

Understanding What Needs to be Done to Improve a School

**A thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

By

G. Stuart Wilson

**Department of Education,
Brunel University**

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to discover different ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school, with particular reference to secondary school headteachers. The variation within those understandings, and how the understandings are logically and hierarchically related, are also of interest.

Contributions of theory and knowledge to the quality of headteachers' thinking, in terms of negotiating personal and collective meanings, and implying interventions based on interpretations, are suggested. It is argued that the place of thinking (feeling and awareness) within school improvement is supreme, as thinking determines action, and we can only act in relation to how we perceive, experience, or understand a situation.

The relevant literature offers indicators of effective schools, helpful descriptors for aspects of the school improvement processes, suggestions for leadership actions, examples of expert practitioners, and a wide spectrum of theories of organisations and education management. What it does not consider is how this knowledge might combine and interact with experience to form different ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school. This research addresses the identified gap in the literature, and deepens our knowledge of the inner aspects of school improvement for both theorist and reflective practitioner.

The distinct understandings are derived from two sources, a range of literature that can be related to school improvement, and some empirical research consisting of a simulation exercise undertaken by 18 secondary school headteachers. A particular type of critical analysis is applied to the literature, and a phenomenographical approach is adopted for the scrutiny of the empirical data. Phenomenographic principles are utilised throughout the research, as they represent the only approach concerned directly with the different ways of understanding a phenomenon, and the relationships between understandings.

From a range of literature, four abstracted understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school are discovered. They are based on reflecting on excellence, adapting leadership, interpreting the organisation, and developing the inter-dependence of active learning. Each understanding offers a framework through which specific aspects of the relevant literature can be interpreted, applied and integrated, within a given context. From the empirical research, five ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school are discovered. They consist of increasing knowledge diagnostically, encouraging a dynamic environment, involving stakeholders in the re-establishment of priorities, enforcing expectations, and co-ordinating initiatives through development planning.

Our understandings of our work is an appropriate point from which to increase our competence, as it determines both what competences we develop, and how we develop them. Competence is increasingly concerned with how a situation is understood, what is required according to that understanding, and taking the necessary action. Competence is a consequence of the interaction between our understandings and the extent to which our work context empowers or controls us. For secondary school headteachers, it is argued that competence is dependent on how they understand what needs to be done to improve a school, and the extent to which their environments enable them to act on their understandings.

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List of Acronyms

BERA	British Educational Research Association
CMI	Chartered Management Institute
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
DES	Department of Education and Science
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
EPPI	Evidence-Informed Policy and Practice
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
HEADLAMP	Headteacher Leadership and Management Programme
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectors
HTI	Head Teachers in Industry
IM	Institute of Management
IQEA	Improving the Quality of Education for All
LEA	Local Education Authority
LPSH	Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers
MCI	Management Charter Initiative
NAHT	National Association of Head Teachers
NASSP	National Association of Secondary School Principals
NCSL	National College for School Leadership
NEAC	National Education Assessment Centre
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headteachers
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification

OD	Organisation Development
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
PANDA	Performance AND Assessment
SESI	School Effectiveness and School Improvement
SHA	Secondary Heads' Association
SMT	Senior Management Team
SMTF	School Management Task Force
STRB	School Teachers' Review Body
TQM	Total Quality Management
TTA	Teacher Training Agency

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Overview

1.2 The Focus of the Research

1.3 The Approach Taken

1.4 Conclusion

1.1 Overview

This introduction describes how the research question came to be formulated, and through reference to related research, establishes why it is important that it is carried out. It also outlines the overall format of the research, and the particular way in which the contributions of the literature are captured. Finally, the intended outcomes of the research are identified, and the organisation of the chapters given.

1.2 The Focus of the Research

The focus for this research project emerged through the convergence of two trains of thought. First, the researcher's personal experience as a senior manager in four secondary schools suggests that there is little consistency regarding how education managers see their job. As how education managers see their job seems to determine what they actually do, it is axiomatic to ask what are the different ways in which they see their job, and which, if any, is the most desirable way. Second, a preliminary survey of the literature indicated that there was no current research on the different ways headteachers in particular think about or understand how to go about improving a school. As thought precedes action, and improving schools is what headteachers are required to do, discovering how headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school could prove to be a valuable addition to both the research literature, and professional knowledge.

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Sandberg (1994; 2001) identifies variation in how people understand their job task in a company worker setting, and goes on to argue that those understandings largely determine the level of competence exhibited by the company workers. If Sandberg's argument holds true for headteachers working in schools, then one way to increase headteacher competence (and therefore improve schools) would be to identify the variation in headteachers' understandings, and promote the most effective understanding. This research effort is a specific attempt to discover the different ways headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school, and to highlight and encourage the most desirable understanding. As specific research (Prosser and Trigwell, 1997; Martin et al, unpublished) shows that there is variation in what it can mean to be a teacher or head of department in higher education, to search for variation in headteachers' understandings would appear to be a reasonable endeavour.

In the researcher's experience, when colleagues discuss what influences their thinking regarding their educational priorities, and how they go about achieving them, they tended to refer back to teachers and managers with whom they have worked. The individuals that a particular colleague has come into contact with (and deemed to be significant others in a sociological sense) are highly likely to be unique. Consequently, in this respect, there is a lack of shared experience among teachers and school managers, which can work against the development

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of ideas. However, if colleagues' different ways of thinking about or understanding a fundamental aspect of their responsibilities could be categorised and systematised in some way, as is attempted here, it would provide them with a common frame of reference with which to reflect on their own situations, and discuss them.

Reynolds et al (1996, page 87) express a firm belief that teachers talking about teaching, facilitated by research and the associated developing vocabulary, forms one of the characteristics of successful schools. The National College for School Leadership (NCSL) now encourages headteachers to discuss issues of common interest through their headteacher only website which is situated at www.ncslonline.gov.uk. Arguably, the sharing and developing of ideas by school leaders could also become a characteristic of successful schools, particularly if they discuss how to improve their schools within a common frame of reference.

1.3 The Approach Taken

'How do headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school?' constitutes the research question for this thesis. While the observable elements of what headteachers actually do would be relatively easy to record, it is what drives headteachers' actions, the underlying thinking, understandings and intentions that lie behind their improvement interventions, that is of real interest. Consequently, the research was conducted using a phenomenographic approach, in

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accordance with the tradition established by Marton (1981; 1986) and Marton and Booth (1997), and in the style exemplified by Prosser (2000) and Martin et al (unpublished).

Although the ultimate interest is in addressing this question in relation to all schools, and secondary schools in particular, the research focuses on exploring the question with headteachers using a simulation of a school. A cohort of research subjects, made up of 18 secondary school headteachers who agreed to take part in the study, were sent an Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) Report of a fictitious school. They were asked to read the report, and record what needs to be done to improve it using either a simple action plan or a format of their own. The data obtained through this simulation exercise was then analysed phenomenographically.

Literature relevant to the research question can be interpreted as expressing its authors' understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. The literature is therefore another potential source for identifying different ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school, especially if it is examined from a phenomenographic perspective. Consequently, a framework that assists the identification of different understandings was developed, and this framework organises the literature under the headings of leadership, schools as organisations, and learning in schools.

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A phenomenographic analysis of the data generated through the simulation exercise produced five empirical based understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. Analysing the literature from a phenomenographic perspective resulted in four very generalised or abstracted understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. Logical and hierarchical relationships between the understandings, both when considered as two data sets and as a combined data set, have been established. The nine different ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school, and the outcome spaces that illustrates the logical and hierarchical relationships between the understandings, constitute the findings of this research.

