learning. Internet research projects can be designed so that they require active interaction with data collected, e.g. where e-mail links are made with other schools, pupils could be collecting, sharing and analysing data rather than simply writing to each other. Such key-pal (pen-pal) activities whilst useful at one level are more likely to be sustained if they are linked with collaborative projects, e.g.
pupils could be directed to produce a report with their key-pal on, for example an aspect of their local area such as population characteristics, their occupations and so on.

Classroom management issues

The use of the Internet in the classroom poses a number of challenges. In secondary schools, if it is used for resource-based learning then pupils may need longer than the traditional teaching periods of around an hour to achieve useful results even if the teacher directs their search. At the time of writing access to Internet sites is difficult at certain times of day because of the volume of traffic, and this is hindering the use of the Internet during lessons. Downloading files from different Internet sites in advance of lessons, is one solution that some teachers propose but is there something intrinsically motivating for a learner to have access to an open ended resource? The open-ended nature of the resource does mean that the path of learning is less predictable and some teachers may find this difficult to manage.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism takes on new dimensions as pupils can now download materials from CD-ROMs or the Internet. Pupils need to be alerted to the unacceptability of including text written by others in their work unless they attribute the source of such text. It is suggested that when referencing Internet sources pupils should state the Internet address together with the date and time as well as any other identifying features. As information on some sites is being updated continually noting the time and date would seem to be necessary.

Equal opportunity issues

On the plus side, the advantages for learners with various impairments which are offered by information technologies are significant – library access and opportunities for interpersonal communication are just two ways in which new information technologies may advantage such pupils. You should naturally monitor issues of access whether related to gender, ability or background.

Access to inappropriate material

There is concern among educationalists about the access young people have on the Internet to information which is considered inappropriate for them. However, it is possible to block access to certain sites and those concerned about this aspect of the Internet should seek advice from the provider of their Internet link. Our experience to date suggests that it takes users some time to access inappropriate sources and this is
most likely to happen where unrestricted access is allowed, i.e. at sixth form level, in universities and in the home, rather than in classroom or school club situations where teachers are usually present. The downloading of unsuitable information perhaps at home and its subsequent passing from pupil to pupil is to be anticipated. Schools use existing procedures to deal with this issue such as informing parents and withdrawing a pupil’s privileges.

As young people whose homes and schools are connected to the Internet may have easy access to material that the censors in the UK would consider unsuitable, teachers should take steps to help them develop ways of dealing with the material to which they are likely to be exposed.

A solution to this potential problem which has been adopted by one school was simply to ban completely from computer club membership the first pupil who gave an indication that he may not have been able to be trusted in his use of the Internet – no other pupil has since tested the system and the banned pupil remains banned. Another school also made the rules for using the Internet completely clear. Figure 14.2 shows these rules.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School and department rules must be followed at all times.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BE ACCURATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copy addresses exactly as they appear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow instructions to the letter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE PATIENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It sometimes takes a while to get to where you are going.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeatedly clicking on the screen can slow you down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE POLITE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You may be required to send messages using the Net.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remember that you are representing your school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE ADAPTABLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There may be alternative ways of achieving your goal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE PREPARED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to have occasional failures; try alternatives or try another time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE HONEST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always tell a member of staff if you find any unsuitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>material on the Net.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Remember you are on trust.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: from Mundella Community College, Leicester
Figure 14.2 Rules for surfing the Net
CONFRONTING TECHNOPHOBIA

Whatever your own feelings about the use of information technologies, as a professional you have a responsibility to the pupils you teach to prepare them for the future. It is not uncommon for teachers and some pupils to feel out of their depth when it comes to the use of information technology. As with any teaching and learning situation, the problems need to be identified and strategies put in place to remedy them.

Not being familiar with information technologies is hardly an option for teachers working in the twenty-first century. At a fundamental level, information technologies allow you to use your time much more effectively – whether in the writing of reports (provided you have reasonable keyboard skills) or in the searching for information related to subject areas. The quality and quantity of the work of those not able to use such information technologies will be increasingly seen to be unacceptably limited. Take, for example, the art teacher. Why should pupils be limited to examining printed or pre-recorded material about artefacts from different cultures when, with the use of the Internet or CD-ROMs, they can, using the Internet, roam the galleries and museums of the world incorporating directly into their own projects images of what they find. In the case of the science teacher, if they are teaching about space, why not use the latest information from NASA? Data on the Web cover aspects of history, geography and science as well as other subjects, e.g. on Antarctica. The method of searching is similar to that used in computer-based library systems – you can put in a key word (such as Antarctica) and a list of resources is presented to you.

SUMMARY

Using information technologies in the classroom does not ensure that more effective learning takes place – so many other factors come into play. What we are suggesting is that using information technology is an integral part of the learning experience of pupils in the twenty-first century and you are responsible for ensuring that such opportunities are provided for your pupils. To ensure that you are addressing the needs of pupils of the twenty-first century, you need to review your teaching strategies regularly and be ready to assimilate new methods of proven worth into your teaching.

In the first year of your teaching, you are likely to be very busy getting to know the school and the pupils and developing and consolidating your teaching skills. The texts which follow in the further reading provide useful material for you to draw on when you have time to reflect and when you are extending your work using information technologies.

FURTHER READING

Educational Research (report commissioned by the National Council for Educational Technology).

This is a research report which covers a wide range of factors relating to the use of software in schools. As such it is not directly relevant to your needs as a new teacher. However, if you have a keen interest in this area you may find yourself taking on responsibilities within a short time. If this is the case, you may find the information in sections relating to sources of information, differing practice across the country and the INSET needs and concerns of staff, provides you with a useful overview of national provision.

This is a sound basic text providing information on a various aspects of information technologies. This text is of use to those who have been using the Internet for some time as well as for those just starting. Useful Internet sites are included as is information about suppliers and basic definitions of terms.

Papert's ideas provide challenging images of the classroom of the future. The text is easy to read and is peppered with real examples from children's lives. The examples are largely drawn from work with Logo and from mathematics.

This text includes chapters from contributors from a wide range of backgrounds. The issues covered include discussions about the application of theories of learning as well as practical examples of practice in schools. The e-mail project described on pages 114–20 provides an interesting example of how a wide variety of skills drawn from a range of subject areas can be developed using computer mediated communication facilities.


Both these texts raise a number of fundamental issues related to the use of computers in classrooms; for example, the sections on children's thinking and the use of computers should be useful to teachers from all subject backgrounds.

**National conferences and exhibitions**

BETTS – the British Education and Training Technology Exhibition – takes place in January and is advertised in *The Times Educational Supplement*. Free tickets are available for teachers if they are applied for in advance.
The information superhighway and teaching and learning

Bibliography


How are things going?
Using action research to find out

Chapter 15

Leask, M. in Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T.
Starting to Teach in the Secondary School

London, Routledge
15 How are things going? Using action research to find out

INTRODUCTION

Good teaching does not happen automatically; it is the product of a continual cycle of planning, acting and reflecting. As part of your initial teacher education, you evaluated your lessons and as a NQT you continue this practice. However, as your classroom management skills become second nature to you, you are able to focus your evaluations more sharply on the learning taking place in your lessons. You may consider more closely the development of individual pupils or the effectiveness of different approaches to teaching particular topics.

In Learning to Teach in the Secondary School (Capel, Leask and Turner, 1995), observation schedules and paired observation techniques, keeping a reflective diary, discussions with colleagues are described as helpful techniques for student teachers to use in examining their classroom practice. These are all valuable techniques for collecting evidence about the quality of work in the classroom and they should not be overlooked. In this chapter, we suggest other strategies that are available to help you to examine your practice (see also Chapters 3 and 5).

The term Action Research refers to the activity of teachers investigating their own practice. Reflective practice is another term describing ways of working which fall within the definition of Action Research. The term ‘evaluation’ is used to refer to the act of making judgements about quality and effectiveness. Action research is used by teachers to provide evidence upon which sound evaluative judgements can be based.

As you might expect, different practitioners favour different approaches, and so there are different action research models in practice. What is described here is a selection of ideas which might be of use to you at this stage in your career. After a general introduction to action research, ideas are presented about how individuals and teams may evaluate their own work. In the final section the evaluation of classroom resources is considered. The texts in the further reading section provide more detailed advice and different action research models.
OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter you should have:

- developed your understanding of how action research (and reflective practice) used by individuals and by teams to examine current practice;
- an understanding of techniques you can use to evaluate your own classroom and that of teams with whom you work;
- considered the evaluation of resources for use in your own classroom.

ACTION RESEARCH: A REFLECTIVE PROCESS

Action research is research by practitioners to solve their own problems and improve practice. It is a growing form of professional development for the practitioner.

(McKernan, 199)

How do you find out if you are favouring one type of pupil over another, e.g. the quiet boys over the girls? How can a school find out about the impact of a new homework policy? The methods used in action research provide tools which can be used to examine your practice (see Table 15.1). The tools you use are the ones best suited to the job in hand and to your own context.

Pupils, teachers, support staff, parents, governors, members of the community are all potential providers of evidence of how things are going as documents available such as school and department policies and pupil work.

ETHICAL ISSUES FOR ACTION RESEARCH

When data is collected from staff and pupils or others, there is potential for misinterpretation and those collecting the data have a responsibility to those for its use. Any individual or team collecting data should consider their ethical stance before going ahead with any projects. Table 15.2 outlines issues to be considered. (1993, pp. 221--) provides more detailed guidelines.

INDIVIDUAL APPROACHES TO ACTION RESEARCH

As a NQT, you can expect to be faced with a range of situations that you may need to deal with once you have been in a school for some time. You have to establish policies for pupil work and behaviour in your class, pupils may challenge your authority and colleagues may challenge your methods. Chapter 6, which covers time at tables outlines two options for you when you are under pressure: flight or fight.

Table 15.1 Methods of collecting evidence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods of collecting evidence include:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>debriefing, reflection on what has happened: e.g. at the end of a lesson, at team meetings;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carrying out observations of pupils and teachers. You can, for example, examine the extent to which you have given pupils attention by keeping a tally during one of your lessons;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consideration of pupil work: written, performed, oral, test results, videos;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analysis of printed materials: school documents, diaries, photographs, comparative examination results, school records, government documents;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writing case studies of pupils;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analysis of pupil talk: e.g. to demonstrate their understanding of a new topic;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carrying out interviews: with any relevant groups or individuals;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>using questionnaires: with any relevant groups.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In fighting a problem, you can respond irrationally and defensively (It's all their fault... If only...) or you can face the problem, analyse the causes and identify, then implement the solutions. Adopting a professional, reflective, analytical approach should help you deal with issues more objectively.

In this section, four different ways in which your capacity for constructive reflection may be developed are discussed. It is suggested that you focus your attention on specific aspects of your work - do not try to consider everything at once. Wragg (1994) estimates that teachers are involved in a thousand interpersonal interactions every day - a million in five years. You cannot examine every aspect of your work, so be selective and prioritise!

1 Observe some of the lessons you teach being taught by experienced teachers. If you focus your observations on pupils whom you find challenging, e.g. quiet, awkward or very able, you may be able to identify strategies which would help you improve your work with these pupils.

2 You may find the reflective process as described by McNiff (1993, p. 80) helpful. She describes the cycle of reflection as having the following aspects:

- identification of the problem;
- imagination of the solution;
- implementation of the solution;
- evaluation of the solution;
- modification of practice.

3 Leat (1995, pp. 161--74) takes a different approach. He suggests that analysing classroom situations in terms of inputs, processes and outcomes provides a useful framework for examining practice. The examination of relationships between inputs,
Table 15.2 An ethical approach to action research

Those collecting data must take responsibility for the ethical use of any data collected and for maintaining confidentiality. It is suggested that you should, as a matter of course:
1. Discuss the project with a senior member of staff as well as other teachers directly involved and keep them informed of progress.
2. Consider the impact on pupils involved and agree any procedures involving pupils with a senior member of staff.
3. Agree the outline for the project with appropriate staff before you start. This agreement should include:
   • the area you are investigating;
   • how you are going to collect any evidence;
   • from whom you intend to collect evidence;
   • what you intend to do with the data collected, e.g. whether it is confidential, whether it will be written up anonymously or not;
   • who the audience for your report will be;
   • any other factors relevant to the particular situation.
4. Check whether staff, governors or others expect to be given a copy of your findings.
5. Check that you conform to the requirements of the Data Protection Act if you data electronically. For example, you should not store personal data on computers without the explicit authorisation of the individual concerned.
6. Check your analysis of data given to you by staff with them before a report is published. Hopkins (1993, p. 222) suggests that you allow those participating to right to amend their contributions where these 'enhance fairness, relevance and accuracy'.

Source: Adapted from: Capel, Leask and Turner, 1995, Table 5.4

Leat suggests a format for recording your reflections on particular episodes: describe what happened (concrete experience), write what you thought or felt about the episode (reflective observation), identify your own new ideas or theory about what is happening (abstract conceptualisation) and describe how you intend to employ this theory in action (active experimentation).

Through the analysis and study of cases (incidents, pupils) that you come across, overtime you develop a store of professional knowledge of 'case-law'. Discussions with your mentor, INSET, higher degree courses or your own wider reading may provide opportunities for you to extend your professional knowledge by providing you with the opportunities to place such cases in the context of current knowledge about teaching and learning.

EVALUATING RESOURCES

In addition to evaluating your work in the classroom, you need to apply your evaluative skills to the resources you use in the classroom. It is too easy to use resources simply because they are there, because others use them and consequently you hope that they are suited to your pupils' needs.

In planning the objectives for any lesson, you are making decisions about what skills, attitudes and knowledge you are expecting the pupils to develop through work on the lesson topic. The same decisions are made when you are evaluating resources. What skills, attitudes and knowledge are likely to be fostered through the use of a particular resource? Do these fit with your lesson objectives? In addition, you need to consider whether the resources are appropriate in terms of language, structure, readability, appropriateness of design and whether they allow for differentiation. Further advice on these issues is provided in Chapter 5.

The ideas in this section are included to give you a framework for thinking about resources. As your professional knowledge and judgement develop, so your evaluation of resources becomes more instinctive.

You may wish to consider if the resources are encouraging pupils to develop high level cognitive skills (synthesis of ideas, application of knowledge, interpretation, reasoning, abstract thought, critical evaluation) or whether the reinforcement or development of lower level cognitive skills (basic skills of language, mathematics, tasks dealing with 'concrete' instead of abstract ideas) is the aim.

What attitudes towards learning, culture, gender, race are encouraged by the resource?

What prior knowledge is assumed? What new concepts are introduced? Does the material provide meaningful learning - allowing pupils to make connections with other knowledge and experience that they have?

Furthermore, you might consider what learning style is favoured by using this resource? Does pupils' use of the resource require them to be passive or active? Does it...
favour analytic thinkers over imaginative thinkers; convergent thinkers over divergent thinkers (Entwistle, 1988, p. 153)? Does the resource have more appeal to those who use one learning style rather than another?

TEAM APPROACHES TO ACTION RESEARCH

You may find that you are a member of one or more teams, e.g. departmental and pastoral teams. Each team should regularly review the quality and effectiveness of its work using a variety of methods to inform their review. In many cases, the impressions of experiences of the team are considered sufficient. In other cases, evidence may be collected from other sources (see Table 15.1) so that a deeper understanding of an issue is gained.

If an issue is to be evaluated in depth, then the procedures for collecting data need to be carefully planned. Table 15.1 sets out a framework for planning a detailed action research project which is suitable for use by individuals evaluating their own work or teams.

Table 15.1 Action research framework

| A | What do we want to know? |
| B | Who has or where is the information/data needed to answer the question? |
| C | How much time and what other resources can be devoted to exploring these issues? |
| D | How are we going to collect the data? |
| E | When do we need to collect the data? |
| F | What ethical questions arise from the collection and use of this data? |
| G | How are we going to analyse and present the data? |
| H | Are we prepared and able to make changes in the light of the findings? |

Source: Adapted from Capel, Leask and Turner, 1995, Unit 5.4

Time and resource constraints mean that it is necessary to focus quite sharply on a small area of concern. If you try to cover too broad an issue, you simply have too much data to deal with and too large a project to manage within the small amount of time available in the school day for this work.

The following example illustrates how the framework in Table 15.1 may be applied. A pastoral team (for example year 9 or year 11) is concerned about the influence of pupils' choices of subject and in particular, pupils' low expectations of their further education opportunities and careers, the staff decide to investigate the issues in some detail. The action research framework in Table 15.1 is applied in the following way.

1 What do we want to know?

Team members come up very quickly with many questions:

- What factors are influencing pupil choice of subject? Are pupils well informed? Do they understand the implications of their choice? Do we need to review the curriculum in form periods? Do we need an INSET session for staff on new curricular options such as GNVQs?
- How can pupils maximise their chances of being able to obtain employment or admission to courses in a chosen area? Should we be doing more to inform pupils earlier in their school careers?
- How can we improve links with parents?
- Clearly there are many issues they can follow up. They decide to focus on finding out more about pupil expectations first.

2 Who has or where is the data needed to answer the question?

Pupils, parents, teachers, career advisers, all have information in this area. It is decided to start with pupils, the careers' service and the pastoral year heads.

3 How much time and what other resources can be devoted to exploring these issues?

Two members of staff volunteer to organise a brief questionnaire. The head of the pastoral team volunteers to approach the other pastoral heads. Another teacher volunteers to discuss the issue with the careers' service.

4 How are we going to collect the data?

Pupils in year 9 (or year 11) are to be asked to fill in a short questionnaire about their career expectations and the reasons behind their subject choices. The careers' service are to be contacted initially by telephone.

Year heads are to be approached to find out their views about ways in which pupils' understanding of career options could be enhanced. The issue is to be raised at a meeting of pastoral heads.

5 When do we need to collect the data?

- before the next meeting, that is, in two weeks' time.

6 What ethical questions arise from the collection and use of this data?

After some debate, it is decided that the pupil questionnaires should be anonymous.
so that pupils can feel free to be honest about the factors influencing their choices, these may include a preference for the teaching style of some teachers rather than others. Agreement from the senior management team is to be sought and they will be consulted and kept informed.

7 How are we going to analyse and present the data?

All those collecting data are to report their findings at the next meeting. A questionnaire will be designed to ensure that analysis is as straightforward as possible. A report will go to the senior management team after the meeting.

8 Are we prepared and able to make changes in the light of the findings?

Once a clearer idea of the reasons for pupils' expectations is obtained, an action will be drawn up outlining the changes and which appear to be necessary. Chapter 11 contains advice on action plans.

Once staff have collected the evidence together they can make an informed professional judgement about the ways in which the situation could be improved. The next step - the most difficult to sustain, is to implement the changes and measure their effectiveness. Good ideas are often lost because no one takes on responsibility for seeing their implementation through.

SOME ADDITIONAL POINTS WORTH CONSIDERING

You may have noticed that evidence of a qualitative type (from observations, interviews or printed sources) as well as of a quantitative type (numerically based) is used when evaluating educational programmes. Your results are more valid if you collect data from different sources using different methods. This allows you to check out different perceptions and thus examine alternative explanations of issues. (This process is triangulation.)

Bias and personal preference are always factors to consider when you are giving weight to different viewpoints. For example, pupils' views on a particular programme may be coloured by personality issues or the fact that too much work is involved. Viewpoints are just that - personal viewpoints - to be considered with other evidence. You too, of course, need to be aware of your own bias.

In some schools advice about action research might also be sought from the education authority or a local institution of higher education. Many schools have libraries which contain books providing advice on aspects of school-based research.

TASK 15.1: EVALUATION AND REVIEW PROCEDURES IN YOUR SCHOOL

Find out about the evaluation and review procedures used in your school. Discuss the role you are expected to play in these with your mentors so that you understand what is expected of you.

SUMMARY

This chapter provides a brief glimpse of approaches to action research including reflective practice and resource evaluation. These approaches have been selected to give you ideas but they are by no means the only way to go about action research or to examine your practice.

When you are undertaking evaluative work yourself, you may like to keep the following questions in mind:

Will what I have done stand up to the scrutiny of colleagues elsewhere? Will they consider that the approach I have taken is as free from personal bias as possible, that I have considered the issue from the viewpoints of the various interested parties, that the conclusions are based on a sound examination of the evidence and that this evidence is reliable?

In the first year or two of teaching, you should, quite rightly, be concerned to consolidate your skills and to establish yourself as an effective teacher with high standards. Once you have settled into your teaching then, if you wish to develop your reflective skills further then you are advised to find out if there are staff at your school or in your local area who are interested in action research. Undertaken with like-minded colleagues, you can have a lot of fun exploring your teaching and your impact on the learning process of your pupils. You need to be open minded and be prepared to accept that what you actually achieve may not be quite what you set out to achieve. Your vision of yourself as a teacher may not be the same as that of the pupils!

FURTHER READING


This text is designed for those who are undertaking small-scale research projects. It provides a good basic introduction to educational research.


This is a very informative text for those wishing to focus on classroom talk.
Using action research

Elliott includes some interesting case studies (chapter 2 for example) as well as history of the development of action research in education.

This text contains thought-provoking material about how people learn and what we can do to help different types of learners. It contains material which the teacher with some experience will be able to apply in their teaching to the advantage of their pupils.

This book contains a variety of examples drawn from work in classrooms. It is directly aimed at an audience of N/A students.

This text is full of practical ideas for teachers wanting to investigate their own classroom practice. It provides a good starting point for anyone wishing to develop their professional expertise in evaluation and action research.

This is a very personal account of how action research can enhance teachers' professional lives.

Wragg provides useful perspectives on life in the classroom and the recording and analysis of this. For example, on p. 10 the account of teacher and pupil perspective the same event makes amusing but salutary reading.
Paper 33

How are things going? Using action research to find out

Bibliography

Paper 34


The Wider Contribution to the Teacher Profession

Chapter 3

Leask, M. in Leask, M. and Terrell, I.
Development Planning and School Improvement for Middle Managers

London, Kogan Page
ISBN 0 7494 2038 3
Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the notion of developing your skills as a manager through reflection. Several practical suggestions for structuring reflection have been made. If you are a middle manager or are aspiring to be one, you might find it helpful to start a reflective journal now, identifying the issues this chapter has raised and strategies for resolving them.

Chapter 3

The Wider Contribution to the Teaching Profession

Chapters 1 and 2 have focused on the middle manager’s role within the school organisation. However, middle managers have a role to play as leading professionals, not just within the school but also in the wider educational community. For example, they are responsible for teaching approaches, for professional development of staff and, in many cases, the training of student teachers in their care. In these roles, middle managers are playing an active part in the wider professional community beyond the school – a part which involves them in the development of professional knowledge and practice in education.

In this chapter, as an introduction to wider professional debates in which, we suggest, middle managers have a responsibility to take part, we raise issues about the development of professional knowledge and practice and the education of student teachers.

The process of developing professional knowledge

As leading professionals, middle managers are expected to be up to date with developments in their area of expertise and, where they participate fully in professional associations, they will be forming and disseminating new practice. But how does knowledge about teaching and learning develop? What are the influences on change?

Sir Isaac Newton is said to have acknowledged the work of his predecessors with the statement ‘If I have seen further than others, it is because I have stood on the shoulders of giants’. This idea – that each generation builds on the work of the preceding generation – can be applied to the process of building knowledge in any sphere of life. Each generation probably has the opportunity to
push forward the barriers of understanding a little further – building on the thinking and experience of the generation before.

For teachers in the UK state education system, changes in the shared body of professional knowledge and practice are influenced principally by ideas emanating from any of six sources:

- professional organisations;
- local education authorities;
- the Department for Education and Employment (the voice of government);
- higher education institutions (HEIs);
- the media;
- processes within the individual school.

To what extent are you aware of current thinking and developments coming from each of these sources? New ideas which contribute to professional knowledge are, for example, developed through practice and/or research (eg collaborative action research groups working within the school and HEIs) and disseminated through professional networks, conferences, in service education and various types of publication. The Collaborative Action Research Network (CARN) is an example of such a network; professional associations provide other networks. Collaborative professional work taking place in such networks provides ongoing development of professional knowledge within the profession.

Politicians and policy makers at the national level clearly influence the development of professional knowledge, for example through speeches, legislation and through fiscal control.

At the national level in the UK in recent years, there seems to have been a constant struggle among different political groups for the power to influence policy. There has been rapid change as Secretaries of State for Education have come, introduced major changes and gone, without seeing through these changes. Ball (1994, p. 30) acknowledges these tensions in his examination of how ‘traditionalists’ wrested power from ‘modernizers’ and ‘progressive vocationalists’ in the 1980s.

‘the losers in the policy making arena (in the eighties) were a coalition of educational “modernizers”: a loosely constituted group made up of “new progressive” educators, especially from the science and mathematics education communities, and “progressive vocationalists” representing the educational concerns of many of the UK’s largest multinational companies.’ (ibid., p. 30)

In the UK a whole raft of legislation was passed which was designed to change the education system radically. This legislation related to the curriculum, the management of schools, competition between schools, local education authority involvement with schools and so on (Goddard and Leask, 1992, provides details). Similar changes are being implemented in other countries too, for example New Zealand, Australia and The Netherlands. The rash of changes has produced casualties and contradictions in the system.

Of course, the education system cannot be static; much as teachers, parents and pupils may wish it otherwise. The speed with which society is changing, and with which technology is changing ways of living and working, means that the knowledge, skills and attitudes of yesterday’s curriculum may not be appropriate today. This presents challenges for society and for schools and teachers as they try to adjust. The middle manager is the person at the forefront of the implementation of such changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes in the teaching practised in their department. An understanding of the need for ongoing change and of ways to help staff and pupils adapt to change must then be desirable attributes for middle managers.

There is pressure in England and Wales for distancing the school education system from direct political control, for the ‘professionalisation’ of teaching. Those arguing for the formation of a self-governing body for teachers (eg The Education Council for England and Wales, 1993) are to the fore in this debate. However, experience from the Australian system shows that such governing bodies are still subject to political interference when they depend on government money for their operation.

Professionalism and teaching

The notion of teaching as a profession is a contested assumption. There are, for example, a number of publications in which the notion of professionalism in teaching is debated (Hoyle and John, 1995; Langford, 1978; Calderhead, 1988).

Various criteria are used in the attempt to differentiate between the working practices of ‘professionals’ and those of ‘non-professionals’. One national group which claims to represent the professions in the UK is the UK Inter-Professional Group (UKIPG). The UKIPG lists 18 professions as member organisations and these members include the major professional groups such
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professional Group (UKIPG). The UKIPG lists 18 professions as member
organisations and these members include the major professional groups such
as the British Medical Association, Royal College of Nursing, Library Association and the General Council of the Bar. However, teaching is not included. Whether the criteria used to define a profession by the UKIPG are appropriate criteria is a debate outside the scope of this book. The fact that teachers are not included in the membership of a body claiming to represent the professions, indicates that work in the education sector does not fit criteria which do apply to other recognised professions.

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'The UKIPG believes that the following principles can be identified as those which characterise a profession, and the obligations its members owe to the public.

1. A profession must be controlled by a governing body.
2. The governing body must set adequate standards of education as a condition of entry or achievement of professional status.
3. The governing body must set ethical rules and professional standards which are to be observed by its members.
4. The rules and standards enforced by the governing body must be designed for the benefit of the public, and not for the private advantage of the members.
5. The governing body must take disciplinary action if the rules and standards it lays down are not observed or a member is guilty of bad professional work.
6. Some types of work should be reserved to the profession by statute, not because it is for the advantage of the members, but because for the protection of the public, it should be carried out only by persons with the requisite training, standards and disciplines.'

7. The governing body must satisfy itself that there is fair and open competition in the practice of the profession.
8. The members of the profession must be independent in thought and outlook.
9. In its particular field of learning the profession must give leadership to the public it serves.'

(UK Inter-Professional Group, 1995, p. 9)

In some countries or states, for example, Scotland in the UK, Queensland in Australia, British Columbia in Canada, such a governing body for teaching does exist. So although teaching may come close to satisfying the UKIPG criteria for recognition as a profession in some countries, this is not the case in England and Wales, where Hoyle and John (1995) describe teaching as having the status of a 'pseudo-profession'. Teaching, Hoyle and John argue, has only some features in common with recognised professions.

Currently changes in the curriculum can be dictated by government and such freedom may be constrained by a professional governing body. So there may be financial and political issues hindering the formal recognition of teaching as a profession in England and Wales. For example, a professional governing body with responsibility for the quality of training would carry the responsibility for setting standards. Short cuts to training would then be controlled in a way which has possibly not happened in England and Wales before. The qualifications of the teaching force could be scrutinised more easily as, in common with other professional bodies, a register would be produced which would be open to public scrutiny. Currently teachers may hold a variety of professional qualifications or, indeed, in some cases, teachers may have no qualifications in education. Exposure to public scrutiny of such variations in qualifications may create pressure for change.

These debates about professionalism, change and control over the curriculum are just some of the debates in which you, as a middle manager and an 'extended professional' (i.e. with an active interest in education as a whole, not just the work in your own classroom), may wish to become involved. Another current issue in the UK is the appropriate way to train teachers.

Models of teaching

Few assumptions can be made about the professional knowledge held by teachers or indeed about the training they have undergone. In the UK, some in teaching positions may have had no formal training, while others may have been trained and worked in only one school. Some will have had one year's training in education after a degree course, others will have spent four years undertaking an education degree. In England, where the accepted models of teacher training are more varied than in a number of other countries, some student teachers are trained entirely in schools without an input
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**Activity 3.2: Identifying a profession or trade**

What is your view of teaching? Do you see teaching as a 'pseudo-profession'? Explain your reasons.

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from higher education. Italy is only now developing formal training for secondary teachers. In The Netherlands and Australia the one-year route to teaching is much less common than in the UK.

The values and beliefs individuals hold about teaching as a profession influence their views about the form of education that is appropriate for teachers. As a middle manager you may also have responsibility for student teachers and you may be expected to have a considered viewpoint about what is appropriate in this role.

There are different views about how and what student teachers are to be taught. Three contrasting models are identified by Furlong and Maynard:

‘New Right thinkers such as O’Hear (1988) talk of the importance of “learning through the emulation of an experienced practitioner” – a form of unreflective apprenticeship. Such an idea follows logically from the conception of teaching as an almost mystical process, dependent primarily on personality and “natural” skill – not susceptible to systematic analysis... In sharp contrast those advocating a competency model advocate a more systematic, skills-based approach to learning to teach... others, insist that teaching is a complex intellectual and moral activity.’ (Furlong and Maynard, 1995, pp. 178-9)

We believe that there is a body of professional knowledge to be acquired which goes beyond the basic classroom management skills identified in Furlong and Maynard’s first and second models. The third model, ‘that teaching is a complex intellectual and moral activity’, is closer to the model of teaching espoused in this text. Capel et al. (1995, 1996), argue that three facets of professionalism, the teacher’s professional knowledge, their professional judgement as well as their professional skills, have to be developed beyond initial training through reflection on experience and further education. The case is made that these aspects of a teacher’s professional life need to be under continual development, and that evaluation and planning skills provide professional tools for such ongoing development. Simons (1984), Sparkes, (1991), McNiff (1993) and Schratz and Walker (1995) are among many supporters of the reflective practitioner approach to teacher development.

Students on initial training courses are, naturally, particularly concerned with developing curriculum and lesson planning skills together with class management skills. Deep learning about pedagogy – the science of teaching – may be more appropriately provided for teachers who have acquired the basic skills. There is nothing new in this idea. The James Report in 1972 in the UK recommended sabbatical terms for teachers for refreshment and professional development and, up to the mid-1980s, teachers could apply to their local education authority for sabbaticals although these were restricted in number. Sabbatical terms are available to teachers from, for example, Australia where the notion of ‘long service leave’ has been established for decades. Clearly, initial teacher education can only provide part of a teacher’s education. What happens next depends to a considerable extent on

the management philosophy of the middle manager with whom individual teachers work. Teacher-researcher projects can provide a useful avenue for professional refreshment and reflection. Chapter 12 discusses these in the context of departmental evaluation.

Conclusion

Extending your horizons beyond the world of the school to the education system may give you a perspective on change which may allow you to accept and understand the changes demanded of schools – even if you do not agree with them. Playing a full role in the debates accompanying such changes is a role that middle managers who have a commitment to the teaching profession, will want to take on.
The Wider Contribution to the Teacher Profession

Bibliography

Paper 35


Values, Beliefs, Vision:
Where do you stand?

Chapter 4

Leask, M. in Leask, M. and Terrell, I.
Development Planning and School Improvement for Middle Managers

London, Kogan Page
ISBN 0 7494 2038 3
Part II  Who You are in the Context in which You Work

Chapter 4

Values, Beliefs, Vision: Where do You Stand?

How you perform and how others see you depends on the environment in which you work and the criteria others use to judge you. Behaviour considered normal in one context may be interpreted as unacceptable in another. Similarly, beliefs and values about how and what to teach vary. Differences of beliefs and values about management, and about learning and teaching, can render middle managers ineffective if they find themselves in an environment where their values and beliefs are not viewed sympathetically.

So, before you can effectively contribute to school improvement and the development of your department, we suggest you consider how your beliefs, values and working practices fit in with those of other staff in the department and the school. If you are new to leadership of a department, you will need to consider how your new role changes your relationship with colleagues.

Throughout this book, you will be given opportunities to assess your strengths and weaknesses against various descriptors of the tasks of middle management. In this chapter we focus in particular on three of the four dimensions of the middle management role which we identified in Chapter 2.

- How you are in the context in which you work. How does your individuality have an impact on the context in which you are now working?
- Your philosophy of teaching and learning. How this was formed and how well you can tolerate differences.
- How you work with people. Your personal characteristics which help or hinder the forming of effective working relationships.

Your capacity to manage these different dimensions of the role will affect your ability to turn your vision for your area of work into reality.

To what extent do you know yourself? In this chapter you are encouraged to reflect on your own values and beliefs about teaching and learning, and about working with people, in order to understand better your strengths and weaknesses as a leader of a department or team. The chapter starts with a discussion about your values and beliefs and how your vision for your department or team stems from these. Interpersonal skills and qualities form the focus of the last section, together with an analysis of how power is exercised in organisations.

Your values and beliefs about management

Your personality and your prior experience influence your expectations of your line managers and your expectations of those for whom you are now a line manager. What motivates you to do good work? What values do others hold which motivate them to work well? Do you share the beliefs and values which underpin the ethos of your school? What level of fit is there between your beliefs and practices about how schools, teaching and learning are best managed, and those beliefs and practices of the teachers whom you manage? If the fit is not close, then conflict may be inevitable unless you are able to accept and work with these differences, developing good working relationships with staff who have different priorities, beliefs and practices.

Chapters 7 and 8 introduce a range of strategies related to the management of people and leadership from which you can analyse your own approach to leadership and management. How do you view staff potential? We quoted Blanchard and Johnson’s (1983, p. 71) optimistic view in the Introduction: ‘Everyone is a potential winner. Some people are disguised as losers. Don’t let their appearances fool you’.

You may find some of the staff with whom you have to work difficult but there is no point in wishing they were different – part of your role is to help all staff grow and develop. How you deal with difficult staff depends on circumstances and in dealing with these problems you can expect help and support from senior management. However, protecting the pupils’ rights to high quality education must be to the fore when you are involved in decisions about staff performance.

Your values and beliefs about teaching and learning

We argue that it is both relevant and useful for teachers to become overtly aware of their personal values and beliefs about teaching and learning. Undergoing a process of personal reflection on your own conceptual
framework of teaching and learning, and its potential origins, is an essential starting point if you are to move towards sharing your perceptions across the department. It is also important that these views are shared and understood between members of the department. In Chapter 9, we argue that the process of sharing these views is an important element in developing a professional dialogue about teaching and learning within the department or team.

We each have a unique set of values that have been and continue to be constructed from a variety of sources. Many of these values, if not all, impact in some way on our teaching. They inform our behaviour and guide us in developing professional relationships with colleagues, pupils and parents. They help shape our view of teaching when matched or mismatched with ideas expounded during our initial training about models of learning and teaching styles. They play a part in determining our view of acceptable classroom behaviour and our expectations of pupils and colleagues. Whittaker (1993, p. 48) links values with experience, personality and will — identifying these as factors determining 'our uniqueness as Individuals'. He describes this combination as the interpersonal landscape, in that these four factors impact on our thinking and in our communication with others. He cites childhood, school, work and society as the influencing experience factors, and attitudes, beliefs, assumptions and prejudices as the values that emerge partly as a result of our experiences.

Defining our beliefs about teaching can be complex and difficult. Exploring the sources of these beliefs can also be daunting. One useful 'way in' might be to consider the various role models of teaching that we have experienced, both as a child and as a practising teacher. On the next page is an example of one teacher's experience.

In 1996 these issues were explored by Gill Venn with groups of mainly mature BEd secondary student teachers at the end of their course and with groups of experienced Israeli teachers and head teachers. She discovered that early childhood influences were seen as key by the individuals in terms of their teaching practices in the classroom. Using a 'timeline' approach the students were encouraged to brainstorm, then mark on to the timeline, key events and key people who influenced their thinking in terms of teaching and learning.

Various events were detailed, many of which expose painful memories of being humiliated or publicly sanctioned by teachers when young. Others charted key teachers whose approach had made a real impact on their young lives and who, in adulthood, had become something of a role model. Wragg and Wood (1994) discuss the way in which student teachers initially often simply teach in the way they were taught themselves at school. The BEd secondary students felt very strongly that, despite several important influences from their university course and from their periods of school experience, essentially their attitudes towards teaching and learning had not greatly altered from when they started the course. The experienced Israeli colleagues also expressed a real sense of these early experiences having a profound impact on their teaching approaches. Undertaking such an activity with colleagues, working within the department, might encourage initial discussions of how thoughts, beliefs and values about teaching and learning have been influenced by such early personal experiences.

Every teacher has a unique personal construction of what is meant by 'teaching'. This unique conceptual framework has been formed and shaped by the individual's combination of experience, beliefs and values and their resulting attitudes. How the individual has interpreted these experiences and her or his exposure to beliefs and values may, in part, be influenced by their personality.

This conceptual framework of teaching may influence the individual's response to suggestions for innovation, change or improvement. If the suggestion for change complements the framework, the individual might accept the
possibilities for inclusion into their own practice more readily than if the suggestion confronts or challenges their assumptions or framework.

There are clearly a number of potential elements which combine together to create a personal sum of values and beliefs about teaching and learning – an individual conceptual construction of teaching and learning. Table 4.1 presents nine such potential elements.

Table 4.1 Your personal values and beliefs about teaching and learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Potential construction</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role of the teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as educator?</td>
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<tr>
<td>as deliverer?</td>
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<td>Role of schools</td>
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<tr>
<td>In relation to society?</td>
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<td>Notion of childhood</td>
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<td>empty vessels?</td>
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<td>Inherently good/Inherently evil?</td>
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<tr>
<td>small 'people' with differing needs?</td>
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<tr>
<td>expectation of learners?</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Models of learning
- transmission of knowledge?
- constructivist?

Model of motivation
- theory X and Y (see Chapter 8)
- through fear?
- through enjoyment?
- Influence of self-esteem/motivation?

Curriculum models
- notion of entitlement, breadth and balance?
- differing values for different subjects – ie subject worth?

Grouping of learners
- setted?
- streamed?
- by age?
- mixed ability?
- by interest?

Role of parents/wider community
- active involvement or hindrance?
- potential partners or interference?

Intrinsic worth of education
- empowering?
- controlling?
- school based or lifelong?

How we arrive at the sum of our framework will depend on the experiences, attitudes and values to which we have been exposed.

Personal skills, knowledge and qualities

Accepting what you cannot change and keeping your vision to the fore while dealing with the realities and constraints of the environment in which you work are two characteristics worth developing. Idealism tempered with pragmatism is an approach which is likely to allow you to keep your sense of humour, lessen your frustration and allow you eventually to reach your long-term goals. Recognise when a problem cannot be solved by you and pass it on. To reach this point, you will have developed quite a lot of self-knowledge: knowledge of how to defuse situations by allowing those involved space to reconsider rather than forcing them into a corner; knowledge of how to be assertive rather than aggressive.
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Activity 4.2 Assessing your personal qualities

Consider a list of the qualities and skills you believe to be important for an effective middle manager. Complete the table below. Give yourself a score out of 5 for each quality. You will need to add your score to your list to complete the self-assessment. This will help you to develop in areas where you feel you need further development. Your list will be kept confidential.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Administrative skills</th>
<th>score out of 5</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to share power</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselling skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to deal with conflict constructively</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sense of humour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to give and receive criticism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of fairness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of curriculum developments</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Understanding of the role of the department within the school</td>
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</table>

Managing power

We have already discussed the fact that as a middle manager you will possess more power than the class teacher. In any interpersonal interactions, power relationships will be operating even at a subconscious level. It may help you in developing working relationships with other staff to think about the power relationships operating within the department and the whole school organisation. As a middle manager, on what basis do you expect staff to let you have power to make decisions?

Fritchie and Thorne (1988) write about the need to understand power in organisations:

'An understanding of organisational politics is important for a number of reasons:
1. It is a crucial aspect of getting things done in the organisation – you need to know who will help or hinder you, and why.
2. Your career progress depends to some extent on your "track record" which in turn depends on being able to get things done in the organisation, so... back to Item 1 above!
3. Your career progress also may depend on knowing who the powerful people are in the organisation as far as your promotion is concerned, and what will influence them to support your cause.
4. Organisations have cultures – preferred ways of doing things, ways of treating people, valued ideas or beliefs, acceptable ways of thinking. The people who determine what the culture will be like are the people who have the most power in the organisation. If you want to ensure that the culture reflects your values and interests, it is important to gain and exercise organisational power.'

They identify four bases for power in organisations:

- formal authority
- expertise
- resource control
- personal skills.

You may wish to reflect, for a moment, on which of these give you power in your context. However, other factors can influence your ability to use power appropriately, for example, the micro-politics within the organisation.

Micro-politics

Your use of power is affected by the micro-politics operating in the organisation and the importance of considering this was stressed in Chapter 1. The micro-politics within the educational system influence the implementation of any change and hence cannot be ignored when you as a middle manager consider introducing innovation. The informal culture operating in institutions and the passive resistance of staff to change can effectively block initiatives. Ball (1987) and Davies (1994) in particular warn of the impact of micro-politics on the implementation of innovations.

Bullying and harassment

Unfortunately, some middle and senior managers use their power to bully staff.

'The NASUWT claimed at its recent annual conference that 10,000 teachers were victims of bullying by colleagues and that it was becoming the biggest cause of stress related illness in the profession. A survey by the union indicates that most
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b Bullies are headteachers in their forties, although deputies and department heads were also among the main offenders. (Whitehead, 1996, p. 6).

Whitehead goes on to identifying the characteristics of bullying:

'Bullying among adults usually involves a kind of psychological warfare by someone in a position of authority against a subordinate involving such tactics as constant criticism, public humiliation, undermining of the victim's confidence and setting unreasonable performance targets. Bullies also resort to shouting at the victim in front of colleagues or pupils, arbitrary removal of responsibilities, threats, intimidating use of discipline or isolation.' (Ibid.)

We have also come across the giving of bad confidential references in order to prevent good staff obtaining other posts. This is an insidious form of bullying which may only come to light by accident. One member of staff we know of in this situation found out in Interview. His strategy for avoiding this in the future was to ask the head for a testimonial (ie an open written reference) and to give the deputy head as the confidential referee. Others report inconsistent behaviour on the part of the manager, such as denigration of work, lack of back-up or setting conditions for failure.

Activity 4.1 Bullying and mistreatment

Whitehall leaves the work environment and bullying, including harassment, takes on new dimensions for colleagues that are part of the way in which you deal with the situation.

As a middle manager you may need to support staff who are experiencing such treatment from others in the school or you may find that you experience this yourself. To work with people effectively you need to be able to resolve such situations. Your union is an obvious source of advice on these matters.

Developing your vision for the department

The following examples (pages 43-6), present the visions of a group of middle managers for their own departments or areas of the school. They show a number of ambitions and desires and clearly at their roots is a fundamental set of values held by each individual. The need for motivated staff and pupils, the drive for good working environments and the link between academic and pastoral work are examples.

There is also a strong emphasis upon the working with people element of management. Managers, quite naturally, want other staff to have a set of positive attitudes and to respond in positive ways, ie colleagues should share experiences, pupils are treated like adults (by staff) and so on. This emphasises that managers need to work with and through others.

There are some interesting anomalies, contradictions and questions that arise from the vision statements. For example, what is behind the statement about perceived 'economic viability' (Dipak, page 44). What is the concern about 'homework' being expressed (Frank, page 46). How does one equate talking about being 'part of the school and not out on a limb' with the reference to the rest of the school as 'they' (Dave, page 45). In terms of 'they will understand, they will appreciate?'

Vision statements reveal a lot about our concerns, beliefs and values. A critical friend may be particularly helpful in helping you unlock the vision you hold as a middle manager.

The middle managers providing these vision statements were also asked what difficulties they faced in implementing the vision, that is they were asked to reflect upon the difficulties they might predict. These views are presented in Table 4.3. Again the list suggests a high degree of concern for what other people might or not do to hinder the development of the vision in practice. This suggests that building the vision together with other people should be an imperative. Getting others to be as enthusiastic as you are about it and letting them contribute to the developing vision is a central task if you are to be successful.

Chris: Vision for year seven

- The transition to secondary school is not traumatic
- There is academic progression from primary school for all levels of ability
- Children are stimulated and socialised by extra-curricular activities
- Children feel safe and secure
- Children are familiar and comfortable with the culture and demands of secondary school
- Children look forward to returning to school in year 8.
bullies are headteachers in their forties, although deputies and department heads were also among the main offenders.' (Whitehead, 1996, p. 6).

Whitehead goes on to identifying the characteristics of bullying:

'Bullying among adults usually involves a kind of psychological warfare by someone in a position of authority against a subordinate involving such tactics as constant criticism, public humiliation, undermining of the victim’s confidence and setting unreasonable performance targets. Bullies also resort to shouting at the victim in front of colleagues or pupils, arbitrary removal of responsibilities, threats, intimidating use of discipline or isolation.' (ibid.)

We have also come across the giving of bad confidential references in order to prevent good staff obtaining other posts. This is an insidious form of bullying which may only come to light by accident. One member of staff we know of in this situation found out in interview. His strategy for avoiding this in the future was to ask the head for a testimonial (ie an open written reference) and to give the deputy head as the confidential referee. Others report inconsistent behaviour on the part of the manager, such as denigration of work, lack of back-up or setting conditions for failure.

As a middle manager you may need to support staff who are experiencing such treatment from others in the school or you may find that you experience this yourself. To work with people effectively you need to be able to resolve such situations. Your union is an obvious source of advice on these matters.

Developing your vision for the department

The following examples (pages 43–6), present the visions of a group of middle managers for their own departments or areas of the school. They show a number of ambitions and desires and clearly at their roots is a fundamental set of values held by each individual. The need for motivated staff and pupils, the drive for good working environments and the link between academic and pastoral work are examples.

There is also a strong emphasis upon the working with people element of management. Managers, quite naturally, want other staff to have a set of positive attitudes and to respond in positive ways, ie colleagues should share experiences, pupils are treated like adults (by staff) and so on. This emphasises that managers need to work with and through others.

There are some interesting anomalies, contradictions and questions that arise from the vision statements. For example, what is behind the statement about perceived ‘economic viability’ (Dipak, page 44). What is the concern about ‘homework’ being expressed (Frank, page 46). How does one equate talking about being ‘part of the school and not out on a limb’ with the reference to the rest of the school as ‘they’ (Dave, page 45), in terms of ‘they will understand, they will appreciate’?

Vision statements reveal a lot about our concerns, beliefs and values. A critical friend may be particularly helpful in helping you unlock the vision you hold as a middle manager.

The middle managers providing these vision statements were also asked what difficulties they faced in implementing the vision, that is they were asked to reflect upon the difficulties they might predict. These views are presented in Table 4.3. Again the list suggests a high degree of concern for what other people might do or not do to hinder the development of the vision in practice. This suggests that building the vision together with other people should be an imperative. Getting others to be as enthusiastic as you are about it and letting them contribute to the developing vision is a central task if you are to be successful.

Chris: Vision for year seven

- The transition to secondary school is not traumatic
- There is academic progression from primary school for all levels of ability
- Children are stimulated and socialised by extra-curricular activities
- Children feel safe and secure
- Children are familiar and comfortable with the culture and demands of secondary school
- Children look forward to returning to school in year 8.
Anita: Vision of the maths department

- Pupils to love mathematics
- Pupils discuss maths at every opportunity
- Attainment is raised
- Colleagues share their classroom experiences
- Colleagues in other areas are using maths ideas as starting points for their own work
- Colleagues are willing to share ideas and experiences with other departments
- A culture of success is established.

Dipak: A vision for the school

The kind of school I would like to teach in would value pupils as individuals who can be encouraged to excel in academic and non-academic areas. Pupils are secure in the knowledge that their future is valued and that the staff take an active interest in this. There is an open door policy and relaxed and respectful parent-teacher relationships. There is a healthy balance between academic and non-academic areas. Strong pastoral support is built into every department and not perceived as a separate issue. Pupils are encouraged to follow their own interests and goals, regardless of what is perceived to be 'economically viable'.

Jen: IT across the school – looking to the future

- Students using IT as a tool to develop their research
- The school looking to the future
- Staff using IT in their presentations
- Internet access across the network
- Making IT learning fun
- Staff using IT for themselves
- Preparation of students for forthcoming technologies
- Students who can use their IT skills to solve problems and develop their thinking
- Multimedia authoring and the development of multimedia packages
- All staff being able to assess the present National Curriculum levels for IT as students use IT
- All areas joined to the network or served by stand-alone computers as appropriate
- Equal access to computers by all students when they need to use them

Dave: A vision for the drama department

Staff and pupils create an enjoyable, positive atmosphere to work in. The department within the school is a positive, busy, creative area as a functioning part of the whole school, not in isolation. The main body of the school will understand and appreciate the contribution of drama to the overall vision of the school.
Anita: Vision of the maths department

- Pupils to love mathematics
- Pupils discuss maths at every opportunity
- Attainment is raised
- Colleagues share their classroom experiences
- Colleagues in other areas are using maths ideas as starting points for their own work
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Jen: IT across the school – looking to the future

Students using IT as a tool to develop their research
The school looking to the future
Internet access across the network
Making IT learning fun
Preparation of students for forthcoming technologies
Multimedia authoring and the development of multimedia packages
All staff using IT themselves
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Ajita: A vision for the sixth form

- The best VI form
- Pupils want to be there
- Pupils motivated, committed to work and study
- Good results, social life, being ahead of the times
- Wonderful working environment
- Staff offer support and guidance to improve the knowledge and skills of pupils
- Staff treat pupils as maturing adults
- Students become empowered to enquire, they should enjoy learning, have respect for other people's views and opinions
- Staff engage in learning themselves, understand the problems others have when learning. They have respect for the pupils they teach, are self-critical but listen to the views of others. They are prepared to change to improve the learning opportunities of others.

Frank: A vision for lessons

Pupils and teachers arrive for the lessons with an enthusiastic sense of purpose, knowing that they are going to learn something about the subject, the world, about themselves and each other. They will feel physically and emotionally safe but challenged. They will enjoy being in an attractive and evolving physical environment and be sad to leave at the end of the lesson. They will feel proud of what they have learnt and want to learn more. They will be eager to rush home and complete their homework which they know will enrich them.

Activity 4.4 A vision for lessons

Table 4.3 lists some of the difficulties in putting your vision in place. These were identified by a group of experienced middle managers.

Table 4.3 Difficulties of Implementing the vision

- Getting consistency across all staff (see Chapter 16).
- The minority destroys the work of the majority.
- Not having control.
- Finances controlled by SMT (see Chapter 15).
- Dependence on others to succeed.
- Pressure of time and concern for standards (see Chapter 13).
- Lack of professionalism.
- Utopia being a long way from reality.
Ajita: A vision for the sixth form

- The best VI form
- Pupils want to be there
- Pupils motivated, committed to work and study
- Good results, social life, being ahead of the times
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Activity 4.4 Analyzing your vision

Table 4.3 lists some of the difficulties in putting your vision in place. These were identified by a group of experienced middle managers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.3</th>
<th>Difficulties of implementing the vision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Getting consistency across all staff (see Chapter 16).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The minority destroys the work of the majority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not having control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finances controlled by SMT (see Chapter 15).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dependence on others to succeed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pressure of time and concern for standards (see Chapter 13).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of professionalism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Utopia being a long way from reality.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some staff may never accept this approach to planning and working and it might be that you decide that the investment of time and energy required to change their views is not justified — focusing your energies on the areas where change is more likely may be the most effective strategy to adopt in the context in which you find yourself. Turning the vision into action is the focus of Chapter 11.

Conclusion

Because your effectiveness is determined to a large extent by the context in which you work, a considerable part of this book is devoted to developing your understanding of how your values and beliefs about teaching, learning and management fit with this environment. Your ability to understand yourself and the micro-politics of the organisation, and to work effectively within these boundaries, is crucial to success in your career. Staff in your department will hold differing values and beliefs about teaching, schooling, education and learning. Discovering the values and beliefs they hold is explored more fully in Chapter 9. The extent to which you are able to work with these differences will to some extent determine your success in building an effective department in which both pupils and teachers are achieving high standards.
Values, Beliefs, Vision: Where do you stand?

Bibliography

Paper 36


Turning your vision to action:
The Planning Process

Chapter 11

Leask, M. in Leask, M. and Terrell, I. 
Development Planning and School Improvement for Middle Managers

London, Kogan Page
ISBN 0 7494 2038 3
How do you think the quality of the current work of your section can be improved? You may have a clear vision of how you want things to be or a vague inkling that your section could be more effective, but be unsure about where you should start.

The planning process offers a framework which you can use to guide your analysis of problems, your thinking about the solutions and the monitoring of any changes you decide to put into place.

If you are in a school where the whole-school development process is well understood by all members of staff then your task in developing a departmental/team plan may be relatively easy. On the other hand, if understanding about the process is weak then you need to make decisions about the best way to introduce the process to staff.

By the end of this chapter, you should understand how development planning and action planning can help you achieve your goals, and have analysed the conditions for development in your area of responsibility. The general process of development planning is discussed, as is the rationale of establishing your own private strategic plan for the development of your work.

Your (private) strategic plan

Plans for the development of your area of responsibility are built on the foundation provided by you as a manager. Your ability to analyse successfully the conditions inhibiting and supporting development is crucial to the achievement
of goals for improvement. In addition, your ability to provide solutions to problems, as well as resources to support change, enables development to take place. Your management skills provide the environment which supports or stifles development and improvement.

Your private strategic plan (see Figure 11.1) is your personal plan for managing the development of work in your area. The ideas in this private plan are introduced over time, as appropriate, to discussions about the department/team’s development plan. This is the development plan which details the section’s priorities and which is produced by all staff working together to develop a shared and agreed sense of direction to the development, as well as a rational framework for the allocation of resources.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The department or team’s development plan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your vision for the department or team’s development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your analysis of the conditions inhibiting and supporting development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your identification of solutions to problems and the resources required to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff views and evidence about priorities collected views of pupils, parents and others as appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priorities chosen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action plans constructed, implemented and evaluated over time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School priorities as set out in the school plan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11.1 Turning your vision into action

Chapter 2 introduced the idea of structured reflective practice as a means of systematically examining your practice. The reference to your reflective journal throughout this book is linked with this strategy of reflective practice. Recording the results of your reflection and linking this with strategies for improvement provides you with the basis of a personal strategic plan. If you envisage considerable change in the work of the department or team, you will have to make a decision about your strategy for implementing this change. This may involve telling staff everything at once or it may require you to introduce ideas gradually, and ensure these are implemented and embedded in practice before you move on to the next goal. Decisions about how to implement change have to be taken by you and the implementation process required to ensure that change actually takes place is discussed in Chapter 12.

Therefore, your strategic plan may be a private document or you may use it with others for particular purposes, e.g., when making a case to senior management for resources of a particular type – a new staff member with a particular specialist area. Chapters 15 and 16 provide advice about resource and staffing plans.

The strategic plan may consist of a series of notes under key headings (material resources, staffing, curriculum, communication strategies, staff development) to which you add comments over a period of years or it may be more formally written up. The important part of the plan is that it is kept on hand to guide your work. The document itself is likely to be brief. You may consider keeping it in your reflective journal or along with other important records and notes of other key decisions in a ring binder, a file or a hard-cover notebook.

Why do you need a strategic plan?

You are the person responsible to the head and governors for work in a particular area. Carrying out that responsibility means that ultimately you can be required to justify any decisions which are made about the running of your section, e.g., about the curriculum, the staffing, the resources. The final responsibility cannot be delegated. This means that in becoming a middle manager you are accepting a different role to the class teacher. Head teachers have a similar responsibility for the whole school. In our experience, staff sometimes criticise decision making procedures in schools for not being sufficiently democratic. However, an examination of the responsibilities of the head and middle managers indicates that these are the staff who ultimately are held responsible. Class teachers do not carry this responsibility; they are not accountable for the work of the whole section. Therefore, although a democratic approach to decision making can be helpful in giving staff ownership of ideas, because you carry the final responsibility, you may consider that you must have a final veto on decisions. How decisions are made in your department or team is, in itself, a decision you make as a manager.

Producing your strategic plan

The stages to be gone through in producing a strategic plan are similar to that for development planning in general (see Figure 11.2). However, the purpose of your strategic plan is different – in that it is your personal guide to development – so the planning process as it relates to the stages of review, audit, prioritising, implementation and evaluation is likely to be informal and private. Reflection on what needs to be done in the four management dimensions identified in Chapter 2 may provide a useful starting point. (The dimensions are: management tasks, ways in which you work with people,
who you are in the context in which you work, your philosophy of teaching and learning.

The stages in development planning are discussed more fully in following sections.

![Diagram of the planning cycle]

**Figure 11.2 The planning cycle**

**Development planning**

In 1989, in the UK the Department of Education and Science provided advice about the process of producing a school development plan to schools in England and Wales (Hargreaves, et al., 1989). This advice was drawn from practice developed in schools in a number of LEAs. Originally the planning process was seen as a way of involving staff (and parents, pupils and governors) in decisions about the priorities for school development. But inevitably practice in schools has varied and in some schools the experience of managing the planning process may be confined to the senior management team. Experience since 1989 suggests that in large schools while the school plan sets out overarching goals for development, this plan needs to be underpinned by detailed planning at department or team level. In this section, we focus on planning at the department or team level.