1.4 Conclusion

Having determined the background to and motivation behind the research, and broadly charted the approach taken, it is argued that this research will contribute to the identified gap in the literature.

The thesis is divided into eight chapters. Chapter Two addresses methodological issues, including the design of the research. Chapter Three defines some key terms, establishes a causal link between thinking, understanding and action, and generates a framework for the literature comprising of leadership, schools as organisations and learning in schools. Chapters Four, Five and Six utilise this framework, and propose four literature based abstracted understandings of what needs to

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be done to improve a school. Chapter Seven brings together the research findings and literature understandings and analyses them, and Chapter Eight consists of discussion and conclusions.

Chapter Two

Methodology

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2.2 Selecting a Methodology

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2.2.2 Understandings Determining Actions

2.3 Phenomenography

2.3.1 Categories of Description

2.3.2 Descriptive and Relational Nature

2.3.3 Structural and Referential Aspects

2.3.4 Ontology and Epistemology

2.3.5 Construction Towards Discovery

2.3.6 Types of Phenomenography

2.4 Research Design

2.4.1 Approach Rather Than Method

2.4.2 Planning and Data Collection

2.4.3 Analysis and Interpretation

2.4.4 Validity and Reliability

2.4.5 Review and Analysis of the Literature

2.5 Methodological Issues

2.5.1 Bowden's (1994b, 2000b) Framework

2.5.2 Säljö's (1996, 1997) Framework

2.5.3 Dall'Alba's (1996) Framework

2.5.4 Entwistle's (1997) Framework

2.5.5 Ethical Considerations

2.6 Conclusion

2.1 Overview

The process by which the research methodology (or approach) was selected is traced in such a way as to demonstrate that the aims of the research are totally consistent with the aims of the approach. The importance of thought, ways of experiencing a phenomenon or understandings for determining action is identified, and used to help formulate the research question which in turn provides the primary focus for this study.

The principles of phenomenography are gradually introduced, often with reference to the current study, in order that the purpose of the research, the methods employed, and an evaluation of the results, can be discussed against a clearly defined theoretical backdrop. The development of the research instrument is charted, and the specific approach to the literature highlighted, in a manner that incorporates detailed discussion of various practical considerations as and when they are relevant.

Methodological issues are considered, with specific reference to the current research, by applying a number of overviews or frameworks developed by leading academics in the field. Finally, ethical considerations are introduced and discussed in the context of the British Educational Research Association's (BERA) Ethical Guidelines.

2.2 Selecting a Methodology

2.2.1 Objectivity and Subjectivity

In order to select the methodology or approach that is likely to be most fruitful for a given piece of research, it is important that there is a clear focus. In practical terms, this means being very specific about exactly what it is that the research will investigate, and what form the research outcomes will take. In the present study, provisional consideration (through talking to colleagues and reading) of the different ways headteachers understand how to go about fulfilling their responsibilities for improving schools suggested that headteachers do a variety of things, on a variety of levels, for a variety of reasons. It soon became apparent that what was really being sought was the determining factors that lay behind headteachers' actions, those motivations and understandings that drove all their interventions. The inner realities of how headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school, rather than what physical actions they take, became the focus of the research.

Having established the domain of the research, two significant realisations followed. First, what Marton and Booth (1997) refer to as the hermeneutic principle, the fact that understanding and logic are circularly related, specifically that what people say is logical given their particular way of seeing the world. Second, a notion that is a consequence of the hermeneutic principle, that there is a subjective

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element to individuals' ways of understanding the universe. Marton (1992) captures this realisation well:

An important thing about differences in our understanding of the world is that such differences are, in most cases, almost invisible. We are seldom aware that our understanding of a phenomenon does not match someone else's understanding. We are not even aware that we see the world in an individual way. We believe tacitly that we see the world as it is; without further reflection, we take it for granted that others see it exactly as we do.

(Marton, 1992, page 254)

The fact that individuals understand an objective world in different ways is highly significant for investigations into how individuals perceive a given phenomenon and act in relation to it. In terms of organisational change, Dunkin (2000, page 138), developing the work of Kanter et al (1992), argues that change is perceived differently by those who initiate, support, receive, observe and investigate it. Although Dunkin (2000) implies that the potential field of related research is vast, this study is limited to investigating the understandings of those who are primarily responsible for managing change in secondary schools, the headteachers.

The selection of a research methodology can have a dynamic element to it. On the one hand, the researcher progressively fine tunes the domain of the research and the research question, and on the other, carefully considers what the various research approaches have to offer. For the purposes of this study, research methodologies that are concerned solely with objective realities, often those based on positivistic paradigms or observational techniques, were deemed inappropriate. Instead,

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phenomenography was selected as it is concerned with the different ways of experiencing or understanding a phenomenon, rather than the singular objective nature of the phenomenon itself (Bruce, 1994).

2.2.2 Understandings Determining Actions

Understandings, as incorporated into thinking and awareness, rather than observable actions, encompass the area of interest of this research study, where thinking is taken to be a certain kind of experience such that something, or someone, is present to the person, but not present to his or her senses (Marton, 1995, 1996). However, being ultimately concerned with improving schools in the outer world, the relationship between a headteacher's understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school, and the consequential actions he or she takes, needs to be established. An appreciation of the relationship between thought and action, which Marton and Booth (1997) refer to as the driving force of phenomenography, can be gleaned through carrying out a thought experiment that they devised.

Marton and Booth (1997, page 111) present a situation where two students face the same problem in identically the same way. The impossibility of suggesting that one student succeeds with the problem, while the other fails, is highlighted. Similarly, inability to deduce from two successful outcomes that both students experienced the problem in exactly the same way is emphasised. They conclude that if people act

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differently in a given situation, it is because they experience it differently. Prosser and Webb (1994) offer a similar conclusion when they state that students are likely to adopt approaches to problems that are consistent with how they experience those problems. Consequently, if we are to understand how people respond in a given situation, we must understand the ways in which they experience or understand that situation. In the case of this research, if we are to understand how headteachers go about improving secondary schools, we must understand how they understand what needs to be done to improve them.

Webb (1994) distinguishes between the context in which the task is being undertaken and the student's understanding of the task. The situation refers to the totality of the experience, all that is simultaneously present, and the phenomenon refers to the abstracted elements of that situation, elements which encapsulate meaning and can be perceived in other situations (Marton and Booth, 1997). While it is often desirable to make this distinction, it is a distinction that holds for analytical purposes only, and in practice reflects the fact that the researcher has opted to focus on one component or the other.

As a consequence of applying phenomenographic principles to employees in a work situation, Sandberg (1994; 2001) concluded that:

The actors conception of their job tasks plays a fundamental role in the way they perform them. Firstly, it defines the content of the job task which the actors see as essential and also how this will

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structure it. Secondly, it defines how they choose characteristics and use them in performing the job task.

(Sandberg, 1994, page 16)

Sandberg's (1994) research supports the link between thought and action, even between people's conceptions of their job task and the way they go about completing that task. Taken with Marton's (1992) proposition that excellence depends more on particular ways of seeing a phenomenon than on applying knowledge and skills to that phenomenon, the resulting argument became compelling in terms of choosing phenomenography as an appropriate research methodology for this thesis.

It can be argued (Parer and Benson, 1991) that there are advantages in applying more than one research methodology to a research problem, specifically, that by applying a diversity of instruments, different perspectives may emerge and different questions can be answered. However, the potential advantages of applying multiple methodologies has been judged to be outweighed by the corresponding disadvantages, specifically the time and other resources available for the study. Correspondingly, in line with Gerber et al's (1995) argument, a solely phenomenographic approach will be applied to the empirical research. The different ways of experiencing or understanding the given phenomenon, and the development of a complex that demonstrates the relationships between the emergent ways of understanding it, will constitute the results of the research.

2.3 Phenomenography

2.3.1 Categories of Description

In 1978 Marton first argued for a research approach that aimed to find and systematise forms of thought regarding how people interpret significant aspects of reality. However, it is what Bowden (1994b, page 2) refers to as ‘...probably the most quoted sentence in phenomenography’ that perhaps provides the most helpful definition of the phenomenographic research approach:

Phenomenography is a research methodology adapted for mapping the qualitatively different ways in which people experience, conceptualise, perceive, and understand various aspects of, and phenomena in, the world around them.

(Marton, 1986, page 31)

Marton (1986) goes on to add detail regarding the intention of capturing variation, both between individuals and within individuals:

It is a goal of phenomenography to discover the structural framework within which various categories of understanding exist. Such structures (a complex of categories of description) should prove useful in understanding other people's understandings.

Marton (1986, page 34)

The relationship between phenomenography and phenomenology is well documented and debated (Marton, 1995, 1996; Hasselgren and Beach, 1997; Marton and Booth, 1997; Giorgi, 1999). The main distinction is, however, that phenomenology seeks to identify a singular essence, whereas phenomenography seeks the variation in the set of qualitatively different ways of experiencing a phenomenon and the architecture of that variation. Marton (1996, page 186) does accept that a simultaneous

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awareness of all the identified ways of experiencing a phenomenon approximates phenomenological essence but in a transitional manner. This transitory relation is a natural consequence of the fact that the number of ways of experiencing a phenomenon is finite but not closed or exhaustive.

Concern has been expressed (Säljö, 1994; Bowden, 1994b, 2000b) regarding the manner in which the various labels for phenomenography's units of analysis (Johansson, 1996) have been used, without clarification being given as to how they relate to one another. The specific concern is that the terms 'conception', 'way of experiencing' (Marton's (1995, 1996) preferred generic term), and 'category of description' are all used synonymously. Marton and Booth's (1997) response is that 'conceptions' and 'ways of experiencing' refer to that which is described, and 'categories of description' to the way in which it is described. Although dialectically intertwined, Marton and Booth (1997) argue that we can think apart the two notions which can sometimes be helpful during the initial stages of phenomenographic analysis.

Phenomenography is not concerned with looking into the individual's mind, but rather attempting to see what he or she sees, and experiencing what he or she experiences (Gerber et al, 1995). Bowden (1994b, 2000b) even specifically states that he does not wish to assert that he knows an individual's conception of a given phenomenon. A way of experiencing or

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a conception is an abstraction (Marton, 1995, 1996) which results in descriptions on a collective level, with the structure and essential meaning intact, but with the specific flavours, scents and colours, indicative of individuality, lost (Marton and Booth, 1997). The way idealised individuals (Marton and Booth, 1997) experience a phenomenon is abstracted from the data taken as a whole, thanks to the commonality present, but it is not possible to determine how a particular individual experiences that phenomenon.

2.3.2 Descriptive and Relational Nature

Crawford and Gordon (1997, page 332) draw attention to the inherently descriptive and relational nature of phenomenography, and therefore to the avoidance of the need to pre-determine data collection categories. In particular, phenomenography avoids the boundaries between thinking, feeling and acting, and between person and context. As well as negating the need to determine categories, through its descriptive as opposed to explanatory nature, phenomenography also avoids the need to identify causal chains from thinking or feeling to actions. Eliminating the distinction between the person and the context is a point which Prosser and Webb (1994) describe as phenomenography's dynamic approach. It is this act of describing the relation between the observer and the observed that so markedly differentiates phenomenography from more traditional psychological perspectives, a comparison well documented by Prosser and Trigwell (1997).

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An implication of the non-psychological and relational aspects of phenomenography is that understanding must be described in terms of an individual possessing certain capabilities to understand (or carry out mental acts), rather than holding mental models (Marton, 1992, page 260). Phenomenography is relational in the sense that it sees the observer and the observed as inseparable (in terms of a way of understanding) and descriptive in the way it expresses this dynamic relationship rather than tries to explain it. It attempts to collect relations between the observer and observed, different conceptions of a phenomenon, which are as accurate (in the sense of being true to the subjects' viewpoints) as possible. In phenomenographic analysis, once a sufficient amount of data has been collected it is used to form a pool of meaning from which it is hoped that categories of description will emerge. These categories of description can then form a system or complex, which will map any identified meaningful relations between the categories, and thus form an outcome space. In very broad terms, this is how the twin aims of phenomenography, the identification of categories of description, and any logical and hierarchical relations between them, are achieved.

2.3.3 Structural and Referential Aspects

Within phenomenography, the principles of intentionality operate in terms of a what and how distinction (Uljens, 1996). Specifically, when a subject is aware, he or she is aware of something (the what aspect), and he or she is aware of that something in some way (the how aspect).

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Marton and Booth (1997) also introduce the referential and structural aspects of a category of description. The referential aspect is concerned with the meaning attributed to both the organisation of a category's internal elements, and how the category as a whole relates to its context. The structural aspect of a category of description relates to the way it is discerned or delimited from the situation, whole or context. How the category of description relates to a context (or even other contexts, concrete or abstract), defines its external horizon, and the way its internal elements are discerned or delimited, and relate to one another and the whole, define its internal horizon. Although the external and internal horizons are integral parts of a category's structural aspect, and cannot be separated from it, it can be helpful, in terms of improving the quality of the description, to clearly identify them. The resemblances between the structural and referential aspects of a category of description and noetic (the act of experiencing) and noematic (that which is experienced) aspects of experience have been pointed out by Beaty et al (1990a, 1990b).

The distinction between the referential and structural aspects of a category of description is an analytical distinction only as the two are dialectically intertwined. However, the distinction can be helpful in thinking about, and analysing, categories of description, although this does not imply that the two notions can be separated in any other way. Referential and structural aspects of a category of description are inter-

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dependent in that meaning assumes structure, while structure simultaneously assumes meaning. In short, one cannot exist without the other.

The exact relationship between the how and what aspects, and the structural and referential aspects, of a given phenomenon, needs to be established on a case-by-case basis. While Marton and Booth (1997) show that learning can helpfully be analysed into how and what aspects, each having their own structural and referential aspects, this is not always the case. Prosser and Millar (1989), in their research on learning physics, associate the referential aspect with the what aspect, specifically with intention, and the structural aspect with the how aspect, this time specifically with process.

Trigwell (1994, 2000), in his reflections on methodology, also links the categories' what and how aspects with their referential and structural aspects. In the same works, Trigwell (1994, 2000) describes such components more as heuristic than as underpinning tenets of the phenomenographic method. This assertion directly supports the argument that applying these analyses is more a question of what is most helpful and appropriate in a given situation, than slavishly adhering to a given pattern. Similarly, Patrick (2000) found identifying in detail what students focused on in their responses to stimuli particularly powerful heuristically. In terms of this research, Prosser and Millar's (1989) and

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Trigwell's (1994, 2000) approaches proved to be most meaningful and helpful in discovering the resulting categories of description.

2.3.4 *Ontology and Epistemology*

As Dunkin (2000) points out, behind the debate concerning method lie assumptions about the nature of reality. But on a cautionary note, Svensson (1997) states that phenomenography is not a system of philosophical assumptions, and therefore metaphysical beliefs about reality and knowledge are secondary to ideas relating to an empirical approach to research. Svensson (1997) also compares clarifying metaphysical beliefs and developing empirical research with the distinction between philosophy and empirical science.