The planning process can, in itself, promote discussion which brings about change. However, if development planning is seen by staff as an administrative duty, ie something to be produced to satisfy senior management or inspectors, then the potential of the process to promote development is lost. In the right circumstances, the planning process provides a tool for team building, for developing consensus about priorities for development, and the means of achieving and evaluating development.

**What is a department/team development plan?**

Effective development plans are those which are actually used by staff to bring about desired changes. The department or team development plan needs to be a short working document which gives those reading it an understanding of:

- the priorities pinpointed for development;
- the tasks to be done;
- proposed timescales for implementing change;
- the resources required;
- the people responsible;
- how progress will be evaluated and reported.

The relationship between the department or team plan and the school plan is shown in Figure 11.3.

![Diagram showing the relationship between department or team plans and the overall school plan]

**Figure 11.3 The relationship between department or team plans and the overall school plan**

**Why have a department/team development plan?**

While you may have a vision and a strategic plan, without the support of your staff you will achieve little. Development planning provides a process which enables you to couple the vision you have with that of the staff so that together, in a planned and managed way, you are able to translate the shared vision into action. Discussion about priorities for development allows this generating of a shared vision.
Planning in a systematic way may:

- guide your section in developing and improving aspects of your work in a steady way over time;
- provide a focus for decision making about the allocation of resources for staff development and materials;
- provide a structure which encourages the staff to discuss their values and to develop a shared philosophy of teaching and learning issues;
- support the development of an ethos where staff share common goals and have a shared sense of direction;
- support staff in working systematically to solve problems and improve;
- provide professional development for staff about approaches to middle management;
- provide a clear rationale for delegation of responsibility within the department or team.

However, there can be a downside to planning:

- expectations of what can be achieved are too high and frustration or disappointment may result;
- some staff may never participate fully in the exercise.

Strategies for dealing with conflict are discussed in Chapter 8 and the text *Handling Conflict and Negotiation* provides further advice (Manchester Open Learning, 1993). When you wonder whether planning is worth the effort, consider the alternatives:

- there may be no agreement among staff about shared goals;
- your effectiveness as an advocate for your section is lessened as there is no evidence that your demands have staff support or are thought through fully;
- reviews of the section's work are not linked to overall strategies for improvement.

Table 11.1 lists some of the views middle managers hold about the process of development planning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 11.1 The development plan: for and against</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The following accounts are fiction in as much as no one said all of these things... But the sentiments have been expressed by different people. They are both intended to provide genuine perspectives but they are reflections rather than images.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jo
There is no point in writing a DP. It has no useful purpose. It is merely an administrative task – a complete waste of time. The only function is to keep those above you off your backs and keeps the LEA happy. We cannot plan in our department because there are lots of factors beyond our control. Things keep changing so rapidly, I don't even know who is in my department next year.

I write the DP myself based upon what I know. It's intuitive. None of the department are interested and they don't want to do any input. There is not enough time to do the job of teaching.

The school DP itself is turgid. It's too large to be useful and everyone is heading off in different directions. It's just not cohesive.

Joanne
I have found writing the DP a very useful exercise. It has helped me to clarify my plans and set targets and goals that are attainable. I have been able to establish priorities for the future.

I try to involve as many people as possible so that all of my department know what needs to be done, where we are going and why. Some of the department draft bits of the DP and we all get together to amend their drafts before I put it all together. I speak to every member of the department about their Individual Inset plans for the future year.

DP writing provides a good opportunity to put together fresh ideas. On the other hand, we are able to plan something that is really manageable. I use the DP as a checklist of events and activities and it keeps us on track for the rest of the year.

We use it to form a framework for department meetings for the rest of the year. We are able to monitor and review our progress. When things don't go right, we can reflect upon why and try not to make the same mistake next year.

Next year I think I might try to meet with senior staff to sort out difficulties and try to liaise with other departments in my area more. (from Terrell, 1989)

It seems apparent that the usefulness of the process depends very much on the context in which you find yourself. One middle manager reported that when she found resistance to planning from staff, and no support for the process from management, she managed the development of the department through a private strategic plan. In spite of the lack of involvement from staff, there was enormous change in the section over a three-year period as she managed to implement her vision – because goals and achievements had been noted in staff meeting minutes, it was easy to track the development which had occurred.
The planning process is a tool to enable you and the staff to work more effectively. Beware of a tendency to try to do too much too soon so that staff become disillusioned. Focusing on small, achievable goals is a realistic way to improve, given the demands of the normal daily work of teachers.

Four stages in the planning process

The stages of preparing a department/team development plan are the same as for a whole-school plan. One way of looking at these stages is to consider the questions which have to be answered at each stage:

Stage 1 Review/Audit

Where are we now?
Where do we want to be?
How are we going to get there?
What is realistic within the resources available?
Who is going to do the work?
By when does the work have to be done?
How are we going to check how our plans are going in practice? (planning evaluation)

Stage 2 Prioritising and constructing the plan

How do we ensure that the changes actually happen?
I have our plans had the effect intended? If not, what went well and why, and what did not go well and why?

Stage 3 Implementation

Stage 4 Evaluation (evaluation should take place during as well as at the end of the implementation stage)

Before undertaking planning in the department, you need to ensure that the process is linked appropriately with any school review/development planning processes which are taking place.

Stage 1 Review/audit

The ideas from your strategic plan feed into the development planning process at the review/audit stage.

The review (audit) stage is used to establish strengths and weaknesses in order to choose the priorities for development. All those connected with a department/team have different perspectives. Younger pupils have different viewpoints to older pupils, parents different to teachers, the head and governors too will have individual perspectives.

At department or team level, it may not be appropriate to gain parents' views. Parents' views can be gained at parents' evenings or through letters home. Pupils' views can be collected via the School Council, or through questionnaires or small group interviews. Pupils often come up with perspectives which enable staff to understand how the school functions at the pupil level.

There are a number of short effective strategies for analysing the work of the department or a team which can be used with small groups or you may find them effective to use yourself in establishing your priorities for your area of responsibility. Details of two of these - SWOT exercises and the nominal group technique - are given below.

The SWOT exercise

The initials SWOT stand for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. Table 11.2 provides an example of a simple planning proforma for this exercise.

Table 11.2 SWOT analysis proforma

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue to be analysed</th>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses (eg pupil motivation, staff knowledge, resources)</th>
<th>Opportunities (for improvement)</th>
<th>Threats (limiting improvement)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eg pupil attachment</td>
<td>girls perform well</td>
<td>boys' motivation seems to be less than girls</td>
<td>elevating parental support</td>
<td>poor attitudes to homework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>examinations at age 16</td>
<td>average grades are rising</td>
<td>raising pupil aspirations</td>
<td>community experience of lack of employment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nominal Group Technique
The technique aims to protect the expression of individual views while permitting any consensus of view to be identified. It consists of the following phases:

1. Presentation of the task (question or problem).
2. Individual (silent) nominations.
3. Round-robin listing (master list construction).
4. Item clarification.
5. Evaluation by rank ordering items.
6. Discussion and subsequent action.

The group leader's role is governed by the following instructions:

- Do not re-interpret a person's idea(s).
- Use the participant's own wording.
- Do not interject your own ideas – you are not participating.
- Give people time to think.
- This is not a debate – do not allow participants to challenge each other.
- Do not try to interpret results – do not look for a pattern. (Elliott, 1982, p. 68)

Priorities identified in this way are fed into stage 2 of the planning process which results in the construction of detailed action plans for achieving change.

Stage 2 Prioritise, construct overall plan and action plans

Priorities
It is easy to come up with so many areas for development and improvement that the task of accomplishing anything can be daunting. Priorities need to be organised into those that are urgent, those that need attention in the short term and those that can be attended to in the longer term. They also need to be considered in terms of demands they will make on the staff resources you have available.

Action plans
Action plans provide the working guide to action. Action plans are drawn up to include details of what is to be done, the timescales involved and the criteria for judging success. An action planning format, such as that in Table 11.3, provides a concise and clear method for setting out your plans. Filling in the action plans needs to be carefully managed if you are to achieve commitment to development from other members of the section. The establishing of 'success criteria' or 'performance indicators' needs to be done in such a way that goals are achievable.
Success criteria
Success criteria (column 5, of Table 11.3) are simply statements about what standards have to be achieved, by when. These are planned at the early stages to provide a clear focus for those who are undertaking the work. The precise identification of criteria for success helps in evaluating whether goals are realistically achievable or not and what evidence must be collected by when, so that the judgement about success can be made (further details about success criteria and their application are provided in Chapter 12).

Stage 3 Implement and evaluate
This is such an important area that we have devoted a whole chapter to the issues of maintaining the momentum of the work as planned and then collecting data about how things are going, the analysis and reporting of the findings. Chapter 12 provides these details. It is worth noting at this point that those staff who are undertaking MA study will often have assignments or will be undertaking dissertations which can, if focused on the work of the section, be designed to evaluate progress in achieving development plan goals.

Stage 4 Take stock and plan the next cycle
At some point, termly or yearly, one cycle should end, and the next begin. This gives the opportunity to examine and record what has happened – formally in a staff meeting – and to move on. While there will be some successes there will also be failures. It is important to recognise the successes and to put the failures behind the section. A formal 'taking stock' provides this opportunity.

Conclusion
Planning offers the opportunity to choose between crisis management or strategic management: the choice is yours. We have little sympathy with those who see planning as constraining development. Take the analogy of two car drivers who both wish to get to the same destination. One has no map, the other has an incomplete map requiring the driver to ask directions occasionally. We feel the second option gives the driver more chance of arriving at the desired destination within a reasonable timescale. Similarly, an imperfect plan is likely to be more use than no plan at all. The effectiveness of any plan produced does depend on the creativity and commitment of those involved. Inflexible planning clearly straight-jackets development and we would not recommend such an approach. In addition, where the development plan becomes part of the inspection process development may be stifled. The commitment of staff is vital – improvement through planning involves not just the achieving of tasks and targets, it also involves working with people, within the constraints of the work environment, to allow all to work towards improvement.
Paper 36

Turning your vision to action: The Planning Process

Bibliography


The Internet and School Management: a glimpse of the future

with Falconer, A. And Terrell, I.

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paper presented at the

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The Internet and School Management: a glimpse of the future

INTRODUCTION

We believe that those of us in higher education have a responsibility through our research to identify high quality emerging practice, to record this, to disseminate the findings and to ensure as far as possible, that change occurs as a result. This is an iterative process and we encourage all reading this paper, as leaders in educational thinking to take up the challenge of change which is discussed here and to consider their own practice and that within their institution. As teacher educators, we need to look to the future and consider whether our teaching programmes are preparing our students to cope with the emerging practice in the application of Internet-based technology to the management of education systems and to approaches to teaching and learning.

Background to this paper

The work of the Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Education research group of which we are part is focused on:
- impact of ICT on pedagogy both in school and HE
- the investigation of the potential of ICT to support the roles and responsibilities of management within a school
- opportunities ICT offers for professional development.

In this paper, we focus particularly on the potential of ICT to support the roles and responsibilities of school management. It is based on the following evidence:
- analysis of OFSTED reports (which are published on the Internet)
- data collected during school inspections related to the use of ICT by teachers
- on-going research with student teachers on the use of reflective diaries
- meta-evaluation of the outcomes of various ICT initiatives in which we are or have been involved in (Project Connect, Resource Based Learning in Architecture and Urban Studies, newImages initiative, TeacherNet UK and European School Net development)
- data collected on a longitudinal study involving 100 schools

It builds on earlier research on management, professional development and inspection in which we have been involved.

Roles and Responsibilities of Management considered in this paper

Substantial work in the area of management roles and responsibilities has been undertaken and the work of Nias, Southworth, Hopkins, Mortimore, Hargreaves (D.H.), Hargreaves (A), Broadfoot, Osborn, Hall, Ainscow, West, West-Burnham, Bolam, Eraut and Yeomans provide useful starting points from different angles for those unfamiliar with the field. For the purpose of our research, we are focusing on the following roles and responsibilities of management:
1. developing staff (with a view to raising achievement through improving the quality of teaching and learning):
   - creating opportunities for professional dialogue, professional development, mentoring and critical reflection
   - ensuring access to research findings and information in general
2. creating a school culture and ethos including the consideration of values and vision espoused by the management
3. developing the curriculum
4. selecting staff
5. managing finances and material resources

From our work on school improvement, we consider that the role of the middle manager (the subject leader/head of department) is not sufficiently considered in the school management literature (Leask
and Terrell, 1997) yet middle managers are well positioned to act as change agents in schools. For the purposes of this paper, the term school management is taken to include this group.

1 DEVELOPING STAFF (THROUGH THE USE OF THE NEW TECHNOLOGIES.)

Professional Dialogue, professional development and mentoring

The potential of the new technologies to aid communication across long distances provides new opportunities for managers to develop the knowledge skills and abilities of staff. Video conferencing, and e-mail, as well as WWW forums allow professionals to engage in professional dialogue.

A small number of professionals are already involved in on-line discussions of issues and solutions; examples in the UK include Headnet - a Technology Colleges Trust initiative, the SENCO forum, an NCET initiative and of course the conferencing systems used by a number of universities for their student teachers which are often based on the First Class software. Commercial providers of on line services for teachers also provide opportunities for forums. These forums can be designed to fulfil a mentoring role - with for example, subject associations (SHA, NAHT for headteachers) ensuring that such services are available as part of the services they provide their members.

Some consultation exercises and conferences which are currently undertaken by traditional means (meetings and paper based consultation) can be opened up to the wider teaching community through the use of electronic conferencing systems. Issues of current general concern to all teachers include the development of the National Curriculum, preparation for OFSTED inspection or assessment and reporting procedures. These examples from the recent past, where conferences and discussion have already taken place have been chosen because they illustrate the new potential. There may be less or no need to travel to conferences, to gather together to allow discussion to take place. Communication can be achieved at a distance. A larger number of staff can take part, rather than singly. Discussion can be recorded and gone back over, perhaps even as inset for other staff. The bounds of fixed time periods for conferencing are broken by technology. It is possible to have "ongoing" discussion over days, weeks or even potentially years. The software being used for the TeacherNet UK initiative allows participants to set up forums around their own interests and any reading this paper who are interested in participating in developing these forums and in taking part in development are invited to contact the project officer on mnetuk@dmu.ac.uk.

On-line critical reflection

One aspect, which we will be exploring further, is the potential for new technologies to aid critical reflection. Erat (1995), in his critique of the work of Schon has emphasised the notion of "reflection on action" and for the purpose of learning. Leask and Terrell (1997) call for "deep reflection", which leads to significant learning. Terrell and Venn (1997) have called for more emphasis on the role of the facilitator of reflection.

Terrell and Leask (1997) suggest four approaches to reflection and each may be enhanced in its own way by the new technologies. They are the use of:

- reflective journals
- a critical friend consultancy model
- quality circles
- collaborative action research.

Here a key role may be played by HE and LEAs providing the expertise in facilitating learning from reflection on experience.

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1 TeacherNet UK is an initiative supporting the development of a national professional web site for teachers. Members of the steering group are drawn from a wide range of educational organisations across England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales. The prototype website url is http://teachernetuk.ultralab.anglia.ac.uk.
Access to research findings and information in general

The power of the new technologies also lies in creating access to information. Such information may be in the form of:

- research reports (eg Education-line: http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/)
- government documents (eg http://www.teach-tta.gov.uk;
  http://www.open.gov.uk/ofsted/ofsted.htm)
- data such as examination statistics.

Research reports and the Teacher as Researcher Movement

New technologies provide a potential boost for the Teacher as Researcher and action research movement. Aided by a government and GTCs (Scotland, England and possibly Wales and Northern Ireland) committed to making teaching a research based profession, it is possible to envisage considerable enhancement of the sharing of research between practitioners. Whitehead (1996) has called for the publication of case studies of action research via the Internet. These are developing already and MirandaNet (c/o Tina Preston, University of London, Institute of Education) provides examples of how this is done.

Using government papers to support school improvement

As well as educational texts, schools can now draw upon a huge resource of government documents via the Internet. For the purposes of this paper, we provide an example of how the on-line versions of OFSTED reports can be used by management to provide information supporting a school’s preparation for OFSTED inspection. As these reports are available on the web, they can be downloaded and searched by key word by managers wishing to gain insights into the key issues and general weaknesses which inspectors are focusing on at any particular time.

The OFSTED data on schools that have been inspected and the report outlining the strengths and weaknesses of each school are available on the web (http://www.open.gov.uk/ofsted/ofsted.htm). These provide a general picture of the strengths and weaknesses of schools and allow other schools to reflect on their own situation as well as giving opportunities for them to raise questions about their own strengths and weaknesses. Attention to the sections on the OFSTED data base on main findings, key issues and efficiency, will give school managers an insight into a number of aspects of school management that need to be addressed across the country. This can be used for administering a self health-check.

For example, in the section of the reports dealing with key issues, it is not uncommon to find statements such as:

To improve the standards of achievement and the quality of education provided, the governors, headteachers and staff should:

(each of the below is taken from a separate report)

- 'implement a more effective management structure and further develop the role of the co-ordinators to enable them to have a greater influence on their subject and aspect responsibilities';
- 're-assess the balance of staff subject co-ordination responsibilities including those of senior management';
- 'extend and develop the role of subject co-ordinators so that they have in all cases the knowledge and confidence to lead work in their subject area and monitor and evaluate its delivery';
- 'further develop the role of the senior management and co-ordinators in the monitoring and evaluation of the quality of provision including teachers' planning';
- 'clearly prioritise the deployment of the senior management team to match the needs identified in the school development plan';
• 'develop the role of the subject manager to include monitoring and evaluation of their subject area and to share good practice'.

Clearly there are common weaknesses running through the management systems of primary schools and considerable concern in relation to the management of key people and their functions. Managers in schools could use the OFSTED database to identify issues which are likely to be problematic so that the energies put into preparing a school for OFSTED inspection can be directed into ensuring that areas which are generally weak in schools are strengthened in their own school.

We suggest that schools faced with inspections could use the Internet and the OFSTED data base as:

• a way of self-reflection by analysing the common strengths and weaknesses in reports and by drawing up a checklist of strengths and weaknesses which can be used to build a programme for enriching school based INSET;

• a cost effective way of communicating with each other via the Internet and entering into constructive discussions on the issues in order to share good practice (when time and distance would otherwise not allow for travel for instance);

• the facilitation of an ideas bank for tackling common problems that have been encountered and met successfully;

• a way of sharing experiences about what can otherwise seem like a burden which many managers bear without support and often in isolation.

West and Ainscow (1991) in the preface of their book on managing school development state that their intended audience includes all those concerned with improving the effectiveness of schools and that the book is characterised as 'a practical guide'.

'Our intention has been to provide an easy to read, accessible text that allows busy people to engage in key issues, reflect upon relevant ideas and learn about specific techniques. We have also provided details of sources of further information for those readers who wish to pursue particular topics in great detail.'

Clearly texts of this nature have supported educators and managers a great deal but consider for a moment the power of the Internet in terms of allowing teachers to access information, share common issues and work together to produce positive outcomes.

2 CREATING A SCHOOL CULTURE AND ETHOS

If the potential of ICT to enhance the teaching and learning process is to be realised in our schools, then who is responsible for making this happen? Clearly within the school, management have the responsibility to ensure that the children for whom they are responsible are not denied opportunities provided for all children in schools which have understood how to harness, effectively, technology to support teaching and learning.

If management use the technology then they can legitimately expect staff to do so too. Providing the opportunities for staff to 'play' with the Internet through providing staff room access is one way of developing skills - particularly, in our experience, when sites with information about cheap flights and holiday opportunities and sites with relevant financial information become known. The same principles which apply to pupil learning can be seen to apply to staff learning - the need for relevance of the material and a supportive learning environment are just two of the principles which apply.

Evidence is emerging from our work which suggests that the access to experts which teachers have with some Internet curriculum projects, has a number of spin-offs.
teacher professional development occurs as the teacher learns from the expert (for example, from
the answers to children's questions or their own questions);

- teachers become more aware of children's misconceptions and their prior learning as they
articulate questions for the expert;

- there is a break down of teacher isolation and teachers do not feel they have to know everything;

- access to the experts which usually does not require payment is highly valued as in so many
circumstances, schools have to pay experts (even the local police officer in some schools) to visit
the school. 'It's a generous system' said one teacher.

The Secondary Heads Association (1997, p.1) note that 'in the school of the future, teachers no longer
have a monopoly of knowledge or the access to it'.

3 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Evidence of the role of IT in enhancing pupils' achievement is available (Cox, 1997; NCET, 1994;
Watson, 1993). Clearly inset about the curriculum opportunities available through using the web can
stimulate staff to use the resources of the web in their teaching. Many examples of email projects with
schools abroad abound with many focusing on issues related to the science, English, mathematics,
geography and history curriculum. The newspaper archives on the web are proving particularly useful
to pupils in certain subjects eg business studies.

Wild (1996, p.135) identifies some of the issues which limit the use of IT by teachers. Our own
experience supports his findings:

- IT skills;
- problems of gaining access at times to suit the teacher;
- demotivating experiences with hardware and software which is unsatisfactory or where there is
lack of support;
- and, importantly, a lack of knowledge of the curriculum applications.

If, as the Stevenson Report and the white paper Excellence for Schools promises, a national electronic
teachers' network is established (which TeacherNet UK aims to act as a test bed for) then access to
knowledge about curriculum applications should be enhanced. If too, the envisaged lottery money for
training of teachers is available then skills training should be more easily available for teachers.
Solving the problem of access requires more imaginative thinking - tax relief and VAT relief on
teachers' purchases of computers would help as would arrangements with telecommunications
providers to provide a fixed cost for call charges between teachers' homes and their Internet service
providers. Technical support is a more difficult issue to solve but there are a number of creative
solutions put forward: a national help desk...a qualification designed to attract mothers returning to
work who wish to work school hours and who might wish to take up the post of computer
technician/support officer, grouping primary and secondary schools using combined resources to buy
support.

4 SELECTING STAFF

Examples of effective web-based recruitment services already exist eg Guardian RecruitNet.
Individuals seeking jobs can also post their details on some services. To what extent there will be a
shift away from paper-based recruitment strategies to web-based strategies will largely be determined
by the levels of access teachers have to the Internet and the costs involved.

5. MANAGING FINANCES AND MATERIAL RESOURCES

LEAs across the country have established systems for supporting management in these areas. It is in
the areas of staff and curriculum development outlined above where the potential of ICT to change
practice is particularly underdeveloped.
NEW MANAGEMENT CHALLENGES

New challenges are created for the manager in creating partnerships with LEAs and HE to enhance learning. Such partnerships being based not on the tradition of knowledge and "know how" of the expert but on ways of supporting the needs of the "client" in their pursuit of learning.

There is also the development of new challenges in the management of the new technologies themselves. Terrell and Leask (1997) have shown for instance that managers need to

- establish experiments, exemplars and
- tap the potential of new technologies to build resources over a period of time;
- create and manage new relationships between technicians, learners and educational staff;
- raise fundamental questions about teaching, learning and assessing with staff.

The political context in which school managers operate

School management has been a focus for concern for many years not least because of the inconsistencies in both the approaches to school improvement and in the measure of success or otherwise that has been derived from the different approaches. Davies and Ellison (1994) ask the question:

"Do we have an effective curriculum and high quality leadership and management or are we lurching from one crisis to another with the result that the pupils suffer?"

In the light of some schools failing to measure up to an OFSTED inspection and in the light of many schools demonstrating weaknesses in management, one has to query the effectiveness of the level of support and of the level of monitoring at both national and local levels, not only in the recent years of L.M.S. and the national curriculum but also in the years preceding and leading up to the advocated educational approaches of the late eighties and the nineties. Such was the level of concern that the Secretary of State for Education commissioned a report on the current state of education in primary schools. Davies and Ellison state that the brief was to review 'available evidence about delivery of education in primary schools' in order to 'make recommendations about curriculum organisation, teaching methods and classroom practice appropriate to the implementation of the National Curriculum particularly in key stage 2'. Ellison continues, stating that the report 'emphasised the importance of the role of the headteacher in managing the school and in influencing the quality of classroom learning'.

Tiptoeing through the political and educational rhetoric has not and will not aid those headteachers who require help to become good managers and leaders if there is not the opportunity to demonstrate by example the ways in which successful schools operate. But then the idea of having a panacea for all schools, for all occasions is somewhat naive. One could compare this idea with the notion that all pupils, irrespective of levels of intelligence or types of needs, or rates of learning or interest levels in their work are capable of covering the same work at the same rate with the same levels of understanding. As good as it may be to have role models, transferring ideologies and practices from one school to another probably has a similar success rate to that of transplanting vital organs from one being to another.

What is really essential is for the schools to be able to reflect on their current practices over time but not in isolation. As well as external help, the school has to help itself but in order to do this it must be able to draw parallels and to see itself within the context of what is possible in terms of development and even change. Holly and Southworth (1989) have written much about the thinking school and about the evaluative school in terms of development.

'Teachers are increasingly learning together - in collaboration. And they use evaluation techniques to learn their way forward. As developers and implementers, they are learning all the time. And they are increasingly learning how to learn from each other.'

On-line communication/discussion forums are already being used by some teachers. The TeacherNet initiative aims to open these opportunities to all teachers who wish to take advantage of the new media.
CONCLUSIONS

IT has changed as a focus and been replaced by ICT as an area to consider in the school curriculum. It has passed the stage where it can be relegated to those responsible for IT services. The communication technologies now available via computer provide professional tools which affect every dimension of professional development and practice. School managers have a key role in ensuring that the pupils in their school are equipped with the skills, attitudes and knowledge necessary for them to play an active role in society well into the next century. This responsibility clearly includes developing appropriate attitudes to together with the skills and knowledge necessary to use the technology effectively.

But who provides the analysis and dissemination of good practice and the training courses for the managers? Do we have appropriate strategies to ensure that LEAs and HEIs work effectively together to ensure that the outcomes of research into new practice are disseminated as quickly and widely as possible?

REFERENCES


Cox, M. (1997) The effects of Information Technology on students' motivation, King's College London/NCET.


Secondary Heads Association (1997) see Dunford, J.


Paper 38


Resource-based Learning using Information and Communication Technology

Paper presented at BERA Annual Conference, 1997
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Resource-Based Learning Using Information and Communication Technology: an evaluation of new approaches to teaching and learning, and the management of change within a University.

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1. Introduction and Context

The resource based learning learning (RBL) programmes in Architecture and Urban Studies were proposed and developed from late 1994 and early 1995. The proposals included both the development of a new approach to the curriculum and in developing new resource based approaches to teaching and learning, using recently developed information and communication technologies. The new programmes were part of the university strategic plan, “to promote and support interdisciplinary courses”, “to initiate and evaluate new learning and teaching methods”, and “to develop part time modes of study”. (Proposal Document Feb. 1995)

The Purpose of the Evaluation

The three purposes of the evaluation were to evaluate:

- the student experience of resource based learning,
- the staff experience of teaching through resource based learning,
- the implications for managing a pilot project developing resource based learning within a university.

The aim of this paper is to outline these findings, with particular emphasis on the management issues for universities seeking to develop this kind of work. In addition, the research suggests some difficulties with the process of evaluation as a management tool.

Methodological Note

The evaluation took place between December 1996 and June 1997, covering 20 working days. The data was collected by:

- Documentary and Software Analysis
- Interviews

The documents that were analysed included:

- Validation Document May 1995
- Module Guides
- Plans, Minutes and Correspondence

Five academic staff were interviewed and two technical support staff. Interviews lasted between 20 and thirty minutes. Managers at the university were invited to participate in a discussion which lasted 2 hours and was tape recorded for the evaluation. Eight second year students were interviewed for 20-30 minutes either individually or in groups of 2-3. First year students had not undertaken the resource based learning elements of the programme at the time of the evaluation and so were not included.

Several methodological difficulties constrain the evaluation and these are outlined below.

Comparisons of New Curricular

As outlined above, the programmes provided a fundamentally new curriculum for students. This makes comparison of learning outcomes with previous or alternative courses difficult, since students have been taught different things.

In terms of both the curriculum and approaches to teaching and learning, defining what is deemed to be “new:” and what “traditional” is impossible. For example, other courses use Computer Aided Design, and may well include approaches which may be called “resource based”. Indeed, defining such terms is also difficult. There has already been considerable interchange of ideas between so called “new” modules and “old” ones, where staff face similar curriculum issues and pressures for change.

Lack of awareness of students and staff about the technology of pedagogy.

Students and staff did not have a common shared concept of “resource based
learning". Indeed, many students are likely to be unaware of the pedagogic principles behind the course or its difference to other courses. Computer aided design (CAD), is but one use of information technology, and is not unique to modules at Milton Keynes. Yet, in discussions about approaches to learning in Architecture there is undoubtedly a strong effect of the impact of learning CAD and associated software in the answers participants give.

Promotion and Enthusiasts
Many staff and students who were interviewed are enthusiasts for the new programmes. It could be argued that as students select the course and they are likely to be enthusiasts. Staff have also left and those that remain may well be those that are more enthusiastic.

Breadth of Aims
The project aims are numerous and varied, covering both curriculum and teaching and learning issues yet being essentially derived from economic pressures. The breadth of the aims of the project makes evaluative comment difficult.

Post Project Evaluation
Some of the things one might wish to evaluate are difficult to collect the data on at this late stage in the project. It would have been helpful for example to collect contemporaneous data on the amount of time different learning activities have taken and how much time staff have worked on the materials. This needs to be done in future projects.

Multiple Audiences/Multiple Perspectives
An evaluation for such a large audience with many different interests is very difficult. Our attempt here is to show the different perspectives of the actors involved in the project. We will therefore be reporting on student perceptions, staff perceptions and the different management perspectives.

The conceptualisation of the management of change.
The success of the project needs to be measured against its aims. However, there are a number of different perspectives about the nature of the project in the minds of different university staff and at different times. For instance, for some the project was
  a pilot to be a forerunner of a fully developed model,
  a pilot to enable the development of materials which could be used by other courses,
  a test bed or experiment to see what could be done and how,
  a vehicle for promoting change in the thinking and practice of others,
  a vehicle for staff development.

2. The Student Experience of Resource Based Learning

Aims and Antecedents.
The proposal for new programmes in Architecture and Urban Studies outlined both a number of curriculum and teaching and learning objectives to be achieved. The curriculum was designed to "produce a new kind of professional", able to use "multi-disciplinary knowledge and skills" and able to operate within a "changing professional culture". The new programmes were to emphasise social and environmental responsibility, through teaching of such issues as "sustainability, environmental awareness, and building intelligence. (Proposal document Feb. 1995)
The programmes were planned to be a new approach to teaching, emphasising self directed and flexible based study, and “teaching and researching design as an explicit process”, “expanding IT as both a design and a teaching tool”, and “teaching design as the creative and effective management of resources”. The programmes have been designed to encourage part time study and accelerated tracking.

The Curriculum and the Resource Based Learning Packages.

The foundation of the approach to teaching and learning is found in the module study guides. These are extensive documents which outline aims and objectives, weekly activities, assignments and guidance. The curriculum offered to students is one that looks at the whole process of development design management and use of buildings and cities. (Proposals Feb. 1995).

The guides are clearly focused on the aims for the new curriculum and are typical of many similar RBL packages, therefore, having all the similar qualities in terms of:
- making clear to student the course structure and aims,
- providing information,
- encouraging student independence,
- encouraging student group work and collaboration,
- ensuring consistency between groups and ‘tutor proofing’,
- enabling systematic evaluation and revision.

The aim was to explore as wide a range of media as was appropriate to different areas of the course including:

- an electronic student handbook,
- web based multi-media courseware (eg Coin Street Interactive),
- expandable image and text databases,
- the use of video,
- electronic storage systems,

Further specific details of these approaches are found below.

The Student Electronic Handbook/Diary

One of the first projects was to create an electronic version of the student handbook, meaning that all the information contained in the printed student handbook can be contained on a computer disk and loaded into the students' own computers. An intention here was to create the possibility of using the guide with all students in the university. The material was originally written as a paper based version (for validation requirements) and was then adapted with help from The Department of Media and Information Technology. It included video sequences (such as an introduction by the course tutor), study guides and an electronic timetable.

The potential of an electronic handbook for all students remains a possibility which may make economic sense. There was no evidence collected which suggested that students preferred or used the electronic handbook any more than printed ones. Indeed, as with printed ones they tended to be used at the start of the course and then dispensed with. Few kept up with the diary. In fact, many students removed the electronic handbook from their computers because it took up too much disk space.

Multi Media/Coin Street Interactive

The Coin Street Interactive is a package of information which can be interrogated by students as a simulation of the way urban planners work. Photographs maps, sound
recordings and text are interrogated and analysed using different theoretical perspectives as tools of analysis. Two other electronic "textbooks" are currently being created.

The materials are very popular with students, one saying

"That's the future of learning."

Some regard it as useful to have all the information available to go back to at a later date, in contrast to a lecture where,

"...you're bound by what you've remembered and by what notes that you have taken."

Students are motivated by the idea that Coin Street Interactive, being based on a real place is being updated continuously. Indeed, second year students report that it is something that they can go back to some time after studying the package.

**Archives of Information:** The Villa and The Chair.

"The villa" is a archive of information on house building design and "The chair" is a collection of similar material on chair design through the ages. The archives includes visual images and text. Students and staff have collected and stored the materials using their own work, published material, where copyright allows and information available on the Internet. The information can be interrogated by students across the university, and not only those on design and architecture courses.

The project is in the process of development so that eventually students will be able to walk through the villas and access other information such as other work done by the same architects and designers.

After a slow start in compiling the information, there is now a substantial resource of real designs and students work. Technical staff would have preferred having a long lead time to establish the archive. Now they are established there is a considerably advantage of continuing to build the archive.

Students find accessing such information easier than using the library. One describes the way "the Net" is available to all, whereas the library has limited resources which have to be ordered and delivered to the campus. This for them wastes time. Students also regard the materials as more useful because they can view it from different angles and manipulate images.

**The Use of Video Tapes**

Video tape materials have been produced, with the aid of the Department of Media and Information Technology, for example, providing guidance for Architectural Drawing and in using digital cameras. Early examples were basically lectures which were video recorded, although later ones explored the potential of the medium to demonstrate procedures.

The use of video taped lectures is clearly useful where lectures can be stored for future use and where learning can be "independent" in terms of time and venue, as well as with part time students. Professional quality is difficult and costly to achieve and academic staff need considerable training, skills and preparation (See Staff Experience section for time issues).
Curriculum Outcomes

The following section uses student comments about the curriculum they receive and compares these with the curriculum intentions for the project.

Vocationally Specific Learning
Students consider their learning to be relevant to the world of architecture and the built environment. There is a breadth of understanding of the social and political environment and the need for team approaches. The international dimension of the curriculum is explicit. Students develop an awareness of the contribution of different specialist areas.

The Use of Technology.
Students develop proficiency in a range of information technology approaches, including the use of communication, multi-media, and computer graphics.

Generic and Transferable Skills
The programme develops a range of transferable skills including technological ones, communication skills, working in teams and with other people. Research and investigative skills are central to the programme.

Students reported that the approach to the curriculum is relevant to the professional world on a number of grounds including,

- the use of CAD and related software such as Photoshop, Rendering and Multimedia,
- the use of worldwide communication systems using e-mail and conferencing.

One reported the emphasis of the packages on real situations saying, “Architecture is about people”.

The quality of the information, its visual and audio impact and the potential for exploring image from different angles are said to be second only to visiting the sites, which would be impossible because they are drawn from across the world. (Some staff have reservations about the financial legal and insurance problems of visiting sites which are reduced, somewhat, by the use of IT).

Most students believe that this approach to learning will make them better architects and designers. It may be argued that students potentially have access to more information and images as well as the opportunity to use a variety of applications of new technologies.

Opinions among staff vary as to the breadth and depth of learning. Some argue that drawings and concepts were much more sophisticated, in terms of “the quality of the drawings they produce and spaces they create”. Others are less certain.

Presentation and Storage of Work

Many students were convinced that the use of the new technology made the presentation of their work better. It should be said that some staff have reservations about this, particularly in terms of CAD. Nevertheless, students were positive about being able to provide slide and video presentations, and to change angles of views and so on.

A real advantage for them is to be able to keep their work on disk and present everything they have done to potential employers. There is also considerable motivation for them in terms of being part of a global exchange of work via the Internet.

Since all work is stored electronically there is considerable saving on workshop space and students report favourably on “not carrying huge card models around all the time”
**Accessing Support and Equipment.**

Students who are proficient with IT, start the course with some advantage. There is a need to learn a lot of technical skills in using packages. Some things are taught but much learning is through having “to sit there and just thrash your way through.” Some need to start with less IT proficiency, although there is some evidence to suggest that some never fully engage with the technology. As the programme develops the skills of using the technology develop.

Students report few difficulties in accessing equipment or support from staff. Technical staff are described as proficient and helpful. Access to the library through computer links saves considerable time.

Students report that there has been considerable and regular face to face tutorial support, which has offered guidance and help on the RBL tasks. In addition, the facility to e-mail tutors with developing work and ideas is considered a great help. Students report that e-mails are responded to almost immediately. This is in contrast to trying to meet with staff which may take time and prove to be difficult to arrange.

**Costs and Benefits of the Laptops**

Students have accepted the cost of approximately £1700 for the laptop and see it as an advantage. They consider ownership rather than renting an advantage. Yet students believe that the cost could have possibly put some student off the course. Students need to be budgeting for the purchase a long time in advance and accept a loan commitment. However, students are aware of

“...going to other universities where people are having to book 20 minute slots for computers that they can (use). ...computer labs having to be open 24 hours a day because of the demand...”

One reported a friend, at another university, who had to write up a project but could only book a “solid four hours on the computer” at “3 o’clock in the morning”.

Another view is that students may well have their own computer anyway and so long as it is of sufficient capabilities and compatible, which most are, then the insistence on laptops is limiting.

**Time Budgeting and Saving**

Students report that the use of information technology saves time. In particular, they refer to having information available at all times on disk, the ability to change things in CAD, savings in time communicating with staff through e-mail, being able to work “on site” with cameras and laptop and therefore avoiding second visits for missed information.

The flexibility of being able to work at times suitable to the student is popular and of great benefit to part time students and those with disability.

Having to learn the technology, however, takes time and can be frustrating. However, many students feel that the capabilities of the technology and relevance of the skills they have learned are well worth the extra effort.

**Being an Experiment**

There was some concern by students that the programmes were an experiment. This meant that there were difficulties because the technology was new and “didn’t quite work properly” at
times. Because the information resource was small, in the first year, likely to be much bigger and better in future years, some students felt that they had missed out somewhat. Not having a “year above” to offer support and guidance was mentioned as a problem.

Teaching and Learning Processes

The guides bear testimony to the achievement of the aims of the project in terms of using approaches which develop study and research skills, transferable skills such as teamwork and information technology skills. A wide variety of learning approaches are used. Collaboration between students is built into the programme. Problem solving, high order thinking, evaluation, synthesis and creativity activities are built into the programme.

The Use of New Technologies:

Networking

One intention of the project was to develop networking in a variety of ways, including cable to the student halls of residence. As one member of staff reported, “It is important to emphasise that in the initial planning stages of the course networking was fundamental to the way we teach this particular programme.”

In fact, financial constraints meant that Halls were not cabled. However, modems have been loaned so that students can gain access via their own telephone lines.

Using the Internet

The Internet is used for both academic work and leisure. One student said, “Well, I mean I’m on it most days, maybe not most days but some days, whether it is for fun or that’s for research ... It’s just something I do if I have a spare hour.”

Another said, “I went to look for some books in the library and I saw X (another students) and he said you wanna go check this site out and gave me this name of this site that he visited a month hef ore and it was Frank Lloyd Wrights site on the Web... everything was there, it’s a personal account by him and that’s one sort of basic facility that I can remember.”

Later asked whether it was better than the library information they responded “Yeah definitely... I think it is more interactive... if you go to Frank Lloyd Wrights site and you look at Falling Water you can click on a certain area and go into more detail... you can pick up a book and ... you get one picture...”

Other students use the Internet more rarely saying, “I need to know who is leaving things there and that seems a jumble of things and the information is just overwhelming.”

The diversity of response is interesting, particularly since one would expect that many students opting for such a course will be committed to new technologies. This indicates the need for monitoring student take up of Internet and e-mail looking particularly at issues of access and gender and so on.

Some students are clearly motivated both by the voice and video recordings of the expert talking, by the process of discovery of information and the achievement of a
small personal goal, by the collection of information that no-one else has and by the
effect of using a new “gizmo”.

Conferencing

An amount of “electronic conferencing” had taken place involving sharing seminar
work and lecture notes.

Communicating by E Mail

E mail is used extensively by students and staff to leave messages about work and to
ask questions of staff.

Question “What about e mail?”
Answer “Yeah use it constantly..(supplementary
question)....well apart from planning socials well its good to leave a
message for someone; obviously I work shifts here and you know just
looking at the work example, while I’m working if I need to leave a
message for someone that isn't on site at the moment and there it is.”

Some students use e-mail twice per week for work related purposes. Others
use e-mail less, partly because of lack of skills and partly because of
concern over its reliability. Others use e-mail for social purposes.

Using Digital Cameras

Using digital cameras was popular saving time in visiting locations, but also stimulating
students to evaluate and focus on key issues that enhance their learning. One said,
“...had a project in central Milton Keynes, took a computer in a
rucksack, took the camera, went and took our pictures, sat down on a
bench in the shopping centre, plugged it in, saw exactly what we’d got
and the result where we weren’t happy we went back and did it again,
whereas with conventional film we’d be off developing the film and
having to come back a couple of days later.”

Learning Independently and at a Distance

A key factor reported by staff is that using new technology with students is sometimes very
much like a toy. Students play with the machines as toys. They use them to find information
and its easier for them to do this at home. This aspect may be a key indicator to the design and
the need for updating “the toy” so that new play can occur.

Student reaction to this approach is positive, one reporting that,
“the impact is quite radical really...an awful lot is down to yourself to go
out...and learn the information... instead of sitting there in a lecture or
tutorial and being told something six or seven hours a week your having
one or two lectures and going out to learn the stuff yourself and come back
and report”

Some staff suggest that some students find the approach difficult because they have not put the
required amount of work in and effectively are not being supported by lectures to the same
degree as other students.

Student Collaboration

The activities designed in the RBL packs have encouraged student collaboration. Teams work
on projects together and are able to share work electronically. Ideas are exchanged and
developed.

The RBL approach appears to have enhanced student collaboration through:
creation of team activities often mirroring professional working environments,
shared use of equipment,
the way in which the IT enhances communication via email and the Internet,
establishment of problems to be solved.

Interestingly, when establishing independent learning that is based upon solving problems,
students often collaborate and share solutions or where to find the information as a basis for
their answers.

Analysis and Problem Solving

Some evidence suggests that students review, analyse and evaluate information because it is
interactive. Examples exist of going back to images and looking again, of reviewing work and
improving “because it doesn't work”.


3. The Staff Experience of Teaching and Resource Based Learning.

The experience of academic staff is shaped by the tension between the educational arguments about teaching and learning and the content led argument about the nature of architecture. As with many vocational disciplines in Universities, many staff are practitioners in the vocation and sometimes rather less familiar with educational principles and issues of teaching and learning.

Leadership

The project has been led by the module leader, who is described as having a clear understanding and interest in processes of teaching and learning and educational issues concerned with the nature of the curriculum. A clear vision for the sets of improvements has been developed and shared with staff. The vision is largely based upon principles of education, teaching and learning.

Other staff have participated in the leadership of different aspects of the modules and the development of resource based learning. This shows a large degree of commitment by some. However, not all staff are equally committed to the curriculum or the approach to teaching and learning being developed.

The experience of staff on the project leads some of them to question the commitment and leadership of the school and university as a whole to the project, bearing in mind the difficulties they faced in getting university policy decisions, the changes in the budget and the final cancellation of the project at Milton Keynes.

Planning

Plans for the project, at the level of the Milton Keynes staff are detailed and meticulous. The proposals include details of the rationale and assumptions being made, the resource implications, including accommodation costs and module reference sheets for the modules. Staff report that meetings were effective and progress made in the implementation of the plans. Planning at team level was, therefore, effective.

Criticisms can be made however, in hindsight, and with the benefit of experience gained through the project. Some of the resource based learning materials are very similar to paper based ones rather than explicitly developed for electronic means. More might have been achieved by developing fewer but more specifically designed materials to suit the new technology. However, much of the project was intended to develop ideas and expertise in the use of new technologies, as a process of discovery. Yet, some staff feel that the project was too hastily planned and implemented. A longer lead time would have enabled the development of the materials and approaches to greater effect.

The team report that major difficulties have occurred in planning where it involves decision making at higher levels within the university. Issues that are whole university issues rather than team ones have not been resolved speedily or effectively. This includes:

- networking the halls of residence so that students could work there,
- the guarantee for free software which was abolished after the first year,
- making economies of scale by developing the resources to use in modules across the university,
- cutting the budget one year into a three year project.

One view was that, "All the major decisions we had to take", another reported that there was, "no direction or leadership from outside the group".
The time scale for the project was to show results in three to five years. It should be noted that continuation of the work appears to be being curtailed, at least at Milton Keynes after 18 months. Planning for the future is now uncertain. One member of staff suggested that,

"We haven't really had the time to become established to become sufficiently attractive."

There are several answers to this apparent neglect of planning at the university level. They include:

- changes in key personnel,
- uncertainty and the consequent planning blight,
- differences in planning objectives between different areas of university management such as premises, schools etc.

However, this view is challenged by the fact that the proposal document clearly presents the project as one which in the words of the team, "has to be seen as a pilot for the whole university" and later added, "It's just not resource effective if it's just a little programme in its own little area".

On the other hand, one could argue that the pilot project, in going beyond the development of the modules at Milton Keynes, was too ambitious, in that it was planning beyond its own level of operation, where there could be no certainty of gaining agreement or implementation. Such a charge is countered by the argument that for this kind of high cost development, returns can only be maximised through use across the whole university. In any case, little seems to have been undertaken to limit the ambition of the project to something more self contained at Milton Keynes.

**Staff Development**

The development of the new programmes have been a major staff development exercise in their own right. In essence, six academic staff have been engaged in developments that have challenged their notions of the curriculum and approaches to teaching and learning, although it should also be noted that only three continue to work for the university. As one said,

"It's forced me to think more about educational objectives and methods and I found that new. It's still not something I get really excited about but its something I have been forced to take more seriously."

Staff were supported in thinking carefully about what they wanted students to do and to learn. Some staff report that there was ample opportunity for staff development and that it was hugely influential in developing their thinking. A key feature was that staff, who thought they had a technical problem about how to create some materials using electronics technology were facilitated by The Department of Media and Information Technology staff to ask pedagogic and curriculum questions. One reported on

"... going with a technical problem and realising that that was the easy bit, the real problem was turning it into a teaching and learning process..."

Further development of staff was maintained by the technicians supporting the team.

**Collaboration and Involvement**

The experience of staff has been that the project has enabled greater staff collaboration and consolidation. The sharing of ideas and work has been a feature of the project. The collaboration is both between team members and with support staff from The Department of Media and Information Technology and Media and IT departments.
The project has broken the barrier between academic and technical staff. Technicians have been employed on supplementary contracts to teach on the modules. This has gone to break down the barriers between academic and support roles.

Technicians report that there has been a change in the use of their time. In the early days, students would request support in using word processing software, particularly to deliver dissertations. Now students are more proficient at the simple applications but make requests about more sophisticated technical problems. On occasions the lack of knowledge of architecture can be a problem for technicians, where for instance students want to know how to draw a particular architectural feature.

The involvement of staff beyond the university, in other universities and in the profession has been enhanced by the project and a key factor in its success.

Evaluation, Enquiry and Reflection

The collaborative way of working has facilitated debate about the approaches to teaching and learning. Evaluation of materials, used in year one, have been used to change approaches in the second year of the project.

The short duration of the project, and the small numbers, of students involved, makes it difficult to evaluate the approaches fully since what can be done is mostly in the first phase of development and refinement.

Experience of the Teaching and Learning Processes

The project has certainly raised the awareness of staff about the RBL approach to teaching and learning and some considerable development of skills has taken place. The project is beginning to reveal some key issues about the nature of RBL and where it can be used to best effect. As one member of staff said about multi-media,

“If you had, say, a teacher’s keyboard on a large screen and the information at the same time you could watch the teacher’s fingers at the same time and lots of people could watch that and interact with that. There is a vast potential there that hasn’t really been touched.”

The project is beginning to reveal some key areas where RBL is particularly effective including:

- with able students, who have the skills for working independently,
- with students who are enthusiastic about using IT,
- where information ought to be interrogated, analysed and selected,
- where a real examples can be used as case studies and information updated over a period of 5-10 years or more,
- where people communicating with each other over distance enhances learning,
- where storage of information, including lecture notes and work is important
- where large pieces of work, and particularly the development of work needs to be stored

RBL does not replace the need for one to one supervision and advice, often in "real time" particularly in areas such as design.

“It’s actually watching you do it that helps.”

It may be technologically possible in future to undertake this to some extent electronically although perhaps losing the personal contact. Weak students, or those that are less well motivated, or unable to work independently need individual support and monitoring.
Time and Space

The impact of the project on staff time is complex. Some staff have put considerable amount of time into the development of materials and software. It should be remembered that, at the time of the evaluation the second year of using the first year materials had only just begun, while the first run of the second year was taking place. In some instances, however, the new materials are part of ongoing work which predates the project and forms part of research and publication being undertaken by staff.

Time saving was not an issue in the planning phase of the project, unlike space saving. There seems to have been, therefore, little thought given to packages that save staff time as such. This is particularly true of design activities, where most time is spent on one to one dialogues with students about their particular work. At this point the project is just beginning to conduct this interaction via electronic means enabling staff and students to choose the time rather than creating any time saving.

An assumption is made that time spent in preparation is saved in terms of whole group lecturing, and to some extent this is true. However, this time saving is easily taken up by extra tutorial time for groups or individuals. Independent learning does not save time, although it may add to the generic skills and personal qualities of students, for example in terms of developing self reliance. Students have to be trained and supported to become independent. Expectations have to be set and monitored. Students have to report back at seminar sessions. As one member of staff said,

"Just giving people a library and saying to people there's your architecture course go on and get on with it just doesn't work."

Time saved gets used elsewhere. It should be remembered that staff that have left have not been replaced and this has created heavier work loads for those remaining. Tutors report on really getting closer to what students are doing and being able to support work more effectively. Others report using more time for consultancy work for the University.

Communication by electronic means raises issues of recording and reporting progress on work. Staff report that paper based records tend to be kept but electronic ones tend to "disposed with" because they take up valuable space. Staff need to develop systems for cataloguing records.
University Strategies for Resource Based Learning

In reporting on the university strategy for the development of resource based learning, through the Architecture and Urban Studies project, one key feature dominates staff discussion and that is the issue of the project’s development and duration. This is rightly the case since, at a time of limited resources a relatively large investment has been made and considerable time and effort has been undertaken by staff and support agencies such as The Department of Media and Information Technology and Media and I.T.

Project Duration

The project planned returns over a five year period. After 18 months of development the project, in its planned form at Milton Keynes, has been curtailed and its future uncertain. The reasons for this include factors evident at the time of establishing the project, notably the cost of running courses at Milton Keynes, and the lack of students. Failure to recruit enough students is seen to be due to a number of factors including the unpopularity of Milton Keynes, a national decline in students in the area and poor promotion in University prospectus.

The reduced duration of the project alone is not an indictment. The project has enabled a number of curriculum developments to take place, staff skills have been enhanced and a number of key lessons learned.

As one member of staff reported,

"Even if market research had told us that were not going to be many takers for this course I feel we probably would have still have gone into it because that gave us valuable experience that should lead into the virtual university."

For supporters and support staff for RBL, this project offered a magnificent opportunity to demonstrate the potential of RBL to the university. At the time, there was potential for networking the Halls of residence, which were being built and for collaborating with the Open University on a similar project. Internal conditions also seemed favourable, given the commitments and management skills of the module leader and the team of staff.

Disquiet at University level appears to have existed at the time, particularly over the choice of Milton Keynes campus for a project of this nature, rather than Leicester.

"It was apparent to us here in this department two years ago.. that a distributed University, would have to be dependent upon networked resource based learning delivery and support. You can’t have a distributed University without something to connect you together... what connects you together has to effective in real time and that means either telephones and/or computer networks."

Some would argue that a return “over five years” is towards the maximum length of planning for a University.

Planning Aims and Intentions of the Different Groups

Given this background a key question is how the project fitted into university aims and intentions. The project matched the University’s aims for developments of the curriculum and teaching and learning. Our research came across many references to the creation of a “Virtual University” at De Montfort University. This commitment has been put into effect by various managers of the university. However, it has been said that “the University has not always been in a position to back up that commitment in the way that it ought to”, in particular for example,
over decisions to network the halls of residence, the provision of free software to students and the continuation of the project. One perspective might be to outline different aims for different participants in the project. For example,

**University Teaching and Learning Committee**
The project was seen as a developmental exercise and a piece of action learning, improving the quality of the student experience by developing "quality interaction" between staff and students and through the more effective use of staff and student time. The outcomes were seen in terms of students that were "more reflective", "knowledge seeking" and "interactive with peers". Lessons from the project are intended to feed directly into the "virtual university strategy.

**Support Group Intentions**
At the level of the support groups the University was,

"targeting (limited) resources on a few designated projects which will then have a large amount of (our) resource and will be developed over a considerable period of time...the rationale being that this will allow us to have a critical impact on those courses...and that these courses will serve ...as an exemplar and demonstrator, for the rest of the university."

The committed course team, with strong interest in collaboration and the potential for development at a site other than Leicester were strong factors in the selection of the project. AVA and Computer infrastructural requirements were in good shape or could have been developed "on a green field site".

**School Intentions**
Within the school the emphasis for the aims of the project were more to do with survival of activities at Milton Keynes and development away from "cloned courses" derived from Leicester. Saving space and particularly the cost of that space was a key issue. Difficulties existed, including financial ones concerning running sites at both Leicester and Milton Keynes.

These differences in perspective can be seen later as sources of tension and concern considering the effective decline of the project. The language is both interesting and illustrative of the different ambitions for the project. Participants describe the project as an exemplar, demonstrator, test, action learning and, pilot. The idea of a pilot, in the eyes of some, emphasised the need to continue and implement into a mainstream development. The exemplar/demonstrator notion could be rather more short lived.

The fact that the "new" modules are, after two years of development, no longer to run at Milton Keynes may suggest failure. It may be said that the project developed from a number of managers pursuing one set of strategic priorities, yet ultimately failing because of another set of ultimately more powerful managers, pursuing a different set of strategic priorities. One conclusion from this remark is to suggest that the project was merely the victim of micro politics within the University. As one member of staff alluded to it being,

"more important to be in the right alliance than to be outside of the right alliances even though one is delivering quite a lot of tangible outcomes."

Another view would be a that there are different perspectives of different managers in the university. Such a view suggests that for consistency and commitment to a RBL strategy to be achieved, there needs to be a very high degree of communication, coordination and collaborative planning.
As one manager of the support agencies within the university reported, they were, “Going around knocking on the doors of Heads of Departments, saying we are a resource, you all pay for us, why don’t you come and use us, and these are the sorts of things we can do for you. Whilst the poor staff that we have been talking to are saying, hang on a minute I’ve got to upgrade my research articles, I’ve got to earn more money. I’ve got to do more consultancy. I’ve got to teach more students and you want me to do what? Can you come back next week. There have been no incentives for them. Despite the fact that if done properly, this can save time and take the pressure off. The problem is there has to be a very heavy front end investment.”

The strategy for developing the “Virtual University” appears to need more than an offer of support to meet needs that staff have not yet identified. Support groups need to work on ways in which RBL solves the problems that staff face through, the promotion of international research papers using RBL, concentration on those aspects of RBL that enable working with more students with less time. This may need careful thought about a half way house strategy of using lecture notes and individual and group tasks, rather than concentrating on interactive media and more inaccessible technology.

In addition the linkage to university level management issues needs to be more obvious. “Knocking on doors”, is perhaps only one approach to stimulating interest in RBL. New courses, as part of the validation process could be scrutinised for opportunities to build in RBL. Strategic decisions could then be made to support key courses that were likely to be enduring ones by appropriate RBL development. Targets could be set by the University for schools, departments and courses to develop RBL. The development of RBL may be monitored through the development plan of each area of University activity.

Thus, one call could be for better, more coherent, university wide planning for Resource Based Learning and staff and curriculum development support. Such a view, however, is based upon an assumption of logical and systematic management and administration of the University. This is only one model of management, however, and is therefore based upon a number of assumptions. Managers need almost perfect knowledge, for example of what will happen with technology, budgets and so on, for the development of relevant plans. This may be contrary to experience and is certainly avoiding some practical difficulties and uncertainties.

Another perspective would be to see the Resource Based Learning project in terms of a development catalyst. Generated almost spontaneously as a group, nurtured by some managers and agencies, pump primed to act with an aim to see where it would go and to impact on the university as a whole. Although never being brought into mainstream it would either flourish and survive outside the main structures or whither and die having completed its mission. Under this model even the short duration project has had considerable impact. Yet there have been some costs in terms of the energy of staff and their enthusiasm in the future to engage in development projects that die.

This discussion has been about the nature of the strategy for resource based learning at De Montfort University which is leading towards “the virtual university”. It would be helpful if there was a university strategy and plan, which in the least covers some of the university wide issues such as networking and the purchase of lap tops, as well as clarifies the exact nature of “pilots” exemplars and short lived “experiments”.

Outcomes and Benefits
Whatever, model of management and the change process we use to analyse the RBL project, there are a number of key outcomes of the project, as it relates to the institution as a whole.

**Time and Space**

The saving of space rather than time was high priority for the project and, therefore, there was not a systematic collection of data on the use of staff time. Nevertheless, some points can be made. The project confirms the view that,

- to produce school, resource based learning packages does take a lot of time,
- is heavily resource intensive
- requires considerable staff development.