Referring to the main fruits of phenomenographic research, specifically conceptions, Marton (1978, 1981) states that they exist only in terms of mental acts. He argues that the relationship between an act of conceiving, and a conception, resembles the relationship between Lewis Carroll's smiling cat, and the smile that is left when the cat is no longer present. This inseparable relationship is reflected in Prosser and Trigwell's (1997, page 42) work when they emphasise that the mind does not exist independently of the world, as it is an experienced world, and they go on to state that the mind does not lend itself to being subdivided into constituent parts. An inevitable consequence of this internal or inner relationship between the experiencer and experienced, is that a

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conception or way of understanding reflects the latter as much as the former.

Phenomenography necessarily presupposes certain qualities concerning the totality of a person's simultaneous experiences, his or her consciousness or awareness (Marton, 1994, 2000). Prosser and Trigwell (1997) formally link awareness with variation when they explain that to experience something as something, you must be able to distinguish that something from everything else, hence recognise variation. Gerber et al (1995), on the other hand, describes the nature of awareness as consisting of a number of layers spanning a continuum. These two inter-related aspects, variation and degree of awareness, give the concept of awareness meaning.

Marton and Booth (1997) also refer to awareness as being layered, from the core where things are figural, through the field or fields that surround the core, to the fringe that extends indefinitely. From time to time, certain ideas become figural, the theme or in focus, while others recede to ground. Although individuals are not conscious of all the ideas in the fringe, they are aware of them to the extent that they can bring them into focal awareness if it is appropriate to do so. In practice, the boundaries between the categories as defined are regularly changing, but at any given moment, that which lies within the continuum represents all that an individual knows, or is in the process of knowing.

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Prosser and Webb (1994) state that subjects need systematically to be helped to attain a second-order perspective, and also acknowledge that in a different context, which will have a different sociospatiotemporal location (Marton and Booth, 1997), the same subject could exhibit a different understanding, or approach a task differently. In some research studies, such as those with very young children as subjects (Tamm, 1996), or those which collect data in a non-interactive manner (as is the case in the present study), it is not possible to bring subjects to a state of meta-awareness. Yet the principle of adopting a second-order perspective, where the researcher attempts to take the place of the subjects and see, experience or understand the situation through their eyes, is still valid when data is being collected and analysed (Marton and Booth, 1997).

Concerns have been expressed about the researcher adopting a second-order perspective (Francis, 1993, 1996; Sandberg, 1996, 1997; Ashworth and Lucas, 2000) regarding the implications of the phenomenographic approach for the accuracy and reliability of data collected and subsequently analysed. Francis (1993, 1996) points out that the researcher's prior conceptions need to be addressed directly, and a real effort made to bracket them throughout the research endeavour. Patrick (2000) prefers to describe the safeguard as becoming conscious of expectations, and actively challenging them. Sandberg (1996, 1997) builds on this point when he argues for the need for a researcher formally to demonstrate how he or she has dealt with his or her intentional

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relation to individuals' conceptions, throughout the research process. He states that this need follows as a direct consequence of the epistemology of intentionality underlying the phenomenographic approach and that establishing the reliability of the researcher's interpretation is essential to establishing the reliability of the research outcome. However, he concludes that when researchers are aware of their interpretations throughout the research process, this becomes a strength rather than a threat to the reliability of results (Sandberg, 1997, page 209).

Francis (1993, 1996) and Ashworth and Lucas (2000) accept that it is not realistic or sensible totally to set-aside preconceptions as some idea of relevance must be applied if the research question is adequately to be addressed. In fact, Ashworth and Lucas (2000, page 17), referring to the work of Karlsson (1993), argue that it is the achievement of empathy with the experiences of the subjects, rather than technical rationality, that is demanded. In the current study, the need for bracketing or achieving empathy has been addressed chiefly through being constantly aware of this requirement, documenting the process followed, drawing attention to the difficulties encountered, and taking advantage of the challenges supervising colleagues posed at key stages during the research.

2.3.5 Construction Towards Discovery

Walsh (1994, 2000) considers in some detail the manner by which the categories of description are made manifest. Her concern focuses on

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whether the categories themselves are discovered or constructed. She sees the process of discovery as trying to incorporate all aspects of the data to form a holistic understanding of the phenomenon, and construction as being more susceptible to the subjective understandings of the researchers, and heavily influenced by the accepted experts' views of the phenomenon. In her paper, Walsh (1994, 2000) effectively reconciles both notions by viewing results as tentative and true at the time. She describes phenomenographic analysis as construction towards discovery, in which categories are regarded as tools to help determine the different ways in which people understand the world.

Richardson (1999) argues strongly for a constructionist approach by researchers, as he believes researchers are more likely to approach their work in a reflective manner, and therefore exhibit their ontological and epistemological assumptions. He goes on further to suggest that the construction of conceptions of reality is mirrored by the process of generating theories. Consequently, he argues (page 70) that the dilemma of qualitative research can be addressed and resolved by recognising the constructed nature of participants' conceptions and therefore the interpreted nature of social research. As Sandberg (1997, page 208) observes, the 'reliability of results relating to objective reality falls outside the domain of interest.' In this study, categories of descriptions or understandings are described as discovered, although the concept of construction towards discovery is fully accepted.

2.3.6 Types of Phenomenography

Bowden (1994b, 2000b) contrasts what he calls developmental phenomenography, where it is intended that the research will help the subjects involved (or individuals in similar circumstances), with 'pure phenomenography', research undertaken for its own sake. He suggests that the reasons for undertaking the research can have a marked effect on both its process and the outcomes, and that there is an inevitable tension between interpreting the data as the subjects would, and devising elegant categories of description. Bowden (1994b, 2000b) does not suggest that these potential effects are a matter of research ethics, rather a matter of psychological reality. Given that this research study could have a number of applications, such as headteacher assessment, recruitment and development, within the above analysis, it must be regarded as an example of developmental phenomenography.

The terms 'pure' and 'developmental', when applied to phenomenography, are not without their critics. Hasselgren and Bleach (1997) offer an alternative understanding of phenomenography, through the identification of five modes, which, they argue, indicate that different elements of so-called phenomenography are, in fact, distinctly different research approaches. Whichever perspective is adopted, ensuring that attention is given to the accurate and reliable construction toward discovery of categories of description remains paramount.

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Extending the constructionist perspective of awareness, Trigwell and Prosser (1997) add the notion of temporality, that subjects with prior experience of a phenomenon in a given situation will perceive of the phenomenon in a certain way because of their prior experience. In this research, it is quite feasible that headteachers' conceptions or understandings will be at least partly determined by their previous experiences and the contexts in which they have worked and are working. However, as described earlier, the causal links between past experiences and current understandings are beyond the scope of phenomenography in general, and this research in particular.

Bowden (1996) specifically considers where phenomenographic research begins and ends. He contrasts phenomenographic research studies where all the aspects of the research are undertaken from a phenomenographic perspective with studies which examine historical data phenomenographically. He concludes that the latter studies are examples of a certain aspect of phenomenographic research, but not examples of full phenomenographic studies.

Given that the empirical aspects of this study were planned in their entirety from a phenomenographic perspective (as described in Sections 2.4.2 and 2.4.3), even though subjects were not brought to a state of meta-awareness, and the results of the research were not reported back to subjects, it is argued that the research should be regarded as a full

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phenomenographic study. However, it is acknowledged that, with the exception of the facts that subjects were briefly introduced to phenomenography, and given the purpose of the study, a very similar procedure could be applied to historical data. Conversely, the approach taken to the literature, as described in Section 2.4.5, is an example of what Bowden (1996) describes as a phenomenographic examination of historical data, not a fully phenomenographic endeavour.

2.4 Research Design

2.4.1 Approach Rather Than Method

It is clear from the above analyses that phenomenography can be employed to study a range of research questions using a variety of techniques. In acknowledgment of its flexibility, Marton and Booth (1997, page 111) argue strongly that phenomenography is an approach, associated with methodical and theoretical elements, rather than simply a method in itself. Hasselgren (1996) questions the value of this shift from method to approach, and concludes that it has done more harm than good to researchers' perceptions of the phenomenographic tradition, even though the exponents of phenomenography remained resolute in their assertions.

A consequence of accepting phenomenography as an approach rather than a method is that it is not possible to specify exact techniques for phenomenographic research (Marton, 1986; Prosser, 1994, 2000), in the

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sense that no algorithms can be prescribed. As Prosser (1994, 2000) observes, the inability to be precise about phenomenographic analysis makes it difficult for those wishing to undertake a phenomenographic study for the first time, as well as for those concerned with the validity and reliability of phenomenography. Beno (1993), discussing the challenges faced by new phenomenographers, draws attention to the value of examining previously conducted examples of phenomenographic research as a means of guidance. Francis (1993, 1996) asserts that the existence of accepted guidelines for phenomenographic research would actually constitute significant advancement in the approach.

However, phenomenographic research is not a mysterious activity and it is possible to describe, in general terms, what the process involves. Bowden (1994b, 2000b) offers a framework for phenomenographic research consisting of a planning stage, a data collection stage, an analysis stage and an interpretation stage, all superimposed with the importance of focus, validity and reliability. His analysis is adopted, in broad terms, in order to structure the discussion of the development and implementation of this research study, although the boundaries between the stages have been blurred.

2.4.2 Planning and Data Collection

The research question 'How do headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school' provides a very clear focus for this study. As

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with many research undertakings, it seemed clear that it would be beneficial to undertake a pilot study prior to the main research, and therefore the first task was to plan out the pilot study.

As it is headteachers' understandings which lie behind and influence their thinking, feelings and awareness of what needs to be done to improve a school that is of interest, rather than the practical activities in which they engage, it was necessary to plan the research in such a way as to reveal those understandings. Although phenomenography had already been selected as the research approach, the specific mode of data collection still needed to be determined.

Walsh (1994, 2000) observes that semi-structured interviews are the most common method of data collection in phenomenographic research, although Foster (1994) employed a distinctive variation when he conducted his interviews by electronic mail (which incorporated some extra precautions to ensure their effectiveness). However, Francis (1993, 1996) identifies that drawing, writing and acting can also be used, but in practice, even when these methods are employed, they often tend to be accompanied by some form of written or verbal narrative (Tamm, 1996; Hounsell, 1984; Prosser and Webb, 1994).

The nature of the phenomenographic interview, or indeed any method of collecting this type of data, is such that, unlike most other research

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approaches, the instructions given or questions asked avoid directing subjects to conceive of a given phenomenon in the same way as the researcher. This point is fully acknowledged by Crawford and Gordon (1997) when they refer to the need to minimise the possibility of leading subjects through keeping the questions as open and general as possible. Bowden (1994b, 2000b) goes further when he states that the questions should be diagnostic and attempt to reveal the different ways of understanding a given phenomenon.

A further complication that Marton (1986) found is that even during interviews, some subjects would become conscious of contradictions in their own thinking and therefore consider alternative ideas. Similarly, Prosser and Millar (1989) emphasise that subjects' conceptions are not stable entities, and they go on to explain that, in line with phenomenographic principles, subjects' conceptions can vary according to the task in hand and the context in which the task is situated. Clearly, very careful planning regarding the data collection activities needed to take place if useful data were to emerge.

To generate headteachers' conceptions, it was necessary to expose headteachers to an appropriate stimulus that would focus their thoughts on what needs to be done to improve a school. As a direct approach to the problem (such as simply asking headteachers what needs to be done) seems to be ineffective (Bowden, 1994b, 2000b), an indirect approach

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needed to be devised. After considering what experiences are closest to headteachers' normal practices, a simulation exercise was selected as an appropriate strategy. It could even be argued that collecting data through a simulation exercise moves towards Richardson's (1999) suggestion that researchers pay more attention to data elicited from subjects in real-life situations.

The simulation exercise consisted of a carefully edited OFSTED Inspection Report¹, with the biographical details of the school changed and any direct advice for improvement removed. Appropriate documentation for collecting data was devised, based on a simplified version of a standard OFSTED Action Plan. However, it was made clear throughout the data collection process that subjects were free to present their proposals in any form they chose.

By opting to collect data through the use of a simulation exercise, a number of advantages and disadvantages, compared with the usual semi-structured interview, are evident. On the positive side, it was less likely that subjects' emerging understandings would become unstable, as subjects were not (intentionally) brought to a state of meta-awareness. Although there was still a relationship between the researcher and each

¹ As a quality assurance measure, all English schools are inspected every few years by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED). Following an inspection, a report is presented to the school. The school must respond by producing an Action Plan that identifies what will be done to address any 'key issues' in the report.

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subject, it was unlikely that any standard format of discursive practice would develop, and it was very unlikely that the data collection technique would resemble therapy. The influence of issues such as the power balance between the subject and the researcher, and any concerns by the subject that he or she was being judged, still needed to be considered, but seemed to be less prominent than in a semi-structured interview format. The main disadvantages of using a simulation exercise of this type are that it is not possible to either re-focus the data collection process once it has started, or bring subjects to a state of meta-awareness at individualised or selective points during the data collection process.

Given that it is possible that different conceptions or understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school may emerge through responses to different simulations, initially three very different simulations were prepared. These simulations collectively attempted to cover a range of schools in terms of size, location (urban, suburban or rural) and nature of intake (as indicated by their selectivity or lack of it, prior attainment, percentage of pupils with identified Special Needs and percentage of pupils with English as an additional language). However, a combination of factors converged with the consequence that the multiple school approach was abandoned in favour of a single school approach, where the single school offered as many opportunities for diverse responses as possible.

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In essence, there were three factors that contributed to the decision to opt for a single school approach. First, headteachers' conceptions of any school (which represents the situation in which the phenomenon of interest is embedded) are likely to vary significantly, and if multiple simulated schools are used, this variation (of context rather than phenomenon) is likely to be wider still. Consequently, as the research effort hoped to maximise variation in the phenomenon, rather than the situation in which it was embedded, it seemed prudent to make the situation common, at least in objective terms. Second, as the anticipated response rate from potential subjects was low, it would have been difficult to ensure an equal number of responses from each simulated school, especially within the limits of the time and resources available. Third, limiting the research to one simulated school provided a tighter focus for the research, and seemed likely to produce equally valuable results.

As a consequence of the chosen data collection and analysis procedures, the research question 'How do headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school' was applied to the specific context of one (simulated) school. The simulation was based on an OFSTED report which implied that there were many areas in which the school needed to improve, even though examination results were slightly above average. It was hoped that the potentially large number of areas for improvement, and arguably the contradictory nature of the report, would maximise the variation in responses from a given sample of subjects.

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Each of the three subjects in the pilot study was provided with:

- an introductory letter and instructions sheet identifying the nature of the research, explaining the confidential nature of any data collected, and giving the telephone number of a help line;
- an information sheet on the nature of phenomenography (to provide subjects with some knowledge of the approach);
- an OFSTED Inspection Report on a fictitious school;
- documentation for collecting responses (use optional);
- a very brief biographical questionnaire; and
- a stamped addressed envelope.

When the research had been completed and returned, the whole process was discussed with subjects individually. A number of ways of improving the research instrument were suggested and incorporated into the final study. These improvements were to:

1. give some indication of the time commitment for subjects taking part in the research in the introductory letter;
2. be specific about the fact that once the responses are returned, there would be no further call on subjects' time;
3. ask potential subjects to agree to a specific time interval in which to complete the research. Ensure that both term-time and holiday time preferences are catered for;
4. emphasise that subjects will not be categorised or judged in any way on the basis of their responses;

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5. inform potential subjects that the simulation material itself will not be returned and therefore they are at liberty to highlight sections and make notes directly on it; and
6. to keep the response sheets as simple as possible.