Such a view is not new and staff are aware of this finding in research reports. Nevertheless, there has been a call for the message to be repeated. The amount of time required for the developing the project was surprising to staff. This is true both for developing approaches to teaching and learning within the immediate project team and for the ambitious attempt to make the resources (for example the Student handbook) appropriate across the whole school or university. Consultation and agreement is hugely time consuming.

The management and analysis of staff time is a key issue that emerges from the project. At one level if time is saved then it is used elsewhere, either by the member of staff themselves, or by the University. To the individual tutor, there may seem to be little incentive to save time, if they are merely directed to areas of work that are not their priority.

There are a number of issues about the way time is managed in Universities. Time on projects such as this one is "costed" in a way that it is not for other staff activities. Writing academic books, is expected to be done within general academic duties but is not "costed". Universities do not "cost" the time taken for the production of lecture material. Some materials can be reused over and some used by students in different parts of the university, while others are to be used only once.

The great advantage of RBL is that potentially, they can be used by more than one area of the University and for a longer duration than a "one-off" set of lecture notes. However, to reap this benefit requires a high degree of strategic planning and coordination. Identifying common areas that may combine and maintaining a cycle of development over a long periods of time. Figure 1 illustrates this issue using estimates of one member of staff.

Clearly, one issue for the future would be to log the use of staff time as a systematic part of the evaluation and management projects. Opinions vary as to the potential success of this in an environment that has not traditionally logged time. There are however, examples in the commercial world where such logging of time is a more usual feature of projects.

The project suggests that RBL creates savings in space, particularly in terms of workshop and storage space. Time savings for staff are less clear.

**Staff Knowledge and Skill Outcomes**

The project has enabled the knowledge and skills of support staff to be developed in a number of areas including WWW, and the use of CD-ROM's applied in course ware development.

In addition, the project has enabled the issue of RBL learning, to be brought to the attention of a number of staff, particularly through the activities of the Teaching and Learning Committee. Such a contribution to developing awareness amongst staff should not be undervalued and should be considered as the first stage of staff development in the University. The project makes it difficult to suggest that RBL is not possible, even if staff can now say, its only
Consortia, Connections and Public Relations as Outcomes

The project has facilitated closer links with the profession who were, as was described earlier, very supportive of the project's aims. One member of staff reported that, through consultation with the design and architecture professions,

the school received enormous support from senior figures in the profession who were saying that they welcomes this approach to the subject and that they thought that if anything we weren't being radical enough, that the University was wise to be at the forefront of developing this kind of style of course and the means of its delivery.

The project has enabled the development of links with a number of institutions both National and Worldwide. Projects have been developed via the RUDI Project, Barcelona and Glasgow. Contact has been established with Cardiff and Brighton. The support agencies have been able to use their experience of this project to become involved with other major projects such as the Teacher Net and DTI projects.

The RBL project has established a profile on the international scene with formal and informal connections already being made with universities, individuals both academics and professionals. A key aspect of resource based learning is the public profile which is enhanced by e-mail and the Internet. This may be seen as a major benefit in terms of the profile of the University at the leading edge, in the United Kingdom, of learning through new technologies.

However, this may be balanced by the notion that the work of individual members of staff, when put into the public domain through printed resources and those available via the Internet, is able to be scrutinised and evaluated by outsiders, in the way that lectures are not.

Income Generation

The project was not established to create financial returns for the university. The infrastructure for establishing a business organisation in the University is in the process of being set up. However, the high costs of the development of materials, the rather small, specialised and
underfinanced market, and the complications of working collaboratively with other organisations and universities means that RBL is unlikely to be a major source of direct income generation.

5. Conclusion

This section has outlined the different perspectives on the project as a process of change towards the virtual university. We have called for clear and specific university wide planning and collaboration over longer time periods. The delineation of short term catalyst projects from longer term mainstream projects would be helpful. Key outcomes and benefits for the university have been described in terms of staff expertise in teaching and learning, technological skills and in public profile and reputation.
Paper 39


The background and rationale for the TeacherNet UK initiative - harnessing the potential of the Internet for improving teachers' professional development and pupil learning

with Pachler, N.

*Paper presented at School Education in the Information Society Open Classroom II Conference, Crete, September 1997*
The background and rationale for the TeacherNet UK initiative

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June 1997

Paper presented at the
School Education in the Information Society Open Classroom II Conference
17 - 19 September, 1997
Crete, Greece

Not to be quoted from without permission of the authors.
The paper presented at the conference might be updated as this is a rapidly changing area.

Further details may be obtained from

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The background and rationale for the TeacherNet UK initiative
- harnessing the potential of the Internet for improving teachers' professional development and pupil learning

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Abstract

For those who see a potential in the Internet for enhancing professional practice in education, the challenge is how to ensure change, which is pedagogically sound, takes place as rapidly as possible.

In this paper, the purpose and rationale underpinning the TeacherNet UK initiative, which is currently at its prototype stage, is examined. The initiative, which has grown out of the experience of a number of teachers and teacher educators, includes the development of a 'national independent web site by teachers for teachers' with the goal of utilising the Internet for teachers' professional development. It is run by an independent steering group. This paper outlines the initiative's philosophy - its focus on teachers' professional development and the Internet as a means of supporting change in the UK education system. Issues related to the management, development and maintenance of this electronic teacher network are also discussed.

The particular political climate for education in the UK in the period leading up to the 1997 national election - characterised by the principles of a market economy, the tight control of public expenditure and the encouragement of private funding initiatives for educational projects - provides the context.

Ball (1994) and Goddard and Leask (1992) among others document the changes in the management of the education system in the UK in recent decades. These include diminution of previously well established local support networks often based around teachers' centres funded by local authorities, the weakening of school's accountability to local government (through the option to opt-out of local authority control) but increased national and public accountability through the publishing of national inspection reports (see http://www.open.gov.uk/ofsted/ofsted.htm) and competition between schools with results from national tests being published in league tables. It is against this background of weakened networks coupled with pressure for the raising of standards that the TeacherNet UK initiative is being developed on the premise that the creation of electronic on-line learning communities might offset some of the disadvantages of a fragmented system with high levels of local competition and with diminishing opportunities for teachers to have local access to a wide range of professional development opportunities.
Therefore, the TeacherNet model described in this paper features characteristics which are specifically related to the UK context. However, the experiences gathered by the development we feel to be of interest to colleagues outside the UK.

Context for change in the application of ICT

The recent past has witnessed a proliferation of new technologies in society at large and information technology in education in particular. More sophisticated and powerful communication tools, such as the Internet, are increasingly becoming available in a growing numbers of schools. Many claims have been made about the educational potential of information and communication technologies (ICT) and the amount of (empirical) evidence to support some of these claims is growing.

In 1994 the National Council for Educational Technology (NCET see http://www.ncet.org.uk) published a document entitled *IT works* in which 27 'ephemeral' hypotheses of educational benefits of IT use are listed and supported by research findings. Recent studies by Margaret Cox (1997) and Deryn Watson (1993) show that Information Technology (IT) can enhance pupils' learning potential and that "regular use of IT across different curriculum subjects can have a beneficial motivational influence on student learning" (Cox, 1997, p. 24).

Against this background, the pressure for education to develop in young people the skills necessary to take part in the 'Information Society' is mounting. In the National Curriculum Orders for England and Wales (see http://www.dfee.gov.uk/nco/), for instance, IT is an entitlement for pupils who should be given opportunities to develop IT skills, where appropriate, across the range of subjects (see e.g. DfE/Welsh Office, 1995, p. 1). Nevertheless, our knowledge about and understanding of the appropriate use of ICT in classrooms and their impact on the teaching process and pupils' learning must, at the time of writing, be seen to remain rather limited.

In our experience and according to research findings (see Wild, 1996, p. 135) a number of constraints have been prevailing which make the successful use of IT in schools by teachers and/or pupils difficult. These include:

- a lack of IT capability amongst teachers;
- limited access to IT facilities in schools and at home;
- limitations of hardware and the variable quality of software available; and
- limited knowledge of how best to incorporate IT into the curriculum and teaching.

Together with increasing workloads for teachers these factors often result in even the most enthusiastic and committed having difficulties in sustaining IT-related curriculum development and innovation over any significant period of time.

There appears to be evidence to suggest that the provision of IT facilities alone is insufficient to ensure effective IT use enhancing pupil learning.
According to Martyn Wild (1996), research suggests that IT "is still significantly under-used by pre-service teachers, particularly on teaching practice, and by beginning teachers" (p. 134). In England and Wales the Teacher Training Agency (TTA see http://www.teach-tta.gov.uk/) aims to address this "apparent failure of IT education in pre-service courses" (Wild, 1996, p. 134) by proposing changes to current requirements for initial teacher education (ITE) and requiring of "all new teachers, regardless of phase or subject, to have sound knowledge of Information Technology (level 8 of pupils' National Curriculum) and of its contribution to their specialist subject(s)" (TTA, 1997, p. 2). However, in his paper Wild also points out that "equipping student-teachers with IT skills cannot be expected to influence the likelihood that they will use computers to extend and improve their teaching" (p. 138).

What is required, it seems, are changes in pedagogy and teaching methods.

Wild suggests that inhibitions about IT use can be overcome by giving due consideration to "the context of individual student (teacher)s' constructions of IT meaning" (p. 134):

What is usually ignored, particularly in pre-service courses, is the need for individuals to make sense of this communication: that is blending the computer into the professional life of its user, making the computer respond to the real needs of the user rather than vice-versa - including ... 'addressing the human and institutional factors which constitute barriers to change'. (p. 136)

Wild (pp. 138f.) goes on to delineate a number of course characteristics which, according to research findings, increase the likelihood of student teachers using IT, namely:

- early practical experience of IT work with pupils;
- observation of IT use by teachers in placement schools; and
- work on tasks which can be transferred to teaching situations.

It is against this context that the development of TeacherNet UK needs to be seen.

TeacherNet UK (see http://teachernetuk.ultralab.usm.ac.uk), an independent national education web site, a virtual 'Teacher Education College by teachers for teachers' modelled on Oz-TeacherNet (see http://owl.qut.edu.au/oz-teachernet/), is designed to offer opportunities to network, access resources and teaching material and collaborate in innovative projects. (For further information on the rationale of Oz-TeacherNet see Williams and McKeown, 1996.) The site intends to embed ICT in education by making use of the communicative potential of the Internet for everyday work as well as the professional development of teachers. The prototype, unlike normal web sites, is a based on a searchable database model which customises its content to a certain extent according to the identity and the 'status' of the user and allows her user to submit and edit information.

The TeacherNet UK model is based on the notion that what is required is IT competence in teachers as well as valuable, relevant and easily accessible resources to facilitate the development of ICT capability in teachers and pupils.
• represents a powerful communication and networking tool allowing instant access to a multitude of potential communication partners for speedy information exchange;
• adds a sense of purpose to product-based learning activities as outcomes can be easily 'published';
• allows access to a vast amount of up-to-date information and learning resources enhancing teachers’ ability to use supplementary material;
• supports the use of flexible and independent learning strategies in cross-curricular situations; and
• equips pupils with the IT skills needed to participate fully in the 'Information Society'.

(The) ability to sift, reject and re-use for their own purposes from the mass of material that comes on-line is a life-skill that will be very important for our students in later life and which we need to inculcate as early as possible in their educational career. (Horsfall & Whitehead, 1996, p. 26)

The TeacherNet UK design, admittedly like a growing number of educational sites, also addresses some of the weaknesses of the Internet: by offering a carefully selected and annotated list of links to existing and didactically prepared resources the site intends to counter the danger of information 'overload' and aims to speed up the process of accessing material of immediate relevance to classroom contexts and the wider professional role of the teacher. TeacherNet UK does not intend to provide an ultimate collection of Internet resources, rather a spring-board for the exploration of the potential of the Internet for teachers thus alleviating a potential weakness noted by Phil Horsfall and Maurice Whitehead (1996):

(the) danger is that people can either be fascinated by the technology, but be unable to apply it to any real purpose, or see a potential, but be unable to get past the lack of user-friendliness. (p. 23)

An additional, and by no means less important purpose for the development of TeacherNetUK is our desire to contribute to a better understanding of how the Internet works best, to use the site as a vehicle for research to find out more about its impact on teaching and learning as well as to examine questions relating to the development, design, management and financing of an on-line educational resource.

Purpose of the TeacherNet UK initiative

Even the most useful education web service cannot bring about change alone. The success of any national electronic teacher network depends on the development and implementation of a strategy to create change in the use of ICT throughout the education system. However, a national education web service can provide a pedagogically sound answer to the question which teachers quite rightly ask: 'How does using the Internet have any impact on the learning of my pupils and on my teaching?'. If an education web service is designed to meet teachers' needs those who ask 'Why bother to use the Internet?' may find the answers to their question in the curriculum activities and projects available through a web site and in their colleagues' responses to the opportunities which such a national network can offer in conjunction with international initiatives such as the European School Net.
The business plan for TeacherNet UK sets out the aims and objectives of this initiative which go beyond the establishing of an interactive web site. They are as follows:

**AIMS**

1. To enable UK teachers (and student teachers) to participate in an open access educational online learning community.

2. To encourage the use of ICT (Information Communication Technologies) as a means of supporting teaching, learning, school improvement and school management.

3. To develop a web site that is relevant and beneficial to teachers and their continuing professional development.

4. For TeacherNet UK to play a major role in European and other international education networks.

5. To support research into the effectiveness of the use of the Internet for ongoing professional development and support.

**STRATEGIC OBJECTIVES**

**Phase 1**
- To secure the necessary financial resources to fund the initial research, site set-up and maintenance, with the aim of becoming self-funding within three years.
- To develop and implement an agreed and appropriate site content that is relevant and beneficial to teachers.
- To have in place the technical infrastructure and skills to develop and host the Internet site.

**Phase 2**
- To support the development of a critical mass of teachers skilled in and knowledgeable about the application of ICT to teaching and learning.
- For TeacherNet UK to be well known, used and valued throughout the UK teaching profession.

**Phase 3**
- For TeacherNet UK to play a role in providing access to information about UK Education and educational suppliers through, for example, the British Council networks abroad.

As is clear from these aims and objectives that the initiative is seen as part of an overall programme of change. The web site is part of this and has the following stated purposes:

To create an innovative, interactive, independent, umbrella, national education web site

- supporting the professional development of teachers and student teachers through the provision of an Internet gateway to:
  - existing and developing teacher networks (national/international)
  - new forms of resources and curriculum developments
  - innovative curriculum projects
  - on-line discussion groups both subject focused and cross-curricular and
  - allowing for the dissemination of information e.g. research news, government news, post-inspection support etc.
  - providing an intelligent signpost to relevant resources available on the Internet.

(adapted from TeacherNet UK, 1997b)
A major purpose of the site is to draw together key developments on the Internet so that the potential benefits of the Internet and Intranets in supporting teaching and learning are obvious to student teachers, to teachers and to policy makers. The Internet is seen to provide not only information but support for on-line communities of teachers who have similar interests.

Background

From the beginning, it was recognised that for this project to be successful, the support of all major interests groups had to be gained. Those involved at this early stage were not interested in developing yet another web site which had no overall rationale for existence except the cheapness of the technology and the desire of those involved to say something in a public arena.

To gain the necessary commitment and to ensure that the initiative was based on a firm foundation, detailed preparatory work and careful was required. Initially, government agencies and educators in key positions were consulted about the need for such a resource. This process was completed in June 1996.

Wider consultation was then undertaken with a national consultative conference in October 1996. Those invited were drawn from a wide range of professional groups and sectors. As a result of this conference, the decision was taken to establish a representative Steering Group drawn from all educational sectors, all parts of the United Kingdom, major public sector interest groups, and private sector sponsor companies. The interim steering group was established in October 1996; educational representation was confirmed in December 1996. Politicians were consulted and kept informed throughout.

Once the educational representation on the steering group was established, private sector partners were identified. Companies approached were carefully chosen for their known commitment to supporting educational development. Care was taken to ensure that potential core partners were in compatible sectors. For the site to be effective, it needs to provide access to the educational market place for as wide a range of interest groups as possible and the negotiations with companies have taken this into account. The profile which a company can expect on the prototype site relates to its level of financial support. Beyond the prototype, profiling of a company will depend on the level and form of advertising which it buys into.

Companies are expected to take an active role in the project - using the opportunity of involvement to test out ideas under development and so having access to committed educational users at the developmental stage. Partnership with leading edge developers in industry and education was sought as a means of ensuring that what was developed was of high standard (given the constraints imposed
on those creating web sites for an educational market where the equipment is not necessarily up to date).

To take forward a project of this magnitude within a context of limited public sector funding has been a major challenge. Somebody has to pay. In the case of TeacherNet UK a number of individuals, companies, universities and government agencies were sufficiently convinced of the need to proceed to provide 'pump-priming' so that the initiative could get off the ground. The legal status of the initiative is currently being confirmed and it is expected that TeacherNet UK will be a company limited by guarantee and thus able to pay back early investors.

Those wishing to establish such national networks might find the documentation underpinning the European School Net bid to the EU Multimedia call in June 1997 (see http://www.eun.org/euninfo/demo.htm) useful as it breaks down the tasks to be undertaken so that a staged approach, with tasks allocated to different groups, can be pursued (Johansson, 1997; European School Net Consortium, 1997).

Mechanisms for change

The model of change underpinning the TeacherNet UK initiative is based on the approach which ensured that school development planning became the norm in UK schools. In the early eighties, development planning was well developed in a few areas and non-existent in others. Good practice was identified, recorded and analysed on a government funded research project (see Hargreaves and Hopkins, 1991; Leask and Terrell, 1997). Guidelines were produced in 1989 and distributed to every school in the country. Local education authorities were kept informed as the research progressed about the likely outcomes so that they could plan local training sessions. Within a few years, schools were obliged to produce development plans. As is to be expected, not all development planning is effective in supporting change but nevertheless, the practice of development planning is now embedded in the education system (Leask, 1997).

A similar approach could work for the change in pedagogy which is required if children are to use ICT appropriately in their learning and teachers for their teaching and professional development.

There is good practice in a number of schools around the country. One key purpose of the TeacherNet UK initiative is to make examples of good practice available to any teachers who access the site. Not only are case studies available but the opportunity to take part in curriculum projects across the world is planned. The site is intended to support sceptical practitioners, be they senior managers or newly qualified teachers. The emphasis is on making curriculum application apparent. Guidelines may well be useful in providing examples of successful strategies used by schools who could be considered ICT competent. Training opportunities need to be available for student teachers and experienced teachers.
As possible future development may be the introduction of (statutory) qualifications for teachers. Crucial to a shift is the ability of teachers to use ICT competently in teaching and learning is, in our view, access to a site which supports them in the application of the technology to the curriculum, for instance through projects with other schools locally, regionally, nationally or even internationally, and providing on-line discussion groups where changes in practice can be shared and discussed.

Creating a critical mass to support change in pedagogy

Government support, including the development of a strategy for change, is needed for the rapid integration of ICT into teaching and learning to be achieved.

Within the framework of a national strategy, electronic teacher networks have the potential of speeding up change in teacher skill, knowledge and understanding. This should enable the creation of a critical mass of teachers who use the Internet appropriately in their teaching. Student teachers provide an obvious target for change. If they have affordable access at home or through local libraries, their use of information and professional development opportunities will not be constrained by their school context. Traditional ways of implementing government endorsed change through line management structures can be supplemented by direct access to all teachers accessing a central web site. Elements of a possible national strategy for the UK are listed in Appendix 1. These draw on research findings from various projects including the Schools Online project (Department of Trade and Industry, 1996 see http://sol.ultralab.anglia.ac.uk/pages/schools_online/ and http://sol2.ultralab.anglia.ac.uk/), a national independent inquiry (The Stevenson Report, 1997), a McKinsey and Company (1997) report and the ongoing work which the authors of this paper are undertaking with schools and student teachers (see for example http://curriculum.qed.qld.gov.au/elt/newimages/). Details of the actual strategy decided on by the current UK Government will be revealed over the coming months. A White Paper is imminent but not yet published.

For the web site to become known and used, widespread publicity once it is beyond the prototype stage is essential. Every institution training teachers needs to be contacted. Preferably each would be visited and the resource demonstrated to a group of staff. Workshops and conferences for trainers and decision makers including local authority staff and inspectors need to be held.

Management of TeacherNet UK

The management structure of the initiative had to incorporate a number of principles:

- a high level of involvement in the development by practising teachers;
- partnership between educators and industry beyond straightforward sponsorship; and
- independence from both government and industry.
There are three key groups providing different levels of management to the project: the steering group, the executive group and the project team.

The steering group of TeacherNet UK has representation of key organisations in education in the UK. It has a dual role: overseeing the quality, development and maintenance of the site and lobbying government about the needs of education.

This group provides leadership and direction to the project and reviews and approves the outcomes. The steering group is intended to be representative of key interest groups across the profession and includes partners from industry. This representative nature of the group - half of the members will be classroom teachers within three years - is intended both, to ensure that the project outcomes are useful and relevant to teachers and that knowledge of the project and its purpose is widely disseminated.

The executive group is responsible for functions such as finance, administration, advertising and ensuring sufficient revenue to develop and maintain a site of high quality.

The project team is responsible for the educational content of the site. Programming support is also provided.

The following section examines funding choices in more detail.

Funding choices

For any web site to survive, the potential for self-funding has to be considered.

There seem to be four main ways of funding the construction and maintenance of web sites:

- subscription;
- sponsorship;
- advertising; and
- allocation of public funds.

In the UK initiative, decisions have been made as follows:

Subscription. This is not deemed to be appropriate for a web site which has claims to be a national resource and where one of the purposes is to provide a resource which can be accessed by (student) teachers from home, school or from public libraries where these are connected.
It may be appropriate, in some circumstances, to close parts of the site to all except subscribers, for instance sections providing on-line training. However, those involved in the development of TeacherNet UK believe that one principle governing the management of a national education site is that it should be open to anyone interested in education and should provide value to as wide client group as possible including classroom teachers, senior managers, middle managers, home tutors, parents educating their children at home etc. As a first port of call, it should provide answers about educational matters or indications about where answers might be found. The value provided to this group is related not only to classroom curriculum resources but to information about research and government news, career choices, training and professional advice and to links overseas.

Sponsorship. In the UK, a number of companies allocated certain funds for charitable purposes and such support for pump-priming any development is invaluable. It may be that in some circumstances sponsorship from companies or government organisations is appropriate and will provide the financial stability required to ensure long term stability of the site.

Advertising. This is the preferred option for long term funding of the TeacherNet UK site. It seems to have the potential of preserving openness and availability to all whilst avoiding reliance on goodwill for funding. But a web site will only be attractive to advertisers if they can be guaranteed access to a significant market. Thus, although there is nothing to stop groups from setting up education sites, it is suggested that an endorsement by government that the site has some official standing will encourage advertisers to support the site.

Allocation of public funds. Whether public funds can be allocate to the development of such a resource is a question for individual governments. In those countries where resources are particularly scarce funding through advertising is most certainly an option to be explored. Detailed advice on anticipated revenue streams for the TeacherNet UK project may be available on a confidential basis to those who are considering this route.

TeacherNet UK is intended to be a non-profit making organisation. The development phase is being supported by sponsors but it is intended that TeacherNet UK becomes self funding within three years through the various sorts of advertising. Any surplus funds generated over the long term will be used to support teacher-researchers and educational research and development generally. Those who contributed to the early development of the site can expect to have their investment repaid once the site begins to generate income. Alternatively, their return on investment may be through 'free' advertising for a set period. It may be possible to provide a detailed business plan to bona fide inquirers. Many costs can be covered by 'in kind' contributions and by organisations directing staff to become involved as part of their workload. Research into the effectiveness and outcomes for teachers’
Conclusion

The growth of the Internet is transforming how we view information and its communication. It challenges current practices in education. The Internet is different from previous media because of a combination of factors such as its world-wide coverage, its range of available information, its interactivity, its up-to-dateness, its flexibility and its multimedia capability. It has the potential, when linked with other developments, such as local access through public libraries, of providing low cost access to global and local markets for businesses and thereby supporting the ability of small businesses to grow and develop. In the 'Information Society' young people denied access to such a resource during their schooling may rightly question the quality and appropriacy of their education.

At the time of writing, June 1997, the TeacherNet UK prototype is being developed, agreements with industrial partners are being defined and the funding model is being tested. The fact that a steering group exists, that knowledge about developments and the thinking of the initiative is spread widely within the education community, that there is debate about what sort of resource we need, who should manage it, who it is for and how they might use it, means that change will happen. We do not know whether we are right about the direction we take or whether this resource will be used entirely differently in the future. Only after we have undertaken work on the prototype will we be able to benefit from hindsight. What does matter is that we adapt to new circumstances, that we try out new ways of working and that those who come after us take this work forward to the benefit of pupils and teachers.

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Information about the authors

Marilyn Leask is a member of the senior management in the School of Education, De Montfort University in the UK. She has considerable research experience including that as research officer on two government funded projects. She has published several texts and is, for example, series editor for the 'Learning to teach in the Secondary School' series of texts published by Routledge. These texts are designed to support moves to school based teacher education. She has also published in the area of management and quality assurance ('The Search for Quality', 1992 with Del Goddard, published by Paul Chapman, and 'School Improvement and Development Planning for Middle Managers', 1997, with Ian Terrell, published by Kogan Page. One of her recent texts (1996, with Capel and Turner) 'Starting to Teach in the Secondary School' provides advice on the use of the Internet in teaching and learning and she is currently co-editing with Norbert Pachler a book on the application of the Internet and Intranets to all aspects of the secondary curriculum. The focus of her current research is on the potential of information and communication technologies to support professional development and as a means for initiating change in education systems.

Norbert Pachler will join the Institute of Education, University of London, as Lecturer in Languages in Education with responsibility for the Secondary PGCE in modern languages in September 1997. He will also contribute to the Institute's MA programme in modern languages and carry out higher degree supervision. He currently works for De Montfort University Bedford as Senior Lecturer in Secondary Education. His research interests include (vocational) modern foreign languages teaching.
and learning, comparative education as well as the application of new technologies in teaching and learning and he has published in these fields (e.g. Learning to teach modern foreign languages in the secondary school, London, Routledge, 1997, with Kit Field).

He holds a Dr. phil. degree, has taught in secondary and further education and has worked for the inspectorate and advisory service of a local education authority on curriculum development and in-service training.

Appendix 1 Elements of a possible UK national strategy for improving the application of ICT in schools.

This list of elements is compiled from research findings from various projects including the Schools Online project (Department of Trade and Industry, 1996), a national independent inquiry (The Stevenson Report. 1997) research undertaken by McKinsey and Company (1997) and the ongoing work which the authors of this paper are undertaking with schools and student teachers. More details of the actual UK strategy will be revealed in the Government White Paper which has not, at the time of writing, been made public.

Any comprehensive national action requires a management group overseeing a national strategy and sub-groups responsible for components of that strategy.

Provision
- affordable access to the Internet for schools. In the UK calls are charged by time units. A ceiling on charges is necessary if schools are to be able to develop their use of this resource to any extent. Cable companies have made such an offer to schools which not all schools are able to take up because not all areas will be networked.
- free access to European School Net and TeacherNet sites providing examples of and opportunities for curriculum application, professional development, software reviews, subject based databases responsive to the individual, international and national education news and information.
- NetDay actions (see e.g. http://netdays.eun.org)
- email addresses for teachers and pupils
- tax relief on teachers' computer purchases
- fixed rate call charges to Internet Service Providers from teachers' homes
- VAT relief on teachers' computer purchases (action should be possible at EU level given that the Ministries of Education in EU countries support European School Net).
- library access to the Internet
- technical support for schools: strategy identified e.g. national hot line, new jobs/career structure for technicians responsible for maintenance of schools networks focusing on women returners who wish to work school hours,
- software development

Incentives
- National Awards for curriculum applications, software, inventions, international work, to schools and individuals

Training
- the establishment of a certificate in ICT applications to teaching and learning which, in time, all teachers might be expected to have

Statutory requirements
- ICT use included in examination board requirements
- appropriate use across the curriculum becomes a focus of inspection
Appendix A:

School Development Plans Project: notes on the research design.
APPENDIX A:

SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANS PROJECT APRIL 1989 - AUGUST 1990

NOTES ON THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design for the School Development Plans Project was never published. Those commissioning this research wanted the outcomes presented in a particular format - easy to read and brief. Nevertheless, the work undertaken was planned carefully so as to ensure that the findings were as valid and reliable as possible. In this appendix, an outline is provided of the methods used to collect and validate the data.

A.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The project was divided into two phases:

| April 1989 - August 1989 | Phase 1 | Production of General Guidelines: Institutional management focus (Paper 7)  
- identification of key processes  
- identification of key stages of implementation |
|--------------------------|---------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| September 1989 - August 1990 | Phase 2 | Case Studies of LEAs and Schools: Teacher focus  
- further advice (Paper 13) |

Advice and guidelines were to be produced for:  
LEAs  
School Governors  
School Staff
Constraints on the formal reports were that they must be written for this audience and to be no longer than 20 pages because of distribution costs. The advice was to be sent to all schools in the country.