All six points focus on either maximising take-up by potential subjects or making the task as straight forward as possible. Owing to the fact that phenomenographic analysis can only be attempted when all the data is available, although responses were carefully examined, the pilot study was limited in its value in improving the latter parts of the research process. The ordering of areas for improvement turned out to be of little use. Similarly, it was not picked-up from the pilot study that the letter subjects were asked to write to a trusted colleague supposedly thinking of applying for the headship of the simulated school would be of limited value to the research. The purpose of the letter exercise was to offer subjects the opportunity to summarise their action plans, but experience has now shown that they tended to contain as much data on the perceived context of the school (how good it is and what potential it held) as on the phenomenon of interest. A full set of papers making up the research pack, incorporating the feedback from the pilot study, is included in Appendix One.

The plan for the final research consisted of presenting potential subjects with a research pack and asking them to complete it within a particular

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time interval chosen from three options. Subjects who had agreed to submit responses and did not do so by the agreed date were chased up until their responses were received or they withdrew from the research. Once all the subjects' responses were available (see Appendix Two for the typed up versions), the analytical process was started, and consequently undertaken in isolation from the collection of data.

Even though phenomenography as a research approach does not attempt to identify causal links between individuals' past experiences of a phenomenon and their conceptions or ways of understanding that phenomenon, it was important to try and select subjects with different backgrounds in order that, collectively, they maximise the variation in the resulting categories of description (Bowden, 1994b, 2000b). Referring to his own research, Bowden (1994b, 2000b) states that data must be collected from both men and women, of all abilities, and from a variety of school types. This suggests he believed, prior to his research undertaking, that gender, ability and school type were factors likely to affect the discovery of categories of description. In the present study, the categories and corresponding divisions used to collect biographical information are tabulated in Figure 2.1, with the number of returns, out of 118 requests, given in parentheses.

This analysis was selected owing to its simplicity and corresponding manageability. However, in the interests of capturing the broadest

Category	Divisions		
Gender	Female (2)	Male (16)	
Experience of headship (in years)	Up to (and including) five years experience of headship (5)	Between five and ten years experience of headship (7)	Ten or more years experience of headship (6)
Experience of headship (in number of schools)	Held the headship of one school (12)	Held the headship of two schools (5)	Held the headship of more than two schools (1)
Experience outside secondary schools (in years)	None (7)	Up to (and including) five years experience outside secondary schools (8)	More than five years experience outside secondary schools (3)
Given some experience outside secondary schools, number of positions held	Held one position outside secondary schools (7)	Held two positions outside secondary schools (0)	Held more than two positions outside secondary schools (4)

Figure 2.1: Data Collection Categories and Divisions

possible range of understandings, it seemed prudent to ensure that the research sample included subjects from as many potentially significant backgrounds as possible. In an attempt to maximise variation, potential subjects were contacted through a variety of channels.

As well as through personal contacts, subjects were recruited through local heads' groups in two Local Education Authorities in which the researcher had worked. These Local Authorities were 160 miles apart, one tending towards urban and suburban and one mainly rural, one employs a selective system of secondary education and one a

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comprehensive system, but both Local Authorities had some schools in Special Measures² and some Beacon Schools³. Also, both the Secondary Heads' Association (SHA) and the Head Teachers in Industry (HTI) organisations agreed to distribute research packs to potential subjects through their national councils. In conclusion, every effort was made to maximise variation in subjects' experiences across all the dimensions indicated.

Without knowing the architecture of individual subjects' understandings of the world, it is impossible confidently to rule out any attribute because it does not have the potential to influence the generation of understandings. In practice, the researcher's own understanding of the field of study must be used (from his or her expert's perspective) to determine which attributes are most likely to contribute to the generation of conceptions or understandings of the phenomenon in question (Francis, 1993, 1996).

Even though the emphasis in sampling for phenomenographic research is on maximising variation rather than the ability to generalise findings over a larger population according to statistical principles, a practical decision on sample size needed to be made. Little specific advice on

² A school in Special Measures is a school judged by OFSTED to need significant improvement and additional support from the Local Education Authority if it is to provide an acceptable education for its pupils.

³ A Beacon School is a school judged by OFSTED to provide an excellent standard of education for its pupils.

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sample size is given in the literature, owing to the dominant aim of capturing the widest variation of conceptions which cannot be directly related to the number of subjects involved in the research. Many studies use an entire population as subjects, thus avoiding the issue of sample size altogether. Sample size seems to vary enormously across phenomenographic studies (often depending on the resources available), but a sample size of around 20 is not uncommon and is in line with Dunkin's (2000) observation that the experience of phenomenographers suggests a sample size of around 20 to 25 is usually deemed appropriate. Although the sample size for the current study was only 18, it was judged that this was close enough to the recommended minimum sample size of 20 to continue with the research.

Ultimately, as long as the sample size lies within reasonable bounds, it may be dictated as much by what is possible in a given set of circumstances as by what is desirable. Any understandings that the researcher does not uncover, which will depend initially on the variation present within the data or pool of meaning rather than the sample size per se, are not necessarily lost forever. Marton (1981, page 197) illustrates this when he refers to the introduction of new forms of thought from time to time. It is precisely because there are continually emerging understandings that researchers can never claim completely to describe any aspect of human thinking.

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On occasion (Booth, 1992), theoretical sampling is applied to a phenomenographic study, where theoretical sampling is described as the combined collection, codification and analysis of data to generate theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). There are similarities between some concepts employed in theoretical sampling and some used in phenomenography.

The notion of theoretical relevance, for instance, is in some ways equivalent to attempting to maximise variation by selecting subjects from different backgrounds, or with different characteristics, as these differences might be significant in the development of understandings. In contrast, for theoretical relevance to be applied to the sampling process, it requires the researcher's understanding to determine what is theoretically relevant, whereas in phenomenography, it is precisely the avoidance of imposing the researcher's own viewpoint that is sought. Similarly, theoretical saturation can be compared with the principles employed in sampling for phenomenographic studies, and also with the criteria used to terminate phenomenographic analysis. Despite the similarities, sampling for phenomenographic research is driven by phenomenography's maximising variation principle, which distinguishes it from forms of both theoretical sampling and statistical (specifically random or stratified) sampling.

A discussion of sampling would not be complete without reference to gender, especially as Hazel et al (1997) argue strongly that it is not being

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addressed directly in most phenomenographic studies. As indicated previously, two out of the 18 volunteer subjects were female, a gender distribution that occurred as a consequence of the sampling procedure described. As for defending the distribution, this is interpreted as defending the sampling procedure adopted as opposed to purposive sampling to include gender as a basis for ensuring adequate variation (Hazel et al, 1997). In the case of the present study, the difficulty of finding volunteer subjects at all precluded the employment of more sophisticated sampling techniques. While the distribution of males to females within the sample is likely to favour males compared to the male to female distribution within the population of secondary school headteachers, the population itself is heavily biased towards males.

A stronger concern regarding gender relates to the lack of female input during the process of analysis. Hazel et al (1997) suggest that such an omission could result in the lack of identification of affective elements, often closely associated with women's ways of knowing but inseparable from cognitive elements. However, despite the addition of a further conception of learning in Beaty et al (1990a, 1990b), which Hazel et al (1997) attribute to women of insight linking learning to their lives as a whole, a conception arguably more identifiable to female researchers, it is far from self-evident that only females can bring an affective perspective to phenomenographic analysis. What is clear is that gender should be thought of as a source of potential variation in phenomenographic

research, but, it is argued, there are also other important sources of potential variation.