The methodology to be adopted was decided upon by the directors and the research officer at the first team meeting on 7th April 1989.

A1.1 The Sample

Not all LEAs were included in the possible sample for the school development plans project as at that time practice in LEAs was patchy. HMI was asked to provide information about LEAs where good practice occurred. This information, coupled with the SDP teams’ knowledge of LEAs’ development practice provided a long list of LEAs from which to choose.

The chief education officers of the chosen LEAs were then invited to indicate if they were willing to participate in the project. They were required to nominate member of staff who would be able to write case studies of practice in a range of schools in the LEA. They were also required to identify 3 or 4 schools where what they considered good practice was happening. The final sample was established to provide a balance using the following criteria:

- balance between rural/urban;
- balance in geographical location;
- balance in school size;
- balance across sectors;
- balance across school type.
Fourteen LEAs were selected in the first phase:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Berkshire</th>
<th>Cambridgeshire</th>
<th>Cleveland</th>
<th>Clwyd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cumbria</td>
<td>Dudley</td>
<td>Enfield</td>
<td>ILEA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isle of Wight</td>
<td>Oxfordshire</td>
<td>Redbridge</td>
<td>Somerset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffolk</td>
<td>Trafford</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In phase 2, the following LEAs seconded staff part time to the project to undertake the role of field officer:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bedfordshire</th>
<th>Clwyd</th>
<th>Croydon</th>
<th>Cumbria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Devon</td>
<td>Ealing</td>
<td>Enfield</td>
<td>Essex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Tyneside</td>
<td>Redbridge</td>
<td>Sheffield</td>
<td>Solihull</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A list of those participating is included at the end of this section in table A1.
A1.2 Data Collection

The data collection for Phase 1 included the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>April to June 1989</td>
<td>Interviews undertaken in schools and LEAs</td>
<td>All interviews were transcribed. Key processes and stages, constraints and opportunities were identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Documents were requested from LEAs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June to August 1989</td>
<td>Analysis and reports written</td>
<td>Paper 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data collection for Phase 2 included the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>September 1989 to April 1990</td>
<td>Interviews undertaken in schools and LEAs</td>
<td>Data for final report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Case studies were written</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May - September 1990</td>
<td>Analysis and report writing</td>
<td>Paper 13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The phase 1 interview schedule was agreed by the team. To develop intra-team reliability, initial interviews were carried out by the team of three, then in twos, and then singly. Interviewers were also asked to make notes of their perceptions after each interview.

In each LEA, the LEA officers were to be interviewed before the governors and school staff. The intention was for the researchers to gain an overview of the local context before looking at the detail of local practice.

Categories derived from Phase 1 interviews included:

- the interviewees' concept of a development plan;
- roles undertaken by different parties (Head, managers, departmental, pastoral, governors, teachers, pupils, LEAs, government);
- inclusion of financial planning;
- timescales (length of reviews, timing of reviews) cycles, benefits;
- impact of school ethos;
Appendix A

- identification of priorities/needs identification;
- role of and relationship to INSET (including national and local priorities);
- purpose;
- confidentiality;
- link with quality;
- staff participation;
- evaluation strategies and cycles;
- divisional support;
- support for staff development;
- performance indicators work;
- pupil links.

(Source, Leask, M. Notes on analysis, memo to Project Team, May 1989)

Data for phase 2 was to be collected in the following ways:

a) In each LEA, the field officer would write case studies illustrating practice in LEA schools, according to a framework agreed with all field officers and the Project Team;

b) A member of the Project Team would visit selected LEAs and schools and interview LEA officers, headteachers, middle managers, and teachers to obtain their views on the development planning process as it was implemented in their school. Those known to lead the field were chosen for interview.

c) LEA documents including training materials and school documents, together with the case studies provided by the field offers were analysed. Literature reviews about practice elsewhere in other industries and other countries were also undertaken. A number of LEAs had considerable documentation about their approach to development planning. Some had independent evaluation reports on their work eg Enfield and Avon. Much of this early work was linked with staff development planning.

A. 1.3 Peer Review, Independent Judges and the Quality of Education Research

Peer review was cited at the BERA round table (Bassey et al, 1994) as contributing to the maintenance of quality and there was general support for this criterion. This builds on earlier work reported by Atkins (1984) where he suggests structures for ensuring intra-judge
reliability when data is being interpreted. These include using an independent judge and peer review processes.

This thinking has influenced the work in all the papers presented in this submission, for example the research undertaken for the TVEI evaluation papers (Leask et al, 1986a-c; 1987b-f) which was the subject of scrutiny from a steering group (Leask, 1989b), HMI and the LEA as well as from headteachers and teachers. The schedule of peer review to which the work of the School Development Plans Project team was similarly extensive.

Day Conferences of researchers and LEA staff were held in order to report initial findings to the whole team, e.g. the conference on 28 June 1989. Those attending were asked to comment on a draft document and in particular on the following aspects of this:

- Purpose of development planning;
- Audience and circulation;
- Format and structure;
- Content of each section in the document;
- Processes of development in School (who is involved when);
- Methods of use by different audiences;
- Style of advice;
- Time scales for development planning;
- Problems and difficulties;
- Constraints on development and use;
- Curriculum and management and interconnections with LMS.

(Source: Leask, M. 1989: 28.6.89 Conference preparation notes.)

Papers reporting draft findings were prepared and presented to the conferences of field officers and chief education officers for comment. Comments were incorporated as appropriate and the documents revised.
A.1.4 Accountability

The project was accountable to and managed by a DES appointed Steering Group: John Hedger, 2 HMIs, 2 CEOs and 2 Headteachers. This group met every couple of months.

A.1.5 Data Analysis

The techniques for data analysis in all projects mentioned in this submission are drawn from advice in the literature. Leask (1988c) provides a detailed examination of methods. For example, categories used in the analysis of qualitative data are established by drawing on a number of influences: literature, field notes, researchers' understanding of what the categories might be. Data is reduced to a manageable form e.g. interviews are transcribed and the data is categorized, any data not categorized is put in the miscellaneous category and then reanalysed to make sure that there were no emerging categories which had not been recognized. Figure A1 outlines the process.

The integrity of the analysed data was checked through the peer review process as mentioned earlier, involving chief education officers and field officers. Perceptions were cross checked so, for example, in a particular school the perceptions of the head, senior management team about what was undertaken and why, would be checked against that of the head of department and against that of the classroom teacher.

By standards today the form of data analysis used in the School Development Plans project is archaic in that manual processes were used. Data was actually copied and cut and sorted into
Appendix A

categories. The process of deciding on the categories involved the analysis of inputs from all data sources and the literature.

Nowadays, of course, one would probably analyse the data using for example the Nudist software or the WinPro software, but at the time the SDP project was under way the Cambridge Department of Education had just started using computers and they chose BBC computers - computer use was at a primitive stage.

Figure A1: Establishing data categories

A.2 FLAWS IN THE RESEARCH

There is an unresolved tension in the data collected in the School Development Planning Project. At the time the significance was not appreciated by me nor was it picked up by other members of the team.
This tension related to the relevance of the size and presentation of the schools plans themselves. These varied significantly and size did not appear to be related to success in achieving the objectives of managed change involving the whole staff as appropriate.

Several secondary schools had brief development plans which were really strategic plans drawn up by management and weren’t related to whole school development involving the whole of the staff and interested stakeholders. Other secondary schools had massive development plans (a centimetre or two thick) which were clearly too detailed for most teachers to bother to read and get to grips with so in the preparation of the advice a compromise was sought. With hindsight, more data should have been collected to explore the issues further. The compromise - a brief plan backed up by other plans in particular areas, for example, staff development, and resource allocation - was the model that came to be recommended as being effective in organising and supporting change in the school.

However, what had not been perceived in the analysis was the key role of the middle manager.

With hindsight it is easy to see how this has happened. Senior management in schools were having enough difficulty coming to grips with what the national curriculum changes would mean for the school, and what the changes in financial management would mean and so on. Re-examination of the data in the light of subsequent development shows that the role of the head of department was significant in ensuring that development planning process involved classroom teachers. The analysis of the data did show that when departments involved drew up large and detailed plans there was a problem of too much material being identified as needing to be worked on so that implementation became impossible and discouragement of staff was the result. Nevertheless, subsequent evidence showed that the existence of detailed departmental plans was essential to success. Action planning at department level has
subsequently emerged and is now quite common - See Appendix E. It is clearly an effective strategy for managing the process.

The text Leask and Terrell (1997) was written to fill a gap created in the original documentation i.e. insufficient focus on the role of middle manager in the large school. In neglecting this role of the middle manager in the original documentation we appeared to suggest a top-down model and a mechanistic model to change although this had not been the intention.

A.3 Professional Outcomes from my involvement in this Research

Although the SDP Project had been set up to establish most effective processes used by schools there are a number of unintended outcomes. The whole management approach of each of the schools under scrutiny was documented. The data was rich in information about processes, the micro-politics in organisations, the impact of top-down and bottom-up approaches to management, varieties of approach to the management of change, the uncertain role of governors was revealed, communication processes, financial processes, personnel processes, were all exposed in the collection of data. In addition the views of a whole range of professionals across the country about the impact of government-induced changes was collected. Much of this data was synthesized in Chapters 2, 4, 10 and 11 of The Search for Quality (Leask and Goddard, 1992). One of the far reaching outcomes for me personally in being involved in this major research project was an understanding of the role of initial teacher education in providing foundations for the professional life of teachers. Teachers who had little understanding of how the whole system of education works and how the management of schools is organised, how priorities can be identified and change implemented, were at a loss in coping with the requirements of whole school planning. It
was this realization which prompted much of the later work I have undertaken, for example, the *Learning to Teach in Secondary Schools* series (Appendix H). This series introduces student teachers to political and management issues as well as pedagogical issues. The series now includes eight texts with more forthcoming.

**TABLE A1: NOMINEES AND SCHOOLS PARTICIPATING IN PHASE II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominee</th>
<th>Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Julia Bell Primary Adviser Metropolitan Borough of North Tyneside Advisers’ Department The Case, North Shields NE29 OHW Tel: 0191 258 0848</td>
<td>Mrs Slaughter, Head Teacher, Backworth First School, Backworth, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE27 OAH.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr Alan Brown Head Teacher 11-16 Schools and Community College Bedfordshire County Council, TVEI Unit, Cauldwell Street, Bedford MK42 0AP Tel: 01234 228127 or 228177 Home: 05255 3580</td>
<td>Mr D Thurgeson, Head Teacher, Stewartby Middle School, The Crescent, Bedford, MK43 9NH Mr D H Horsler, Head Teacher, Icknield High Street, Riddy Lane, Luton, LU3 2AH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Jackie Calcroft Head Teacher, First &amp; Middle Special School London Borough of Ealing Elthorne School Site Westleigh Road Hanwell W7 2AD Tel: 01 840 4050 ext. 53</td>
<td>Mrs Thea Phillips, Head Teacher, Ellen Wilkinson High School, Queens Drive, Acton, London, W3 OHP Ms Alison Mackenzie, Head Teacher, Acton Green Combined School, Beaumont Road, London W3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr David Curtis Senior Inspector (English &amp; National Curriculum) Solihull Metropolitan Borough Council Education Department</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Appendix A

PO Box 20, Council House
Solihull, B91 3QU

Tel: 0121 704 6632

Schools: Mr Fox, Head Teacher, Smithwood School, Windward Way, Chelmsley Wood, Birmingham, B36 0UE
Mr M J Whitewood, Head Teacher, St Mary & St Margaret CofE Junior & Infants School, Southfield Avenue, Castle Bromwich, Birmingham, B36 9AX

Mr Martin Gazzard
Schools Officer
City of Sheffield Metropolitan District
Education Department
PO Box 67
Leopold
Sheffield, S1 1RJ

Tel: 01742 735699

Schools: Mr G Hall, Head Teacher, Lydgate Middle School, Manchester Road, Sheffield, S10 5PP
Mr J Hillman, Head Teacher, Whirlow Brook School, c/o The Moss, Limb Lane, Sheffield, S17 3ES

Mrs Carole Jones
Adviser for National Curriculum
London Borough of Croydon
Education Department
Taberner House
Park Lane
Croydon, CR9 1TP

Tel: 01 655 1299
Home: 01 770 7840

Schools: Rev. Brother Antony Porter, St Josephs College, Beulah Hill, Upper Norwood, London SE19
Mrs M L Haddard, Head Teacher, Monks Orchard School, The Glade, Croydon, CRO 7UF

Mr Howard Morrall
INSET Co-ordinator
Redbridge Educational Services
255-259 High Road
Ilford, Essex

Tel: 01 478 3020 ext 3081

Schools: Miss L Richardson, Head Teacher, Hatton School, Roding Lane South, Woodford Green, EG8 8EU
Mrs G Roper, Head Teacher, Christchurch Primary School, Wellesley Road, Ilford, RG1 4LQ

Mr Geoff Rate
Head Teacher
11-16 School Research Fellow
Appendix A

Clwyd Centre for Educational Development & Research
Cartrefle College
Cefn Road, Wrexham, LL13 9WL
Tel: 01978 290390 ext 324

Schools:
Mr Terry Wales, Head Teacher, The Groves High School, Penymaes Avenue, Wrexham, Clwyd
Mrs P Williams, Head Teacher, Penyfordd Junior School, Abbots Lane, Penyfordd, Clwyd

Mr Paul Robinson
Education Officer, Schools
Essex County Council
Education Department
PO Box 47, Threadneedle House
Market Road
Chelmsford CM1 1LD
Tel: 01245 492211 ext. 30217

Schools:
Mr A R Ward, Head Teacher, Burntells Comprehensive School, First Avenue
Harlow, Essex, CM20 2NR
Mr Martin North, Head Teacher, Heybridge Primary School, Rowan Drive, Heybridge, Maldon, CM9 7TU

Mr I Terrell
Advisory Teacher Evaluation & Assessment
George Spicer School
Sketty Road
Enfield Middx
Tel: 01363 4148

Schools:
Mrs P Pascoe, Head Teacher, Honilands Primary School, Lovell Road,
EN1 4RE
Mr D Higgins, Head Teacher, Chace School, Churchbury Lane, Enfield,
Middx

Mr Geoff Thomas
Head Teacher
Community College
Devon County Council
County Hall
Exeter, EX2 4QG
Tel: 01392 273611

Schools:
Mr David Cottam, Head Teacher, Teign School, Kingsteignton, Devon
Mr G Rowland, Head Teacher, Feniton CoE Primary School, Feniton, Honiton, Devon

Mrs Carole Tiddy
General Inspector (Primary)
Cumbria County Council
Appendix A

The John Whinnerah
Abbey Road
Barrow in Furness
Cumbria

Tel: 01229 26782 ext. 205

Schools: Mr M I W Johnstone, Head Teacher, Arnside National CofE school, Church Hill, Arnside, Carnforth, LA5 0DW
Mrs E Fraser, Head Teacher, Settlebeck High School, Long Lane, Sedbergh, LA10 5AL
Appendix B:

Examples from the Project Connect evaluation.
## A) Phase 1: Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Planned action</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>college staff</th>
<th>participation of school staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>mid April</td>
<td>letter to all schools</td>
<td>invite participation of schools in setting educational objectives for the project and for planning and collecting data for the evaluation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>May 18</td>
<td>1/2 day meeting of school and college staff</td>
<td>to come to shared understanding and agreement of Phase 1 objectives and data collection (note: possible use of diaries, collection of data from pupils, teacher observations recorded)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>May 18 - May 27</td>
<td>school staff demo equipment and discuss possibilities with core subject staff</td>
<td>Collection of data about applications of the technology in core subjects (SEN to be included)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>May 18 - May 27</td>
<td>collection of data for 1st Interim Report</td>
<td>Collection of data about equipment installation and staff and pupil familiarisation with equipment</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/2 term</td>
<td>write 1st Interim Report</td>
<td>Evaluate progress against objectives set out in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 15</td>
<td>Publ. 1st Interim Report</td>
<td>inform equipment providers and educationalists about Phase 1 outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Phase 2: Implementation in Core Subjects (including SEN)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 15-</td>
<td>Collect data from staff in schools by interview or questionnaire (if not available from May 18-27 demonstrations).</td>
<td>collect data about implementation plans for Autumn Term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 1-14</td>
<td>Write implementation plan (2nd Interim Report) and check views of participants</td>
<td>seek agreement about objectives for Autumn Term (include SEN)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 15</td>
<td>publ. 2nd Interim Report: Implementation plan: i.e. implementation plan for core subjects</td>
<td>set out objectives for Autumn Term - application of technology for pupil learning in core subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept-Oct</td>
<td>Teachers develop ideas and practice in core subjects</td>
<td>develop ideas for 3rd Interim Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept-early Oct</td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews With school staff and pupils</td>
<td>collect data for 3rd Interim Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>14-31 October</td>
<td>writing of 3rd Interim Report: Potential of new technology to contribute to learning in core subjects (and for SEN)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1st December</td>
<td>meeting of school and college staff</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Phase 3: Consolidation and Review**

| 3 | Date | Activity | Notes |  
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | 1-15 December | Collection of data | to collect ideas about developments for the future | ✓ |
| 3 | 15-31st December | analysis of data | preparation for Jan 10th meeting and final report | ✓ |
| 3 | January 10th | meeting of college staff and school staff | school staff bring their reflections on the project, all involved review the project and discuss possibilities for the future | ✓ ✓ |
| 3 | Jan 10 - 31sr | writing of Final Report | inform equipment providers and educationalists about project outcomes | ✓ |
Curriculum Development and Evaluation within Project Connect Schools in Northamptonshire and Leicestershire.

Interim Report on progress to July 1995

A report prepared for Project Connect by

M. Leask and P. Wilder
De Montfort University, Bedford
Lansdowne Road, Bedford, Beds
November 1995
Curriculum Development and Evaluation within Project
Connect Schools in Northamptonshire and Leicestershire.

Interim Report on progress

to July 1995

A report prepared for Project Connect by

M. Leask and P. Wilder
De Montfort University, Bedford
Lansdowne Road, Bedford, Beds
November 1995
1. Introduction

This report is based on responses made by four of the six schools involved in Project Connect in Northamptonshire and Leicestershire. The questions asked are attached as appendix 1.

The final report of the Curriculum Development and Evaluation Group will be available in January. This report focuses on school management and curriculum issues.

Summary of findings

The following issues appear to be of particular concern and need to be resolved if schools are to make full use of the opportunities offered by new information technologies:

- Hands-on staff training will be needed on a continuing basis for some time. The question about who is to provide this and how it is to be paid for needs to be answered. Staff must be fully trained if pupils are to benefit.

- Costs are a major concern. Free local phone calls or at least some fixed cost arrangements are necessary if schools are to integrate the use of the Internet into the curriculum.

- Resource constraints i.e. the number of access points in the school, are a major factor limiting use of the resource across the curriculum. There needs to be a substantial injection of funds to provide hardware and software as well as the training mentioned above.

- Systems need to be established to ensure appropriate use by pupils. It is too early to comment about the effectiveness of different approaches. Schools are developing various solutions to the need to monitor pupil access and use. Logs and self-reports are being used.

- Equipment maintenance and support issues for the long term need to be addressed. It may be that current maintenance and service contracts could provide the cover needed.

At this stage (July 1995), there has been insufficient use of the new technology in schools for the evaluation team to make comments about the impact on teaching and learning. These issues will be addressed more fully in the next report.
2. Background to the Report and methodology

Representatives from the six schools in Leicestershire and Northamptonshire met with the DMU evaluation team on 18th May 1995 to discuss plans for the evaluation strategy for the project. It was decided to collect data for the first phase of the evaluation through teacher reports which focused on the management and curriculum issues to be considered when a school is getting started with the information superhighway and the impact on teaching and learning anticipated and observed to date. Four out of six schools responded to the questionnaires attached as appendices 1 and 2.

Delays in getting equipment operational have meant that contributions to this interim report have been based on limited practice in schools. Further data about the issues forming the focus of this report will be collected as practice in school develops.

3. Findings

3.1 Integrating the resource into the curriculum: Some schools indicated that they had been revising their curriculum in the light of the Dearing review and had incorporated the new resource into those plans. The opportunities offered on the information superhighway were seen to fit into the requirement to 'use IT as appropriate'.

One respondent described contacts they had made with schools in different parts of the world and outlined plans for collaborative work in the area of worship. Whilst attempts had been made to do this in the past, they were hampered. Through using the information superhighway data could be collected and 'source materials and final summary reports can be shared.' It was thought the motivation of students undertaking extensive research should be improved.

Teachers reported having no shortage of ideas of how to use the potential of the new information technologies but they have been hampered by problems with hardware and associated problems with establishing connections to the Internet.

3.2 Pupil Access and monitoring use: Schools vary in their approach to pupil access. In some instances, access is limited to academic periods, in others this is not the case. In some schools pupils will be working relatively unsupervised when they are using the equipment as teaching groups may be split with the teacher remaining with part of the group whilst some pupils go to other parts of the school to use the equipment. In some schools, the equipment is placed in one room together making monitoring of pupil use more straightforward than in schools where equipment is dispersed with a number of classrooms having access points. The point was made that pupils may use the excuse of using the Internet to avoid lessons and some teachers may take the opportunity to send difficult pupils out of the class to use the resource.

Pupil self-reports or logs are favoured as a means of ensuring pupils plan their use of the Internet and have some record (perhaps recording success as well as failure) of what has been done. It was suggested that staff subject groups, year groups and the senior
management team should place the use of the Internet on their meeting agendas to encourage the sharing of ideas.

Systems to prevent abuse both in the use of the Internet generally and through e-mail need to be established. One contributor made the point that e-mail should ‘be monitored but not censored’.

It was recognised that time would need to be shared out between classes if there was to be equitable use of the resource.

3.3 Management structures: Some schools anticipated connection to the information superhighway and set up management groups within the school to decide on policies and procedures related to curriculum integration, access, training and recording and evaluating pupil work using the new resources. One school set up a steering group which drew delegates from each faculty or curriculum team. In other cases, schools preferred to develop these structures after connection. When connection did not proceed as smoothly as had been hoped, staff groups which had been set up lost momentum.

3.4 Training Issues: Training of staff was seen to be crucial to the successful integration of the opportunities offered by the technology into the curriculum. That the training would be costly was also pointed out. ‘Hands on’ training and plenty of time for teachers to use the resource themselves was seen to be essential to moving to wider use. IT staff needed training in ‘managing the network, installing and maintaining communication links’. Staff and students needed training in:

- ‘using the Internet effectively’.
- ‘using the access software
- downloading resources to standard applications software (to save money and time)
- creating resources’ through homepages
- database design
- IT skills
- evaluating the quality of pupil learning

3.5 Location of equipment: This has been mentioned in B). Schools are implementing a variety of solutions. It was suggested that there is a necessity to avoid colonisation of the equipment by one subject area or interest group and that careful locating of the equipment was needed to avoid this.

The ideal situation was considered to be where there are networks to all classrooms. Equipment should be placed where the students are working and such is the nature of school work that it should be accepted that equipment will not be in use all the time.

3.6 Equal Opportunities: Respondents held contradictory views about equal opportunities issues. The question was raised ‘is the Net any different to other aspects of the curriculum?’ Mention was made of the use of Jostens (ILS) software with students with SEN to allow them more straightforward access to WWW sites or files on CD-rom selected by the teacher. Another respondent raised a concern about email messages, confidentiality and gender issues. There was concern that girls in particular might be sent inappropriate messages.
3.7 Costs: A number of respondents said that pupils should be trained to consider costs and staff should be trained in cost-effective use. Mention was made of the desirability of free local phone calls and of the need for pupils to acquire keyboarding skills to reduce frustration and to save time (and money). As connection for the first year is being paid by Project Connect it was difficult to assess what the impact would be on the school budget in the long term.

3.8 Technical support: There are clearly questions to be resolved about technical support in the long term. One school mentioned that their school maintenance and service contract would cover the equipment, others were relying in the short term on resources such as those of IBM or De Montfort University which will have a cost eventually.

3.9 General issues related to teaching and learning strategies with new information technologies

Limited data is available as most of the schools were just getting started at the end of the summer term. The following points were made strongly:

- 'Opportunities will be valueless without good teaching.' '...Pupil learning will only be affected if staff are given opportunities to develop their own understanding first...' - Training the teachers is seen to be vital if schools are to grasp the opportunities and this point is echoed in other aspects of the report discussed above.

- Most immediate benefits were seen to be available for pupils with SEN. The idea that the 'non-linear' organisation of information on the net might stimulate and challenge staff who 'tend to teach in a sequential cumulative manner and students 'who do not follow the same line of reasoning.'

- The school’s facilities could provide a community education resource.

- Substantial investment in facilities was called for: 'A principal obstacle is the lack of hardware' 'cash up-front needs to go to the schools.'

Issues raised in this report will be more fully explored in the next phase of data collection.

Please address any queries about this report to:

Marilyn Leask and Peter Wilder
De Montfort University, Bedford
email: mgleask@dmu.ac.uk
or pwilder@dmu.ac.uk
tel: 01234 351 966
fax: 01234 350 833
STRATEGIES FOR GETTING STARTED ON THE INFORMATION SUPERHIGHWAY

NAME: ___________________________ SCHOOL ___________________________

The purpose of this report is to identify good practice and pitfalls related to pupil and teachers starting to use the Information Superhighway. Do answer any documentation which you consider appropriate, including photocopies of any notes you may have made in your evaluation diary. Descriptions of staff and pupils' responses to the system would be helpful as would notes of obstacles to be overcome. If you prefer to send your responses on tape please do so.

STRATEGIES FOR GETTING STARTED
Please give your views, advice and details of your experience on the following:

1. MANAGEMENT ISSUES
1.1 Do you have a management group which co-ordinates development and manages staff and pupil access to the Information Superhighway? What structures do you suggest schools set up to manage these new resources?

1.2 Access: How do/should pupils have access? What are the issues related to access?

1.3 Avoiding conflict by a particular subject, department. Is this an issue? What are your views on the appropriate place to site equipment (eg library, classrooms, special area)?

1.4 Monitoring use: What procedures are needed or are useful for collecting evidence and monitoring use by staff and pupils (or the community)?

5. COSTS
5.1 Do you have any comments or particular experiences to report?

6. TECHNICAL SUPPORT/PROVISION OF EQUIPMENT
6.1 What level and form of technical support do you consider should be provided for schools if access to the Information Superhighway is to become a regular feature of pupil experience?

Thank you for answering these questions. You will receive a copy of the evaluation reports in due course.

* We use the term Information Superhighway to include e-mail, Internet, video-conferencing and other forms of mediated communication.
Project Connect
Curriculum Development and Evaluation Group

Final Report

for the period October 1995 to January 1996

Report prepared by:

Marilyn Leask

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tel.: 01234 351 966

fax: 01234 350 833
1. INTRODUCTION

This is the second of two reports on the curriculum outcomes of Project Connect commissioned from a De Montfort University evaluation team.

Initially it had been the intention to analyse the impact of Project Connect on the school curriculum and on teaching and learning in the schools. Because of technical problems, curriculum development has been much slower than anticipated. Nevertheless evidence of curriculum development is now starting to emerge from the project. It is suggested that a follow-up report undertaken at the end of another year would provide a fairer overview of the impact of the project.

The data informing this report was collected through visits and interviews with key staff (either the head teacher or the IT co-ordinator) from the six schools involved in Project Connect in Northamptonshire and Leicestershire. Some pupil work was available and in one case, pupils were observed using the system during an afterschool club.

2. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS:

2.1 Access

2.11 Access to the Internet: At the time of writing (January) three schools are able to access the Internet using equipment provided through the project. The other schools were experiencing a variety of hardware or software problems.

For those who do get through, overload of the Internet is 'the single biggest problem'. For a variety of reasons, users experience difficulty in connecting to sites when they wish to. The 'mirroring' of sites locally was suggested as one way of alleviating the problem of difficulty of access to popular sites - clearly this is an issue for the future.

2.12 Access to e-mail: At the time of writing this final report, two schools were able to use networked systems to send e-mail and one other school was using a previously existing link with a private provider.

2.13 General Issues: The sharing of the ISDN line between all schools in the project appears to mean that only two schools at a time can have Internet access. The uncertainty of access has meant that teachers have not been able to rely on connection occurring to support the work in particular lessons and until this problem is solved, development of class-based activity using the resource is inhibited. The unreliability of connection means that pupils and teachers tend to access the Internet during their
breaks or after school or on 'an ad-hoc basis during lessons' in the words of one respondent.

2.2 Impact on the Curriculum: Changes in approaches to teaching and learning and what is taught have been limited because of the delays caused by technical problems (see 2.1, 2.3 and 4.3).

Involvement of a large number of staff is necessary if an innovation is to have an impact across the curriculum. At the moment the new resources do not appear to be used by the majority of staff in most institutions, i.e. use is not integrated into mainstream classroom practice, but this problem is often faced by new curriculum initiatives and the unreliability of the connection may well have inhibited development. These issues must be resolved if change is to be long-lasting.

2.21 Pupil Use: There seems to be a high level of enthusiasm among a number of the pupils in those schools with reliable connection to the Internet. A variety of examples of pupil use has been reported.

2.22 Staff use: In those schools whose systems were functioning staff from curriculum areas other than IT were slowly becoming involved in using the facilities available on the Internet to support classwork.