2.4.3 Analysis and Interpretation

Giorgi's (1999) reference to the intimate nature of phenomenographic research suggests that the data collecting and data analysing procedures cannot be separated. However, having elected to collect data through a simulation exercise, for this study the two activities are quite separate. Once the data has been collected, it forms a pool of meaning which is then analysed through searching for the most distinctive elements, or structurally significant differences (Marton, 1986). The process of phenomenographic analysis is iterative in nature, with the researcher reading and re-reading subjects' responses, trying to appreciate how the phenomenon is understood or interpreted from a variety of perspectives. Similarities and differences in the data are considered, and used to gradually generate the categories of description (Walsh, 1994, 2000).

Ashworth and Lucas (2000) emphasise that phenomenographic analysis cannot, and must not, be seen as the application of a simple set of rules.

However, Marton and Booth (1997, pages 132-135) offer some broad guidelines for the researcher/learner which can be seen as forming five stages:

1. search for extracts that might be pertinent, and inspect them against the two contexts: that of appropriate extracts from the collective data; and that of data relating to the individual;

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2. inspect one aspect, then another, across each of the individual subject's data, followed by studying all the data as a whole, to see how the aspects relate to other aspects and the situation in general;
3. consider a selection of transcripts that include particularly interesting ways of addressing the phenomenon being researched;
4. repeat particularly '3.' above and this will lead to a vague structure, through and across the data, that can be progressively brought into focus, and clarified, by keeping returning to the data from one perspective then another; and
5. the process continues until the researcher judges that there is nothing present in the data that he or she has not managed to capture and describe.

(Marton and Booth, 1997, page 132)

Prosser (1994, 2000) observes that researchers new to phenomenographic analysis will find it difficult to bracket their own knowledge and are more likely to produce an analysis of the content of the data than categories of description. As Chapter Seven illustrates, initial attempts at phenomenographic analysis by this researcher did result in a form of content analysis, although at the time there was no conscious awareness of Prosser's (1994, 2000) prediction. However, effectiveness improved as the ability to remain focused on the research question increased, and good use was made of the regular challenges by supervising colleagues (to identify both the sequence of thoughts that led to certain conclusions, and the evidence for those conclusions). Consequently, later attempts did result in phenomenographic analysis, closer to the style of Prosser (2000), Trigwell (2/1/01, Private communication) and Martin et al (unpublished) than of Marton and Booth (1997), in terms of how structural and referential aspects were addressed. The resulting findings reveal the

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meanings and structures of abstract understandings that are not evident from the data if it is analysed purely in term of its content.

During the process, particularly at the outset, it was difficult to determine which of Marton and Booth's (1997) stages applied at any given time. An attempt would be made to identify the significant aspects of the phenomenon that seemed to be central to subjects' awareness of it, but the focus would then switch from an individual's data to the collective data, and back again, many times a minute. Often while considering one idea of potential significance, another would emerge (or the same one seen from a slightly different point of view), which then become the subject of further analysis. Marton and Booth (1997, page 134) make reference to the way the data seems to change and suggest that it '...shimmers in the intense light of our analysis'.

In response to Francis's (1993, 1996) query regarding a researcher's knowledge of similar work, the categories of description that did eventually emerge from the analysis did so independently of any such work, although using the ideas of structural and referential aspects in a manner similar to that applied in Martin et al (unpublished) work did prove useful. The difficulties that this researcher has had with analysis are comparable with those of Prosser (1994, 2000). Specifically it was time consuming, intellectually difficult, required an open mind and a willingness to modify thinking, and demanded a commitment to the

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construction towards discovery of categories that both have a logical relationship with each other and are true to the data.

The unstable nature of an individual's conceptions, and the fact that two or three different conceptions often become evident in one individual's response (Booth, 1992), only served to complicate matters further. While an individual's conceptions of a phenomenon are accepted as being unstable, the categories themselves, the potential ways of conceiving or understanding a given phenomenon, are seen as completely stable in that they can appear in different situations. Marton (1981, page 194) specifically suggests that categories are stable and generalisable between situations, although individuals may employ different conceptions in different situations, or even on different occasions in the same situation. While the generalisability of understandings will be considered in relation to the current research later in this thesis, exactly what constitutes the same understanding is discussed further here.

The practical difficulty is that it is not always easy to determine whether two slightly differing descriptions reflect a difference of substance or simply a difference of expression. Svensson (1997, page 170) directly analyses the basis for differentiating thought and language. He concludes that the same understanding may be expressed using different linguistic structures, and that different understandings may be expressed using very similar language. Bowden (1994a, 2000a) also explicitly

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expresses this concern, and recommends that researchers carefully consider individual data segments in the context of the rest of a given subject's data.

In phenomenographic analysis, categories of description are always abstracted from the data, based on perceived intended meanings concerning subjects' relations to the phenomenon, rather than the structure of the language used. Once these categories of description have been constructed, any logical and hierarchical relationships between them is determined in order to generate an outcome space. Walsh (1994, page 24) states a logical relation suggests that data is selected such that the resulting categories are related in terms of similarities and differences, but also questions whether a line of development is also required. In this study, logically related refers to consistent similarities within the categories, and consistent differences between the categories.

When attempting to describe the logical relationships between categories, potentially hierarchical relationships often emerge, where a hierarchical structure consists of increasingly complex, inclusive or specific categories (Marton and Booth, 1997), depending on the context. Walsh (1994, 2000) suggests that forming a hierarchy may arise as a result of either applying an externally imposed framework, as was the case in Patrick's (2000) study, or it may depend on internal relations within the data. In a practical context, it is clearly the reasonableness that one abstracted

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category is in some way more desirable than another abstracted category that is of concern. When a data segment exists that illustrates the given relationship, this is particularly helpful.

Terms such as 'advanced' (Marton and Booth, 1997), 'more complex' (Gerber et al, 1995) and 'superordinate' (Tamm, 1996) are used in phenomenography to indicate that a conception is situated relatively further up a hierarchy within a given outcome space. However, the term 'higher' (and the corresponding term 'lower') will be used to indicate such a relationship in this research project, as in Martin et al (unpublished), Boulton-Lewis et al (2001) and Prosser and Trigwell (1997), owing to its directly descriptive property, and the avoidance of the need to specify the exact nature of the value judgement on which the hierarchy is based before it has been discussed in detail.

These hierarchical relationships can be exclusive in that a higher category is in some way more desirable than a lower category, but the higher category does not subsume the lower category. Alternatively, hierarchical relationships can be inclusive in that the higher category does subsume the lower category, either fully, or partially. A higher category might, for example, subsume either the referential or structural aspect of a lower category (Trigwell, 2/1/01, Private communication), thus making it inclusive.

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Walsh (1994, 2000) directly addresses one of the key difficulties that Prosser (1994, 2000) highlighted, namely what she describes as the inevitable tension between being faithful to the data and constructing a well structured outcome space. She suggests that this tension can introduce bias into the process of formulating the outcome space if it is not properly addressed. In this study, this concern has been met by consciously focusing on remaining faithful to the data, and although a hierarchical relationship is proposed, this is not a particularly elegant representation of the findings.