2.3 Levels of Technical Support: There are lessons to be learnt from the setting up of a project such as this. The lack of consistent technical support has meant that technical problems have remained unsolved for long periods causing frustration and disappointment. In January, three of the networked systems could not be used to access the Internet. Two schools have access through Jostens software, one of these has access only through Jostens. The other has normal access as well. So four schools have Internet access at some level but the unreliability mentioned in 2.1 is a deterrent to use.

2.5 Spin-offs: Most schools are experiencing some positive spinoffs from the project even if full Internet and e-mail connections have not been achieved. These include the introduction of new software, the provision of new equipment, increasing staff knowledge and confidence, plus 'increased technical competence and increased skills in project management'.

2.6 Other Issues: Maintenance of the level of resourcing to ensure whole class access to the Internet was cited as a concern although this issue does not apply where the resource is used to provide 'independent autonomous access,' for example, in the library. The issue of ongoing costs is an issue more for primary schools than secondary schools which is not surprising given the difference in the size of their budgets.

Training of teachers and student teachers needs to be addressed if the project is to be developed so that the resources are fully used by all teachers and their pupils. For curriculum development to become embedded in the system, schools have to move beyond having all the knowledge about the new systems held by one or two key people.
After an initial meeting between representatives from Project Connect, the schools involved and the DMU evaluation team on 18th May 1995, the framework and focus for data collection were agreed. An interim report was produced in autumn 1995. This is the second and final report.

This final report was to examine the impact of Project Connect in providing facilities for whole class on-line connection to the Internet. Because of problems with non-functioning equipment and difficulties with access (see 1.1) little whole class use of the Internet within the school day has happened. However, practice is now beginning to develop.

Hence the data collected has been of a limited nature. Some schools are not yet able to use the facilities at all and so have not been able to provide examples of the equipment in use.

4.1 Access to the INTERNET and e-mail

All schools mentioned that they experienced severe problems in getting the equipment to function fully and, at the time of writing (January 1996) these problems appear to have been solved only in two or possibly three schools. Two of these schools report that they have had considerable support from their suppliers.

There is a problem with the ISDN connection that the schools use in that only two schools appear to be able to be connected up at any one time. Until this is resolved, whole class use is restricted because teachers need to be sure the technology will work. Pupil work in an after-school club work was observed and it took the pupils around half an hour to achieve connection. Such a delay can hardly be tolerated in lessons which may only be an hour long.

Storage of e-mail messages is a potential problem as schools turn their equipment off and even take it home over holidays. This may now have been solved by creating back up storage elsewhere.

4.2 Impact on the Curriculum

4.21 Pupil use

Pupils in two of the three schools who were connected to the Internet were observed using it and teachers reported on other activities being undertaken. These include using the resources to provide

- extension work with 'accelerated learner' groups,
- differentiated work with children with other special educational needs,
• support in the form of data retrieval for project work
• the establishment of links between schools in the UK and other countries. Pupil motivation in undertaking these cross-cultural projects is reported as high with pupils very keen to have their work corrected before it was sent abroad.

In one secondary school, the pupils were taking part in an after school computer club. The pupils were absorbed in their work once they achieved connection. Many pupils were looking up information for teachers, some were doing this for themselves, one was e-mailing his uncle in another part of the country. A number were working through a series of tasks in order to demonstrate their skills in the use of the Internet and so to become full members of the club (to gain their 'surfing licence' as it was called). Pupils who found out unusual facts about a particular country could claim it for themselves on a world map which was displayed. Pupils had collected information from a team in the Antarctic, the Louvre, the Kremlin, and different charities (for a staff member).

Other schools report increasing use by pupils for a variety of purposes — both social and research to support learning.

4.3 Staff Use

Apart from a couple of members of staff in each of the schools which could make connections, staff use was limited and in the early stages. In one school, the support teacher, a mature newly qualified teacher who was familiar with the Internet used the equipment to extend bright children (who were in an accelerated stream) and to support the learning of weaker children.

4.4 Levels of Technical Support

Schools were having difficulty in making any progress with curriculum development because of problems of incompatibility between hardware and software, non-functioning or partly functioning hardware and software and the lack of long term technical support. The problem of lack of technical support was exacerbated by the fact that the schools were using different systems and so knowledge of how to overcome problems could rarely be shared among those participating. Some schools clearly had much more support from their suppliers than others had had. The provision of equipment from a whole range of suppliers appears to have caused severe problems of technical incompatibility and these have severely hindered the project in its aim to support curriculum development in schools using the Internet and e-mail.

There were differing views among all participants about who was responsible for providing technical support and school staff were often unsure if issues were being dealt with and indeed who was responsible for dealing these issues. There had been continual change of technical personnel and it would appear that more support is necessary in this area than has been provided.
The experience of school staff working within the project seems to indicate that permanent computer technician posts are required in schools, or to service clusters of schools if systems are to be well maintained. Primary schools need particular support.

It seems that there may be too much work involved in sustaining networks for a teacher with full classroom responsibilities to be able to carry out the work as well as their normal teaching job.

4.5 Spinoffs:

Staff in all schools have experienced considerable frustrations because of the hardware and software problems already mentioned. However, spinoffs from the project were reported even if full Internet and e-mail connection had not been achieved. These included the introduction of new software (specifically Jostens), the provision of equipment which could usually be used for general computing applications and developing staff skills in this new area. One school has successfully gone on to apply for DFEE funding under the Technology College Initiative. Would this have happened without the stimulus of Project Connect? It is impossible to know.

4.6 Other Issues

Provision of equipment: Large numbers of access points were considered essential though schools do not have the money to provide these.

Costs: The costs of site licences for software was a concern with one company reportedly wanting £2000 from primary schools for a licence covering 5 machines. In this school, the entire IT budget for the year was £1200 - and this had to include repair and maintenance of equipment, CD-ROMs etc. The school in question was a large primary school too, so many primary schools may have only half that amount of money to support IT.

Staff Development: There was universal agreement that if teachers are to use new technologies in the classroom they must be familiar with the equipment. One supplier has offered staff a discount on machines bought for home use.

Training student teachers: This was considered essential and three headteachers were putting together proposals in this area.

Embedding the innovation: At the time of writing, there is little sign of the new opportunities being embedded in work across the curriculum. Knowledge about the equipment provided and the opportunities available is currently held by a small number of staff. Schools may have trouble maintaining their momentum in this area if expertise does not become more widely spread. However, this report has been prepared at an early stage in this innovation and there is some evidence that some of the schools involved are starting to disseminate knowledge about developments to staff and pupils and that the use of these new technologies is being integrated into pupils' work.
5. GENERAL POINTS

Project Connect attempted to provide networked systems in schools whereas other schools and projects often operate using one access point to the Internet and e-mail. This latter course, although easy to achieve technically clearly limits the integration of the opportunities offered through the Internet into normal classroom practice. Whilst there have been serious technical difficulties within Project Connect some successes can be recorded.

A significant limitation on developments in schools has been the limited capacity of the ISDN link and the lack of technical support.

The draft final report was circulated to all involved during January/February and comments were invited.

This final report has now been revised to take account of the additional information received during that consultation process.

Marilyn Leask
March 1996.

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Appendix C:

TeacherNetUK
1. Mission statement

2. Collaborating organisations
   - Steering Group members
   - Consultants and Project staff
   - Information only
   - Registered members of interim development team

3. Publicity leaflet

4. Prototype web-site
   - Home page
   - About TeacherNet UK
   - First level home pages

5. Interactive web-site
   - Passports
   - Discussions
   - Pointers

6. Partnership document
   - Partnership model
   - Background
   - Management structure

7. Business plan
Mission Statement

TeacherNet UK provides an on-line community in which teachers develop their professional practice.

UK teachers have developed this initiative to promote the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) to support professional development and to improve the quality of teaching and learning. It will include the development and maintenance of an interactive web-site.

TeacherNet UK will

Simplify access to information about, for example
  • professional and career development
  • official and statutory documents relating to UK education

Provide an infrastructure to support
  • innovative curriculum projects
  • forums for informed debate
  • peer evaluation and review of educational resources

Publish information, for example
  • annotated links to selected Internet sites, commercial and non-commercial
  • outcomes from teachers’ Action Research

TeacherNet UK is
  • developed with teachers for teachers
  • independent and freely available
  • responsive to individuals
  • part of a planned national strategy for the introduction of ICT into UK schools
  • an independent network for all those interested in UK education

Mission Statement: TeacherNet UK
20th August 1997
TeacherNet UK: a project based on partnership

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August 14th, 1997
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<td>OFSTED</td>
<td>Gabriel Goldstein</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oxfordshire Schools Inspectorate</td>
<td>Ike Garson</td>
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Contact
August 14th, 1997
Beverley Parker (Principal Project Officer)
Steering Group

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<th>Dave Wooldridge</th>
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<td>Doug Brown Adviser</td>
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<td>Cardiff Educational &amp; Cultural Services</td>
<td>Simon Brown County Advisor for IT</td>
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<td>CISCO Syste Ltd</td>
<td>Mike McKeown Manager, EMEA Educational Market Development</td>
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<td>Colcot Primary School</td>
<td>Chris Britten</td>
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<td>Consortium of Subject Teacher Associations, Tele-School on Line</td>
<td>Grahame Leon-Smith Chair: COSTA</td>
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<tr>
<td>De Montfort University</td>
<td>Marilyn Leask Principal Lecturer (Education) Beverley Parker TeacherNetUK Project Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>DfEE</td>
<td>Tim Tarrant Bob Nelson</td>
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<tr>
<td>DTI/ICL Schools-on-Line</td>
<td>Tom King (observer)</td>
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<td>Education OnLine</td>
<td>Mike Collett Director</td>
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<td>Dave Rendell</td>
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<td>Gordonstoun School</td>
<td>David Monteith</td>
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<td>ICL</td>
<td>Tim Bidlake-Corser Business Development Manager</td>
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<td>Institute of Education, Moray House (Scotland)</td>
<td>Frank Ada Director of Teacher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Institute of Education, University of London</td>
<td>Christina Preston Dept of Science &amp; Technology (visiting fellow)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Institute of Education, University of Warwick</td>
<td>Michelle Selinger Lecturer in IT Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Islebrook (Special) School</td>
<td>Kevin McHenry Head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kings College London</td>
<td>Margaret Cox Chair: ACITT</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lord Grey (Secondary) School</td>
<td>Stan Hughes Head</td>
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<tr>
<td>Montagu (Secondary) School</td>
<td>Keith Byrom IT co-ordinator</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCET</td>
<td>Ian Gilchrist (observer) Programme Manager</td>
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<tr>
<td>Park Junior School</td>
<td>Krys Durling Deputy head</td>
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<td>Robert Bloomfield Middle School</td>
<td>Simon Beer</td>
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<td>SCAA</td>
<td>Neil Mclean Mike Absolon</td>
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<td>Schools Online, Anglia Polytechnic University</td>
<td>Richard Millwood Senior Lecturer</td>
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<td>Scottish Consultative Council on the Curriculum</td>
<td>Ian Smith</td>
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<td>Scottish Council for Educational Technology</td>
<td>Ivan Myktyn</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scottish Office Education and Industry Department</td>
<td>Shona McDonald</td>
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<tr>
<td>South Bank University</td>
<td>John Meadows Senior lecturer</td>
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<tr>
<td>South Eastern Education and Library Board</td>
<td>Peter Geoghegan Field Officer Cyril King Technology Advisor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Management

The Steering Group

The steering group provides leadership and direction to the project and reviews and approves project outcomes. The steering group is intended to be representative of key interest groups across the profession and includes partners from industry. The representative nature of the group, with half of the members being classroom teachers in the long term, is intended both to ensure that the project outcomes are useful and relevant to teachers and that knowledge of the project and its purpose is widely disseminated.

Project Team

Project officers will be based within key educational organisations across England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland. These project officers will contribute to the development of the site and ensure that the site is responsive to local needs. LEAs and Initial Teacher Training departments will be asked to nominate a member of staff to liaise with the project team and to take the initiative forward.

The Principal Project Officer is Beverley Parker who may be contacted at:

TeacherNet UK
De Montfort University
Polhill Campus
Polhill Avenue
Bedford, Bedfordshire, UK
MK41 9EA
Tel: 01234 351671 ext. 3092
Direct Line: 01234 793092
Fax: 01234 217738
Email: tnetuk@dmu.ac.uk

TeacherNet UK: a project based on partnership developed with teachers for teachers

TeacherNet UK is intended to complement and bring together existing web projects by providing an interactive site well-known to all UK teachers. TeacherNet UK aims to avoid duplication of effort where possible and ensure that the key educational resources of the web are more easily accessible to teachers. Members of the steering group represent a number of Internet projects.

TeacherNet UK will become a non-profit company limited by guarantee and will seek charitable status. Patrons, sponsors and associates are providing financial backing during the three-year development period. It is intended that TeacherNet UK will become self-funding within three years. In the future, any surplus funds will be used to support teacher-researchers and educational research.
The purpose of TeacherNet UK is to use Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) to support teachers’ professional development and to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The initiative includes development of an independent web-site providing access to

- Teacher networks
- Resource and curriculum development
- Innovative curriculum projects
- On-line discussion groups both subject-based and cross-curricular
- A forum for the dissemination of information e.g. research news, government news, OFSTED support, Central Bureau news.

**Objectives**

In Phase 1, to secure the necessary financial resources to fund the initial research, site set-up and maintenance, with the aim of becoming self-funding within three years.

In Phase 2, to support the development of a critical mass of teachers skilled and knowledgeable about the applications of ICT to teaching, learning and professional development.

For TeacherNet UK to play a major role in European and other international networks.

**History of TeacherNet UK**

TeacherNet UK is one of the by-products of an international exchange of ideas stimulated by the British Council newIMAGES programme. Web sites similar to TeacherNet UK now exist in many countries around the world e.g. Australia, USA, Canada, in the European Union.

UK government agencies were consulted in Spring 1996 about the need to develop such a national resource. The ideas were put to a national consultative conference in October 1996 at De Montfort University.

Those attending the conference were chosen to represent key stakeholders in education. From this conference, an interim steering group for the initiative was established to take the ideas forward. This steering group has representatives from a wide range of interest groups in education and industry from Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales and England. The Principal Project Officer was appointed in April 1997 to oversee Phase 1 developments.
TeacherNet UK promotes the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) to support teachers' professional development and to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

This prototype site is being developed with teachers for teachers.

We need to know how it can be valuable and useful. Please send your comments and join us in building an interactive community of teachers who share ideas and ask questions.

Find out more about TeacherNet UK and how to register.

If you are already a registered participant of TeacherNet UK you can login.

You can browse the open part of the site from the menu on the left.

Click on the to return to this page from anywhere on the TeacherNet UK site.
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1997 TeacherNet UK last updated 17th July 1997
Follow this link to register your interest in TeacherNet UK.

The purpose of TeacherNet UK is to use Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) to support teachers' professional development and to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

TeacherNet UK is managed by a project team based within key educational organisations across England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland.

TeacherNet UK is pleased to be working with a number of partners.

Through this partnership model we aim to support change in classrooms and teacher training institutions.
Follow this link to register your interest in TeacherNet UK.

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about the partnership model

In order to achieve a dynamic network supporting change in classrooms and teacher training institutions, TeacherNet UK needs to establish partnerships between educators, companies and government agencies to provide

- financial stability during the three-year development period and beyond;
- a sound infrastructure on which to build, taking into account developments in the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in teaching and learning;
- a clear identity for the TeacherNet UK Web-site embracing UK education;
- a range of specialist skills and support structures for visitors to the Web-site;
- collaborative support for a Web presence which is responsive to the needs of all those with an interest in UK education.

Please contact the TeacherNet UK if you are interested in joining the partnership.
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TeacherNet UK

These pages are maintained by the TeacherNet UK and were updated on 11th July 1997.
how to register

During this developmental stage of the project, we are interested to know a little bit about our contributors. To register with TeacherNet UK send an email to teacher@uk.net with:

- your name;
- job title;
- name of your educational establishment;
- telephone number;
- a statement about your professional interests.

and we will send you a username and password within 48 hours.

TeacherNet UK has two complementary parts. The area you are in now contains static information from a number of sources. By registering with TeacherNet UK you can go into the interactive area where we are developing a number of ideas for collaboration and professional development. At present these include:

- focused discussion groups for teachers and others interested in education;
- creating web-pages collaboratively with colleagues throughout the UK;
- sharing classroom practice with other teachers;
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Top of page

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the project team

In order to ensure that TeacherNet UK serves the needs of teachers across the UK, part-time project officers need to be identified within key educational organisations in England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland. These project officers will contribute to the development of TeacherNet UK and ensure that the site is responsive to local needs. Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and Initial Teacher Education (ITE) departments will be asked to nominate a member of staff to liaise with the project team and to take the initiative forward during Phase 2.

The Principal Project Officer is Beverley Parker who can be contacted at ...
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TeacherNet UK complements and brings together existing web projects through an interactive web-site well-known amongst UK teachers.

TeacherNet UK collaborates with existing teacher networks through links with LEAs, professional associations, subject associations, in-service and pre-service training providers and other agencies.

TeacherNet UK aims to avoid duplication of effort where possible and ensure that the key educational resources of the web are more easily accessible to teachers. Members of the steering group represent a number of Internet projects in the UK.

TeacherNet UK will become a non-profit making company limited by guarantee and will seek charitable status. Patrons, sponsors and associates are providing financial backing and other forms of support during the three-year development period.
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about

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Brief history of TeacherNet UK

UK government agencies were consulted in Spring 1996 about the need to develop a national web-based resource for teachers. The School of Education at De Montfort University, Bedford, England hosted a national consultative conference in October 1996.

Those attending the conference were chosen to represent key stakeholders in UK education. From this conference, an interim steering group for TeacherNet UK was established to take the ideas forward. This steering group now has representatives from a wide range of interest groups in education and industry from Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales and England. The Principal Project Officer was appointed in April 1997 to oversee Phase 1 developments.

TeacherNet UK aims to play a key role in developing ideas proposed in the Stevenson Report and Government White Paper Curriculum in Perspective (July 1997).

Purpose of TeacherNet UK

The purpose of TeacherNet UK is to use Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) to support teachers' professional development and to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The initiative includes development of this independent, freely available website providing access to:

- teacher networks;
- resource and curriculum development;
- innovative curriculum projects;
- on-line discussion groups both subject- based and cross-curricular;
- a forum for the dissemination of information for example research news, government news, OFSTED support, Central Bureau news.

Aims of TeacherNet UK

- to enable UK teachers, student teachers and teacher educators to participate in an open access educational on-line learning community;
- to encourage the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) as a means of...
supporting teaching, learning, school improvement and school management;
- to develop a web site that is relevant and beneficial to teachers and their continuing professional development;
- for TeacherNet UK to play a major role in European and other international networks.

Objectives of TeacherNet UK

Phase I (April 1997 - October 1997)

To secure the necessary financial resources to fund the initial research, site set-up and maintenance, with the aim of becoming self-funding within three years.

Phase 2 (November 1997 - March 1998)

To support the development of a critical mass of teachers skilled and knowledgeable about the applications of ICT to teaching, learning and professional development. For TeacherNet UK to be well known, used and valued throughout the UK teaching profession.

Phase 3 (April 1998 - March 1999)

For TeacherNet UK to play a role in providing access to information about UK education.

Top of page

These pages are maintained by the TeacherNet UK team and were updated on 17th July 1997.
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Phase 3 (April 1998 - March 1999)

For TeacherNet UK to play a role in providing access to information about UK education.

These pages are maintained by the TeacherNet UK team and were updated on 17th July 1997.
We are pleased to be working with colleagues representing education, commerce and industry. During the development period, there will be three levels of partnership offering different levels of support to TeacherNet UK.

Patrons

Those who have made a commitment to the development and running of TeacherNet UK significantly beyond attendance at steering group meetings from the beginning of the project in October 1996 to when the site goes live at the end of Phase 1. Patrons have actively contributed to the formative development of TeacherNet UK and have a seat on the interim steering group.

- De Montfort University, England;
- ICL;
- Cisco;
- Ultralab, Anglia Polytechnic, England;
- Xemplar;
- Sun Microsystems;
- South Bank University;
- Education Online;
- Scottish Council for Educational Technology (SCET);
- The Scottish Office Education and Industry Department (SOEID).

There will be a mechanism for providing patrons with a higher profile in terms of public recognition than sponsors and associates.

Sponsors

Those who offer to support specific events and/or provide specific services or expertise. TeacherNet UK will work with a large number of sponsors as the project develops. There are a number of ways in which sponsors may support TeacherNet UK.

Associates

Those agencies and associations which encourage and support TeacherNet UK to give it a high status and public profile, for example, government agencies and charities.

The precise nature of involvement in this partnership will be negotiated on an individual basis.
SCET is all about learning through technology. In addition to developing resources SCET offers advice, guidance and solutions to government, teachers, students, businesses and parents on all aspects of learning through technology.

SCET is pleased to be providing TeacherNet UK with collaborative sponsorship.

Contacting SCET

Postal Address: 74 Victoria Crescent Road
Glasgow
G12 9JN
Scotland

Telephone: Tel: +44-(0)141-337-5000
Fax: Fax: +44-(0)141-337-5050
E-Mail: scet@scet.org.uk
Web: www.scet.org.uk
This area complements the interactive staffroom and provides an arena for publishing information.

Please e-mail the Project Officer or register with TeacherNet UK to join the discussion groups on the interactive side of this site where we are developing a number of ideas for collaboration and professional development. At present these include:

- focused discussion groups for teachers and others interested in education;
- creating web-pages collaboratively with colleagues throughout the UK;
- sharing classroom practice with other teachers;
- providing annotated links to favourite Web-sites;
- drawing people's attention to new curriculum resources;
- publicising curriculum projects.

Let us know what else you think we should include in this area by starting a discussion in the interactive part of the site once you have registered.
noticeboard

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- publicising curriculum projects.

TeacherNet UK is very interested in receiving case-studies and ideas for curriculum projects.

We are working closely with \texttt{Miranda}. If you visit the site, there are a number of interesting case-studies written by Miranda research and academic fellows. If you are interested in contributing case-studies to TeacherNet UK please contact the \texttt{TeacherNet UK} for further information.

We have received an interesting case-study of a fitness project from \texttt{TeacherNet UK}, which we are pleased to publish here.

\texttt{TeacherNet UK}

These pages are maintained by the TeacherNet UK and were updated on 15th July 1997.
noticeboard

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Top of page
TeacherNet is working with educational publishers, technical service providers and equipment manufacturers to bring you material for evaluation on-line.

In the future, we will be making this area of TeacherNet UK more responsive to your particular needs.

In the meantime, join the discussions about resource issues with teachers, manufacturers and suppliers in the interactive area of TeacherNet UK by sending an e-mail to [fill in the blank] with:

- your name;
- job title;
- name of your educational establishment;
- telephone number;
- a statement about your professional interests.

We are interested to know who our contributors are at this developmental stage of the project and will send you a username and password within 48 hours.

These pages are maintained by the TeacherNet UK and were updated on 11th July 1997.
TeacherNet resources

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This section of TeacherNet UK is for information of interest to school managers.

These people will include:

- senior managers
- curriculum leaders
- heads of department
- pastoral staff
- school governors
- LEA officers
- inspectors and advisers

If you would like to contribute to this area or have ideas about developing content here, e-mail TeacherNet UK Project Officer.
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This section is for information about professional development opportunities for teachers.

We hope to work closely with pre-service and in-service training providers including University education departments, LEA advisory services, independent consultants and others.

E-mail TeacherNet UK Project Officer <TeacherNet@project.officer> if you would like to contribute to this area providing some background details about yourself, the opportunities you can offer teachers and your institution/service.
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These pages are maintained by the TeacherNet UK and were updated on 11th July 1997.
TeacherNet UK is part of a worldwide development to link teachers through web-based projects.

The European network is growing rapidly. Take a look at the European SchoolNet site for up-to-date information.

Visit some of the sites in the European Union.

There are also sites in France and Germany which you may find interesting.

* * *

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See some of the sites in the European Union.

There are also sites in [ ] and [ ] which you may find interesting.
Welcome to the interactive pages!

Inside the staffroom, you can take part in discussions by following the debate, contributing your own ideas or starting new discussions.

You can read about current news and events and publicise activities.

We'd like you to comment on the design, structure and content of TeacherNet UK to create a feeling of partnership in its development.

Inside the classroom, you can contact colleagues about curriculum projects and ask for partners.

You can create annotated links to Web-pages. TeacherNet UK calls these Pointers.

In partnership with publishers and manufacturers, you can review classroom materials.
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About Passports

Members of TeacherNet UK can find out about each other through their passports.

Click on your icon at the top of this page to go to your passport.

Click on the initial letter below to search for members of TeacherNet UK by surname.

ABCDEF GHJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

Click here for a list of all members of TeacherNet UK.
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Beverley Parker's Passport

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Beverley Parker
baparker@cmu.ac.uk

Memberships
Members
Guests

This is a collection of pages, boxes, pointers, messages etc. on SOL2.
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Structure of the 'outside' pages Beverley Parker 17:11 24/6/1997

We have created the basic structure for the site based on discussions with members of the steering group and feedback from the conference at Old Windsor in April 1997. Can we discuss this further here, to make sure that it serves our needs.
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TeacherNet UK: a project based on partnership

The Partnership Model

and

Management Structure

Development Period

(May 1997 - December 1999)
TeacherNet UK: a project based on partnership

Partnership Model

In order to achieve a dynamic network supporting change in classrooms and teacher training institutions, TeacherNet UK will establish partnerships between educators, companies and government agencies to provide

- financial stability during the three-year development period and beyond
- a sound infrastructure on which to build, taking into account developments in the use of ICT in teaching and learning
- a clear identity for the TeacherNet UK web-site embracing UK education
- a range of specialist skills and support structures for visitors to the web-site
- collaborative support for a web presence which is responsive to the needs of all those with an interest in UK education

In the longer term, TeacherNet UK will become a self-financing, non-profit-making company. During the development period, there will be three levels of partnership offering different levels of support to TeacherNet UK.

Patrons

Those who have made a financial commitment to the development and running of TeacherNet UK significantly beyond attendance at steering group meetings from the beginning of the project in October 1996 to when the site goes live at the end of Phase 1. Patrons have actively contributed to the formative development of TeacherNet UK and have a seat on the interim steering group. At the present time these are; Cisco, De Montfort University, Education Online, ICL, Scottish Council for Educational Technology (SCET), Scottish Office for Education and Industry Department (SOEID), South Bank University, Sun Microsystems, Ultralab: University of East Anglia and Xemplar. There will be a mechanism for providing patrons with a higher profile in terms of public recognition than sponsors and associates.

Sponsors

Those who offer to support specific events and/or provide specific services or expertise described in more detail below. Patrons may also offer this type of support in addition to their earlier commitment, but TeacherNet UK will work with a large number of sponsors as the project develops. It will be important to identify and evaluate revenue from sponsors over the development period in order to plan how to ensure that TeacherNet UK becomes self-funding within three years. It is envisaged that a significant proportion of revenue will be through advertising.

Associates

Those agencies and associations which encourage and support TeacherNet UK to give it a high status and public profile, for example, government agencies and charities.

Partnerships with TeacherNet UK

The precise nature of involvement in this partnership will be negotiated on an individual basis. Patrons, sponsors and associates may expect to receive some or all of the following in return for their support for TeacherNet UK during the development period

- a presence (in the form of a company logo) on the web-site, in conference materials and printed publicity
- access to user data by negotiation and in line with Data Protection legislation
- access to the educational market-place for their services and products
- advertising space on the web-site
- access to contacts and networks through membership of the steering or executive groups

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Final Draft Partnership and Management Structure
August 20th, 1997
Beverley Parker (Principal Project Officer)
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- a raised profile within the education sector
- opportunities to take part in teaching and learning initiatives, for example European projects

There are a number of different types of support for TeacherNet UK which patrons, sponsors and associates may be able to offer, for example:

- annual, quarterly or block grants to TeacherNet UK
- salary and/or expenses for executive group personnel carrying out identified functions
- sponsorship for conferences
- sponsorship for teacher researchers
- technical and/or specialist support for planning, development and research
- sponsorship of professorships in ICT
- providing information for the web-site (news, job opportunities)
- providing or subsidising training courses for teachers
- donating prizes for competitions
- providing technical and/or design expertise for the web-site and print publicity
- supporting the infrastructure (e.g. web-space, servers, database software)
- providing administrative support
- providing ISP accounts for potential users (for example, schools)
- providing hardware and/or software to particular groups

TeacherNet UK will support the community of teachers in the UK which includes:

- classroom teachers
- student teachers (pre-service and in-service)
- school senior and middle managers
- teacher educators in HE/SCITT consortia and Local Education Authorities (ITE, INSET and CPD including higher degrees)
- GM and independent school staff in the UK
- teachers working in British and International Schools overseas
- community and youth education workers

TeacherNet UK will support change in schools through collaboration with:

- internet service providers with an interest in the education sector (for example, BT and RM)
- educational consultants
- teachers' subject associations
- television broadcasters (BBC, ITV companies, cable companies)
TeacherNet UK: a project based on partnership

- UK government departments and agencies (OFSTED, TTA, SCAA, DfEE, WO, DENI, SOED, SCET, NCET, NFER)
- the education press (TES, THES, Guardian, Daily Telegraph, educational journals and magazines)
- school governors
- insurance companies
- LEA and Library Board personnel (officers, advisers, inspectors, support services)
- High Street chain stores with an interest in education
- retailers with products of interest to the school sector
- educational publishers (print-based and software)
- teachers' professional associations and Trade Unions (NUT, NAS/UWT, ATL, PAT, NAHT, SHA, NATFHE, UCET)
- hardware manufacturers with an interest in the education sector

Background

TeacherNet UK has emerged from international exchanges of ideas stimulated by the British Council newIMAGES programme. The purpose of TeacherNet UK is to support teachers' professional development and to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The initiative includes development of an independent, freely available web-site providing access to:

- teacher networks (national and international);
- resource and curriculum development;
- innovative curriculum projects;
- on-line discussion groups both subject- and cross-curricular;
- a forum for the dissemination of information, for example research news, government news, OFSTED support, Dental Bureau news.

There are similar developments around the world including Australia, USA, Canada and the EU SchoolNet.

In the UK there are several sites which begin to provide aspects of this service. Some are funded as short- or medium-term projects (for example SENCO project managed by NCET, Schools OnLine), others are commercial ventures requiring schools to purchase products or services (for example BT CampusWorld, RM Internet for Learning). Due to the fragmented nature of the Internet, many of these valuable resources are not readily available to teachers and teacher educators. TeacherNet UK will work closely with other UK projects and service providers to ensure long-term stability and easy access to a national educational resource for all UK teachers.

Following discussions with UK government agencies during spring 1996 and a consultative conference held in October 1996 a national interim steering group was established.

The TeacherNet UK project development period has three phases.

Phase 1 (May - October 1997)

TeacherNet UK will establish itself as a company limited by guarantee with UK government backing and financial support from patrons. The project will set up a pilot web-site and carry out research and development with a group of schools, HEIs, LEAs and other interested parties. TeacherNet UK will work alongside the NetDay initiative to ensure that schools develop implementation plans which include curriculum development and on-going staff training. TeacherNet UK will work closely with the proposed European SchoolNet.
TeacherNet UK: a project based on partnership

Phase 2 (November 1997 - April 1999)
TeacherNet UK will continue to work with a wide range of partners to support the development of a critical mass of teachers skilled and knowledgeable about the applications of ICT to teaching and learning. This will include further development of the web-site and collaboration with training providers to support schools in developing their use of the Internet.

Phase 3 (May - December 1999)
By the end of Phase 3, TeacherNet UK will be run on a self-funding, non-profit-making basis and play a key role in providing interactive access to information and teacher networks for educators in the UK.

This paper offers draft proposals for managing TeacherNet UK and establishing effective working relationships with partners during the development period.

Management Structure

Steering Group
The group is representative of key players with an interest in teaching and learning including educators, commerce, government and industry. By the end of Phase 3, it will include significant representation (up to 50%) from practising classroom teachers.

Role of the Steering Group
1. to oversee quality, development and maintenance of the web-site
2. to lobby Government about the needs of UK education
3. to provide leadership and direction for TeacherNet UK
4. to review and approve outcomes of the project
5. to refine the purpose and function of TeacherNet UK

Functions
1. To meet three times per year: January, May and October during Phases 1-3. An agenda will be circulated to members by the executive group administrator two weeks prior to meetings. Minutes will be circulated in the fortnight following meetings.
2. To elect and co-opt working parties for specific tasks from time to time. These groups will work closely with identified members of the executive group and report back to steering group meetings as appropriate.
3. To communicate through an electronic mailing list currently set up on the DMU server and maintained by the principal project officer during Phase 1 of the project: TNet-manag@dmu.ac.uk
4. To ratify the business plan drawn up during Phase 1 (October 1997).
5. To brief the incoming government (June-October 1997).
6. To brief government ministers as appropriate during the development period.
7. To lobby potential key players as appropriate.
8. To ratify job descriptions and person specifications for executive group members.
9. To take part in selection and interviewing candidates for advertised posts on the executive group as appropriate.
10. To advise members of the executive group as appropriate.
Executive Group

During the development period this group will be funded by patrons and sponsors.

Role of the Executive Group

1. to manage and develop TeacherNet UK on a day-to-day basis
2. to report back to the steering group three times per year
3. to carry out functions as required by the steering group

Functions

The functions listed in the rest of this section have been categorised under headings which, in the longer term, may provide the basis for person specifications of discrete posts held by employees of TeacherNet UK. There is no intention that these functions will need to be carried out by identified individual post-holders. Indeed, it is more likely that many of these functions will be carried out by personnel contracted by TeacherNet UK on a short-term basis to undertake or support specific tasks.

Financial details may be found in the Business Plan.

Project Director

- to line-manage the principal project officer on a day-to-day basis
- to ratify job descriptions and person specifications for members of the executive group
- to brief LEAs, Library Boards, government agencies and other key partners in consultation with the steering group and principal project officer
- to deputise for the steering group chair as appropriate
- to oversee working parties set up by the steering group in consultation with the principal project officer
- to monitor and review developments on the site in consultation with other executive group members
- to establish effective quality control systems in consultation with the steering group
- to represent TeacherNet UK at key conferences in the UK and abroad

Principal Project Officer (TeacherNet UK)

- to manage executive group members on a day to day basis
- to report back to the project director on a weekly basis
- to ensure that time-scales for developments are adhered to and modify these as appropriate
- to draw up job descriptions and person specifications for members of the executive group
- to identify key partners and establish effective working relationships
- to co-ordinate contributions from others involved in the development period including those taking part in TeacherNet UK pilot schemes
- to liaise with working parties set up by the steering group to carry out specific tasks with other executive group members
- to monitor and review developments on the site in consultation with other executive group members
- to establish effective quality control systems in consultation with the steering group
TeacherNet UK: a project based on partnership

- to liaise with LEAs, Library Boards and government agencies
- to devise training materials for users in collaboration with other members of the executive group
- to maintain electronic conferences as appropriate in collaboration with other members of the executive group
- to take minutes at steering group meetings
- to deputise for the project director as appropriate
- to represent TeacherNet UK at key conferences in the UK and abroad

Administration
- to provide day to day administrative support for all members of the executive group
- to deal with all administration associated with steering group meetings and maintain records
- to maintain a database of all project participants and contracted personnel
- to register new members to the web-site and record them on the database

Personnel and Finance
- to check job descriptions and person specifications against equal opportunities and other appropriate criteria
- to place advertisements for posts
- to manage selection and interview procedures

Advertising, Marketing and Sponsorship
- to identify potential sponsorship avenues and approach individual personnel as appropriate
- to design and produce suitable advertising and marketing materials
- to devise a marketing strategy in collaboration with other members of the executive group which will achieve self-funding status for TeacherNet UK within three years
- to liaise with sponsors

Curriculum
- to research and evaluate curriculum resources already available on the web in collaboration with teachers and subject associations
- to identify partners to work on curriculum projects and oversee their contributions
- to develop innovative curriculum projects for publication on TeacherNet UK
- to monitor and moderate electronic subject conferences on TeacherNet UK
- to evaluate educational web-sites in collaboration with teachers
- to maintain and respond to feedback sections on TeacherNet UK
- to devise training materials for users in collaboration with other executive group members and training providers across the UK.

Technical
- to set up and maintain the site contents
- to maintain the server
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- to develop the site in response to feedback from participants
- to advise on new technologies which may be exploited to improve the site
- to maintain links to other sites
- to liaise with other executive group members and users to ensure that the site is responsive to their needs
- to advise other members of the executive group on technical issues
- to devise training materials for users in collaboration with other executive group members and training providers across the UK

Research

- to identify key areas for research into the use of ICT in teacher education
- to carry out research
- to publish papers in consultation and collaboration with the chair and principal project officer
- to present papers at key conferences in the UK and abroad
Appendix D:

Choices for the Researcher and Problematic issues in Research
APPENDIX D:
CHOICES FOR THE RESEARCHER AND PROBLEMATIC ISSUES IN RESEARCH

D.1 Choices in research design

Many issues related to choices which researchers make in designing and undertaking research have been covered in Section 1 where consideration was given to philosophical issues, ethical issues, action stance and notions of quality. In this section, I take this discussion further to outline my position on some of the choices facing researchers.

It is not the intention in this appendix to cover the detail of how one designs and undertakes educational research. In Leask (1988c) I provide a critical analysis of educational research methods, focusing particularly on the steps taken to ensure validity and reliability of findings. Considerable detail about my approach to educational research is provided in Section 1 and in a number of the papers - see for example, papers 1, 22, 37, 38, Appendix B, Leask 1988c, together with Leask, 1986a-c, 1987b-f and 1988d & 1988e which were written for teachers to provide further advice. In Section 1, I discussed a number of the problematic issues which I have faced in undertaking research in a variety of contexts, including the TVEI evaluation, the School Development Plans Project, the STEM Project\(^1\) and Project Connect\(^2\).

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1. A research project investigating recruitment strategies used by universities (Leask, Turner & Turner 1995, 1996)
2. An evaluation of an industry-based initiative to introduce information and communication technologies in the classroom.
In each of these projects, I have had to take a number of methodological decisions.

The main areas in which decisions have to be made by a researcher at the beginning of any research include the following:

- Choosing the focus
- Choosing the sample
- Ethical stance
- Methods of Data collection: choices are made from questionnaires, interviews, documents, observations. Place, time, position, power relationships, potential bias of respondents and researcher have also to be considered.
- Piloting techniques
- Recording techniques
- Analytical methods
- Ways of ensuring validity and reliability of findings
- Philosophical and political stance of the research. There are many recognised paradigms and it is sometimes politically appropriate to align the methodology with one paradigm rather than another.
- Reporting and accountability issues
- Financial issues: any research is constrained by cost.

Each context for research imposes constraints on research design. Probably any research is compromised to some extent by political and financial constraints. Many texts (e.g. Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995; Hammersley & Atkin, 1995; Cole and Manion, 1995 and Bassey, 1996) are available to guide the researcher about choice of strategy.

Validity and accuracy of data and its analysis are constant concerns to the research community. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995, p.131) quote Dean and Whyte (1958) as suggesting the solution:

that rather than asking, for example ‘How do I know if the informant is telling the truth?’ we should consider what the informant’s statements reveal about his or her feelings and perceptions, and what inferences can be made from these about the actual environment or events experienced. The aim is not to gather ‘pure’ data
that are free from potential bias. There is no such thing. Rather the goal must be to discover the correct manner of interpreting whatever data we have.

Acknowledging the problem of gathering 'pure data' and the influence of both researcher and respondent context on the data is, they suggest, essential, if a researcher is to produce work which has credibility:

‘the accounts produced by the people under study, must neither be treated as ‘valid in their own terms’ and thus beyond assessment and evaluation, nor dismissed as epiphenomena or ideological distortions.... Rather all accounts must be examined as social phenomena occurring in and shaped by, particular contexts’.

(ibid, p.156)

The artificiality of an interview situation can affect the validity of the data produced.

Judd et al recommend observations where appropriate in order to avoid this problem:

‘Naturalness can also contribute to construct validity because unobtrusively observed behaviours (e.g. staff room seating patterns) are likely to reflect the desired construct (staff relationships) to a greater extent than questionnaire or other responses obtained for obvious research purposes which might be more subject to response biases.’

(Judd et al, 1991, p.272)

Hammersley takes up these issues and the following argument (mentioned earlier in this submission) provides researchers with a basis for claiming validity for their work provided certain criteria about honesty and openness are met:

For me, the point at which we should stop providing or asking for further evidence depends on our judgement in particular cases about what we can take as beyond reasonable doubt and what relevant others will take to be beyond reasonable doubt. And any such judgement subsequently may be questioned by those others, or even by us should we revise our views about the validity of our assumptions. What is essential to research, on this view, is a dialogue in which there is a search for common ground and an attempt to work back from this to resolve disagreements, plus a willingness to revise views about previously accepted assumptions and adjust our beliefs accordingly. What research offers from this perspective is not knowledge that can be taken to be valid because it is based on a certain foundation, but rather knowledge that can reasonably be assumed to be (on average) less likely to be invalid than information from other
sources. This is because the kind of dialogue I have outlined functions to expose and eliminate errors.

(Hammersley, 1992, pp. 200-201)

These concerns provide a framework guiding the choices in research design facing the researcher.

In the following sections, I outline some of the specific decisions which I have had to undertake in the research projects I have undertaken.

D.2 Interviews: specific methodological considerations

As well as the general issues mentioned above, there are specific issues which the researcher has to consider when undertaking interviews:

A. Type, structure and location of interviews
B. Questioning style
C. Recording method
D. Researcher induced bias, ethics/power relationships

Key points to consider in these areas are listed in the following tables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Type, structure and location of interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A researcher has to consider whether the interview is to be:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Semi-structured, structured or unstructured;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• a ‘spontaneous informal conversation’ (Hammersley &amp; Atkinson, 1995, p.139) or ‘formally arranged meeting’ (ibid, p.139);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• formal or informal;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• group or one to one;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• on whose territory? Power relationships and informants’ perceptions of researcher expectations can affect outcomes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
B. Questioning style

Issues for the researcher to consider include:

- Choice between standardised/reflexive interviewing (ibid, p.152);
- keeping to the point/order;
- being sensitive to wording/meaning;
- considering the order in which questions should be asked;
- being clear about purpose: is the respondent being asked to undertake critical thinking? Is the researcher wanting opinion? facts? or verifying observations?
- are directive/non-directive questions to be asked..open ended...hypothesis testing?

Bell as well as Hammersley and Atkinson, suggest the researcher asks ‘no leading, presumptive, offensive questions’ unless the researcher is wanting to test ideas (Bell, 1987, p.70; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995, p.155).

C. Recording

Issues for the researcher to consider include:

- is data to be recorded on tape or handwritten;
- what body language is appropriate;
- what factors should influence choice of language/pace/pauses.

D. Bias

Researchers have to be aware that in order to minimise the impact of the researcher on the situation, the following points should be considered:

- the impact of the researcher’s manner...;
- interpersonal relationships/power relationships;
- the researchers’ views and inadvertent use of leading questions.

These problems should be acknowledged in writing up.

There is an acknowledged necessity for the researcher to be sensitive to sub-texts in situations however this introduces selectivity in the methodology used and the
Appendix D

questions asked which can invalidate the data as the following examples show.

Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) report the experience of one researcher who found that the travellers whom she wished to interview would ‘assess the needs of the questioner and give the appropriate answer thus disposing of the intruder, his ignorance intact’ (ibid p. 127). Hammersley and Atkinson also discuss the problem faced by another researcher investigating drug use who commented ‘In the streets, I found you don’t ask questions...’ (ibid, p.128).

D.3 Observations: specific methodological issues

Many of the general points made above and those specific to interviewing apply to collecting data through observations. As with any form of data collection, observations need to be systematically planned. This requires particular consideration of the following points in addition to those listed above:

- use of checklists
- development of coding mechanisms
- decisions about time sampling (e.g. after units of time.)
- decisions about sampling
- checks for validity and reliability
- resolving of access and ethical issues.

D.4 Questionnaires: specific methodological issues

Questionnaire design is explored thoroughly in a number of texts and the art of questionnaire design is probably most well developed by market researchers. For the purpose of small scale educational research, the questionnaire is designed and applied using the principles outlined in the preceding sections. The principles governing larger scale questionnaire use such as for attitudinal testing are not examined here.
D.5 Case study: specific methodological considerations

In undertaking case study, the researcher has to bear in mind all of the points raised above as case studies draw on qualitative or quantitative methods and use combinations of the following:

- interviewing
- document analysis (including field notes)
- questionnaires
- observations

As Adelman points out, case study is 'an umbrella term for a family of research methods having in common the decision to focus on enquiry around an instance' (Adelman, 1977 cited in Bell, 1987, p.6).

What distinguishes a case study is principally the object which is to be explored, not the methodological orientation used in studying it. (Stake, 1994, cited in Hitchcock and Hughes 1995, 2nd edition, p.316).

Hitchcock and Hughes suggest that case study is particularly useful in that it 'allows concentration on a particular focus' and it 'may expose crucial issues hidden in larger scale studies.'

Cases may be simple and straightforward, or they might be complex and extended. What is central, however, to all the people who have claimed to be carrying out case studies is a focus on the specific, the clearly bounded and the unique. (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995, p.319)

Bell defines a successful case study as one which provides

...a 3 dimensional picture and will illustrate relationships, micropolitical issues and patterns of influence in a particular context. (Bell, 1987, p.7)
‘as in all research, evidence is collected systematically, the relationship between variables is studied and the study is methodically planned. Case study is concerned principally with the interactions between factors and events’

(Bell, 1987, p. 6)

Summary

In the UK, the educational research community provides a wealth of material including practical advice and examples to guide the inexperienced researcher. The texts, of authors such as Burgess, Simons, Pring, Eraut, Ebbutt, Hopkins, Whitehead, Elliott, Somekh, McNiff, Stenhouse, MacDonald, Cohen, Manion, Hitchcock, Hughes, Wragg, Walker, Schratz, Marsh, Taylor-Fitzgibbon, Delamont, Bassey provide a variety of perspectives covering philosophical and ethical as well as advice on quantitative and qualitative methods.
Appendix E:

Extract from an Action Plan June 1996
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>STRATEGIES FOR IMPLEMENTATION</th>
<th>SUCCESS CRITERIA</th>
<th>RESOURCES</th>
<th>INSET NEEDS</th>
<th>PERSON RESPONSIBLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of Food Production, due to Hygiene regulations. Health and Safety Issue.</td>
<td>Replacement of existing, out of date and unhygienic equipment. Development of open learning environment. General resource improvement.</td>
<td>Creation of Hygienic modernised food technology area. Development of mini-enterprise and other motivating aspects of the area. Uptake at post 16</td>
<td>Equipment including hand tools, cleaning materials, camera and lighting, industrial refrigerator, extractor fan, books and furniture. Minimum £1000, general modernisation of room to be costed over the year.</td>
<td>Gill to attend Industrial placements if available, 5 days 7 and technician to be retrained, 1 Day.</td>
<td>David to oversee with Gill organising in association with Senior Management Team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New school issues Professional development of staff and teachers.</td>
<td>Planning and co-ordination meetings with various external agencies, meeting with Year 9 form staff and Head of Year.</td>
<td>Increased motivation in KS4, leading to greater take up post 16. Stronger links with external agencies.</td>
<td>Unknown at this point</td>
<td>Time for visits.</td>
<td>Mrs Shooshiffer as KS3 co-ordinator with support from David and the rest of the department.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holistic approach Raft of IT developments and learning of rich materials through the Scheme of Work.</td>
<td>Visit to local primaries, production of liaison booklet, in conjunction with Heads of Year 7.</td>
<td>Greater awareness of Year 7's previous knowledge, thereby improving Schemes of Work.</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td>Matthew and Alex, with support from Head of Year 7, David to oversee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continued development IT</td>
<td>IT to take a more prominent position in the departmental Schemes of Work.</td>
<td>Pupils becoming autonomous users of IT</td>
<td>Upgrade of all facilities, access to CD-ROM, Internet in department.</td>
<td>Departmental INSET run in-house by Steve Newman or David.</td>
<td>David with help from Steve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of Special Needs and learning of rich materials through the Scheme of Work.</td>
<td>Inclusion of new material in Scheme of Work, greater differentiation within tasks, possible early entry at GCSE.</td>
<td>More pupils achieving higher/ more appropriate grades.</td>
<td>Little required</td>
<td>INSET for Alex-SEN and Matt-LEG. 2 X 1 day.</td>
<td>Alex to co-ordinate special needs work, Matthew to co-ordinate enrichment work, David to oversee.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix F:

The School Development Plan and the Planning Process
What is a School Development Plan (SDP)?

'...The SDP needs to be a brief document, freely available, which gives those reading it an understanding of:
• the aims and values of the school, its strengths and how proposed changes further these aims;
• the priorities pinpointed for development and proposed timescales;
• the resources required;
• how progress will be reported.'

The Stages

'The stages of the annual development planning cycle are shown in the following diagram:

The audit/review stage is used to establish strengths and weaknesses in order to choose the priorities for development. All those connected with a school have different perspectives. Younger pupils have different viewpoints to older pupils, parents different to teachers, the head and governors too will have individual perspectives...

The draft plan is put to governors...

...action plans are drawn up to include details of what is to be done, the timescales involved and the criteria for judging success...

...Reporting to all involved is an important stage of the process...'
Appendix G:

National Standard for Effective Investment in People
National Standard for Effective Investment in People

An Investor in People makes a public commitment from the top to develop all employees to achieve its business objectives.

- Every employer should have a written but flexible plan which sets out business goals and targets, considers how employees will contribute to achieving the plan and specifies how development needs in particular will be assessed and met.
- Management should develop and communicate to all employees a vision of where the organisation is going and the contribution employees will make to its success, involving employee representatives as appropriate.

1.1 There is a public commitment from the most senior level to develop people.
1.2 Employees at all levels are aware of the broad aims or vision of the organisation.
1.3 There is a written but flexible plan which sets out business targets and goals.
1.4 The plan identifies broad development needs and specifies how these will be assessed and met.
1.5 The employer has considered what employees at all levels will contribute to the success of the organisation and has communicated this effectively to them.
1.6 Where representative structures exist, management communicates with employees’ representatives a vision of where the organisation is going and the contribution that employees (and their representatives) will make to its success.

An Investor in People regularly reviews the training and development needs of all employees.

- The resources for training and developing employees should be clearly identified in the business plan.
- Managers should be responsible for regularly agreeing training and development needs with each employee in the context of business objectives, setting targets and standards linked, where appropriate, to the achieve of National Vocational Qualifications (or relevant units) and in Scotland, Scottish Vocational Qualifications.

2.1 The business plan identifies the resources that will be used to meet training and development needs.
2.2 Training and development needs are regularly reviewed against business objectives.
2.3 A process exists for regularly reviewing the training and development needs of all employees.
2.4 Responsibility for developing people is clearly identified throughout the company from the top.
2.5 Managers are competent to carry out their responsibilities for developing people.
2.6 Targets and standards are set for development actions.
2.7 Where appropriate, training targets are linked to external standards for example National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) or Scottish Vocational Qualifications (SVQs).

An Investor in People takes action to train and develop individuals on recruitment and throughout their employment.

- Action should focus on the training needs of all new recruits and continually developing and improving the skills of existing employees.
- All employees should be encouraged to contribute to identifying and meeting their own job-related development needs.

3.1 All new employees are introduced effectively to the organisation and given the training they need to do their jobs.
3.2 The skills of existing employees are developed in line with business objectives.
3.3 All employees are made aware of the development opportunities open to them.
3.4 All employees are encouraged to help identify and meet their job-related development needs.
3.5 Effective action takes place to achieve the training and development objectives of individuals and the organisation.
3.6 Managers are actively involved in supporting employees to meet their training and development needs.

An Investor in People evaluates the investment in training and development to assess achievement and improve future effectiveness.

- The investment, the competence and commitment of employees, and the use made of skills learned should be reviewed at all levels against business goals and targets.
- The effectiveness of training and development should be reviewed at the top level and lead to renewed commitment and target setting.

4.1 The organisation evaluates how its development of people is contributing to business goals and targets.
4.2 The organisation evaluates whether its development actions have achieved their objectives.
4.3 The outcomes of training and development are evaluated at individual, team and organisational levels.
4.4 Top management understand the broad costs and benefits of developing people.
4.5 The continuing commitment of top management to developing people is communicated to all employees.
Appendix H:

Details of the *Learning to Teach* series
Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School

Edited by Susan Capel, Canterbury Christ Church College, Marilyn Leask, De Montfort University, Bedford and Tony Turner, Institute of Education, University of London.

Designed for all students learning to teach in secondary schools, and particularly those on school-based initial teacher training courses, the books in the series complement our best-selling book, Learning to Teach in the Secondary School, and its companion, Starting to Teach in the Secondary School. Each book in the series applies underpinning theory and addresses practical issues to support students in school and the training institution in learning how to teach a particular subject. In each book, issues covered include:

- pupil learning
- special needs and special educational needs
- assessment
- using information technology in teaching and learning
- developing schemes of work
- the role of language in teaching and learning
- public examinations

*see below for new books in this series*

Learning to Teach Physical Education in the Secondary School

Edited by Susan Capel, Canterbury Christ Church College

There are many issues covered in initial teacher training which student PE teachers must apply to their own subject. However, the complexity of PE can make this difficult to do. This book is designed to address issues specifically for student PE teachers. It uses PE settings rather than adapting classroom examples and explores issues which student PE teachers are likely to face.

The book covers basic teaching skills and underpinning theory. It also includes activities which can be undertaken alone, with another student or with a tutor. By relating these specifically to PE, it will help student teachers to develop basic teaching skills, professional judgement, the ability to reflect critically, and a knowledge and understanding of the wider considerations of PE.

Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School
September 1997: 234x156: 352pp
Pb: 0-415-15301-8: £14.99

Learning to Teach History in the Secondary School

Terry Haydn, University of East Anglia, James Arthur, Canterbury Christ Church College and Martin Hunt, Manchester Metropolitan University

The purpose of this book is to enable students to teach history in a way that pupils will find interesting, enjoyable and purposeful. It incorporates a wide range of ideas about the teaching of history, with practical suggestions for classroom practice, and ideas for further investigations of particular aspects of teaching and learning history. The book also covers questions such as how to provide for differentiated learning and how to utilise the potential of new technology in the history classroom.

Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School
October 1997: 234x156: 272pp
Pb: 0-415-15433-7: £14.99

Learning to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary School

Norbert Pachler, De Montfort University, Bedford and Kit Field, Canterbury Christ Church College

The book will help students and teachers to develop a personal approach to language teaching, and to choose the most effective and appropriate methods to help pupils towards gaining relevant knowledge, skills and understanding. Chapters cover teaching grammar and cultural awareness, assessment in modern foreign languages teaching and learning, developing the use of the target language, and using new technology in classroom situations. Examples are given in French, German and Spanish, although most are transferable to other languages.

Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School
October 1997: 234x156: 320pp

Learning to Teach English in the Secondary School

Jon Davison, Canterbury Christ Church College and Jane Dowson, De Montfort University, Bedford

This book blends theory and practice to present a broad introduction to the practice of teaching English in secondary school classrooms. Taking as its starting point the nature of English as a subject, the book explores how students and practising teachers can monitor and develop their own practice through a range of approaches. Chapters cover the key skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening, and there are also sections on drama, poetry, teaching grammar, approaching Shakespeare, and using information technology in the English classroom.

Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School
November 1997: 234x156: 336pp
Pb: 0-415-15677-7: £14.99

Learning to Teach Geography in the Secondary School

David Lambert and David Balderstone, both at Institute of Education, University of London

This book will provide intending and practising teachers of geography with the practical skills to design, teach and evaluate varied and exciting lessons. It will also help them to acquire a deeper understanding of geography's role, purpose and potential in secondary education. The book also explores how teachers may use geography as a vehicle for preparing pupils for uncertain environmental, cultural, social and economic futures.

Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School
1998: 234x156: 224pp

Learning to Teach Science in the Secondary School

Tony Turner and Wendy Dimarco, both at Institute of Education, University of London

This handbook is designed to guide student teachers through the transition from graduate scientist to practising science teacher, focusing on personal and professional development. Chapters cover:

- the place of science in the curriculum
- pupil learning
- developing schemes of work and planning lessons
- classroom management and managing learning
- special educational needs in the science classroom
- the role of language in teaching and learning science
- assessment
- using information technology in science

Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School
Forthcoming in 1998


Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School
1998: 234x156: 224pp

Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School
1998: 234x156: 224pp
Learning to Teach Mathematics in the Secondary School

Peter Wilder, De Montfort University, Bedford and Sue Burns, Kings College, London

This book covers a wide range of issues in the teaching of mathematics and importantly, gives supporting activities to the student to enable them to translate theory into practice.

Topics covered include:

- the nature of mathematics as a subject
- mathematics in the National Curriculum
- pupil learning
- developing schemes of work
- using IT
- mathematics education for pupils with special needs in mathematics
- communicating mathematics
- assessment and public examinations
- cross-curricular issues
- mathematics beyond the classroom
- professional development

Learning to Teach Subjects in the Secondary School

July 1995: 186x123: 380pp
Pb: 0-415-11685-5: £12.99

Learning to Teach in the Secondary School

Susan Capel, Marilyn Leask and Tony Turner

This text will support student secondary school teachers through the school-based element of their initial training courses, an element which is increasingly important with the shift from college-based towards classroom-based training.

The book is divided into units, each covering a key concept or skill. Units focus initially on the management of classrooms and on issues of concern to prospective teachers managing classes for the first time. They then progress to address factors influencing learning and the wider professional perspective. Units include:

- the student teacher’s role
- planning lessons and schemes of work
- motivating pupils
- differentiation and grouping pupils
- teaching and learning styles
- assessment and recording
- working as part of a team

Within each unit is included a discussion of the area under consideration, learning activities for the beginning teacher which may be used individually or in groups, and an annotated list of suggested further reading for teachers who wish to explore particular topics in more detail.

July 1995: 186x123: 380pp
Pb: 0-415-11685-5: £12.99

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