2.4.4 Validity and Reliability

Following on from Walsh's (1994, 2000) argument, it is important fully to address the notions of validity and reliability, despite Patrick's (2000) assertion that it is less important that findings are seen as valid and reliable, than that they generate new insights. Bowden (1994b, 2000b) emphasises the importance of researchers acknowledging the differences in procedures and justifications necessary for validity and reliability (which he argues cannot be totally separated) within their particular circumstances. This is supported by Francis's (1993, 1996) judgement that if phenomenographers' work is to be accepted as valid by the research community as a whole, when they report on their work they should make explicit exactly how their methodology, and their rationale for selecting it, embodies the aims of phenomenography. Francis (1993, page 72; 1996) even advocates that the researcher presents subjects with

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a record of the data collected from them in order to confirm the accuracy of the meaning recorded (as opposed to technical accuracy in terms of the language used).

For this study, Section 2.2 explicitly addresses how the selected approach, and reasons for its selection, are faithful to the aims of phenomenography by tracing the development of the research question (and how it relates to phenomenography). The time delay between collecting the data and analysing it, over twelve months in most cases, made it inappropriate to confirm the accuracy of the data with subjects, which otherwise could have been an additional (but not strictly necessary) technique for further confirming validity.

Validity and reliability are important considerations for all types of research. Whereas positivism tends to consider validity in terms of reliability, specifically repeatability and generalisability, this is not the case for qualitative research. All knowledge has multi-dimensional contexts, and therefore what constitutes validity is dependent on what the various interpretive communities accept as validity, which in turn may relate to the perceived goals or purpose of the research (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Validity in qualitative research is context dependent, and in cases such as this study, it has to be made clear that the notion is being applied from the limited perspective of academic audiences.

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The importance of this multiple perspective approach is an argument that runs right through Denzin and Lincoln's (1994) work, to the extent that the notion of triangulation is replaced by one of crystallisation:

I propose that the central image for "validity" for postmodernist texts is not the triangle—a rigid, fixed, two-dimensional object. Rather, the central image is the crystal, which combines symmetry and substance with an infinite variety of shapes, substances, transmutations, multidimensionalities, and angles of approach. Crystals grow, change, alter, but are not amorphous. Crystallization, without losing structure, deconstructs the traditional idea of "validity" (we feel now there is no single truth, we see how texts validate themselves); and crystallization provides us with a deepened, complex, thoroughly partial, understanding of the topic. Paradoxically, we know more and doubt what we know."
(Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, page 522)

Within this particular framework for reformulating validity in terms of interpretive validity, it seems appropriate to consider how the concepts of validity and reliability can be applied to this study. In phenomenography, it is the categories of description or understandings, and not the individualised understandings or understanding fragments held by individuals, that must be tested for validity and reliability. Marton (1981, page 194), referring to some of his own research, makes this distinction clearly, and again emphasises that individuals may vary their conceptions of a phenomenon according to context and experience, but the set of categories remain reliable, stable and generalisable between situations.

At first glance, it may seem appropriate to apply the repeatability or reproducible test to categories of description. Marton (1986) observes

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that phenomenographers are often asked if another researcher would discover the same categories of description. Walsh (1994, 2000) addresses this point by expressing the view that it is not necessary to replicate the discovery process, in terms of discovering the same set of categories, for it to be discovery. She argues that reliability is established through using the research findings to categorise subjects' transcripts.

Thus it is argued that a set of categories, or outcome space, does not have to be reproduced and unique in order to be both valid and reliable. Different researchers may combine the aspects relevant to a given phenomenon in different ways and produce different, but equally valid, categories of description. In the field of mathematics, it is fully accepted that both visual and tactile geometries correctly describe two and three dimensional space, in an equally consistent manner, from totally different perspectives. As the argument holds for the description of space, logically it must hold for the description of other phenomenon of equal epistemological status.

However, Walsh's (1994, 2000) point concerning the application of a researcher's categories to such as transcripts is less certain, despite Tamm's (1996) supporting assertion that reliability is indicated by the extent to which categories of description can be discerned in the data by other researchers. Sandberg (1997, page 204) strongly disputes this point and argues that interjudge reliability does not address the procedures

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that the researcher has followed in order to remain faithful to the data, and therefore proves nothing in terms of reliability. Sandberg (1994; 2001) suggests that the researcher's interpretive awareness would be one possible criterion for reliability, which both takes into account the researcher's procedures and is in accord with the epistemology of intentionality underlying the phenomenographic approach. He then goes on to identify (Sandberg, 1994, page 210) five steps to act as guidelines for researchers during the reduction process:

1. be oriented directly to the phenomenon;
2. describe, rather than attempt to explain;
3. initially, practice horizontalization (endeavour to treat all the data as equally important);
4. search for structural features by adopting different interpretations;
5. use intentionality as a correlational rule. (There are three steps: identifying what the individuals conceive as reality; identify how the individuals conceive that reality; identify the make up of the conceptions by relating the individuals' ways of conceiving to what they conceive as their reality.)

(Sandberg, 1994, page 210)

Continuing with the principle of taking the researcher's procedures into account, Denzin and Lincoln (1994) suggest a metaphorical interaction between the researcher and reader of the research, as the more the reader can interact with the text concerning research issues, the greater the resulting level of confidence. This is in line with Glaser and Strauss's (1967) principle, which emerged in relation to grounded theory, that whenever a researcher is dubious about an important interpretation, or foresees that readers might be, he or she should be explicit about how the interpretation arose. Francis (1993, 1996) covers similar ground when

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she points out that a researcher needs to make a judgement about the fidelity and communicability of the research findings, and to report the basis on which the judgement was arrived at. In the case of this research, the fidelity and communicability of the resulting categories of description and outcome space is judged to be high, and the evidence for this assertion is incorporated in the detailed reporting of the analysis and interpretation process.

In phenomenography, the validity claim is always made in relation to the data available, specifically that the categories of description are reasonable characterisations of a possible way of experiencing something (Marton and Booth, 1997). Clearly, the validity of the results is associated with arguments concerning whether categories of description are constructed or discovered, in that phenomenographic research outcomes will only be accepted as valid if researchers demonstrate that they have guarded against the dangers of construction. In this respect, Walsh (1994, 2000) expresses concern that a researcher can be too quick to impose a logical framework, based on experts' interpretations of the data, before going on to identify the skills necessary for a researcher to undertake phenomenographic analysis.

In response to these challenges, Trigwell's (2/1/01, Private communication) approach is to make sure there is a good paper trail that others can follow, a response to the validity and reliability issue also

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adopted by this researcher. In addition to this process dimension, Trigwell goes on to argue for an additional, more product focused criterion for validity, concerning the extent to which the categories of description are logically constituted. A similar approach has been adopted in relation to this research, as reported in the discussion of how the resulting categories of description were constructed (and relate to each other) in Chapter Seven.

The applicability (both within the sample and beyond the sample) of the categories of description is an important consideration that Marton and Booth (1997, page 124) directly address. They emphasise that the aim of phenomenographic research is to reveal variation, irrespective of whether the variation occurs within or across the individuals in the study. As implied in Section 2.4.2, generalisations per se from the results of phenomenographic analysis are not automatically justified, as samples are constructed in order to maximise variation rather than be representative of some wider population. However, Marton and Booth (1997) deduce that generalisations are possible to the extent that the sample is, in fact, representative of a wider population, even though the sample was not constructed with this objective in mind. This argument places the onus to show that a given sample is representative of some wider population firmly on those who attempt to generalise from the results of a phenomenographic study.

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The fact that it may be possible to generalise from phenomenographic research potentially provides phenomenographers with yet another reason to ensure that they provide a detailed account of the research procedures in general, and the sampling procedure in particular. A meaningful judgment as to the applicability of the results of phenomenographic research can only be made if the appropriate information is available.

2.4.5 Review and Analysis of the Literature

In seeking different ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school, the contributions of literature that can be applied to this theme must be properly addressed. As the empirical research is phenomenographic in perspective, it would seem appropriate to consider applying phenomenographic principles to the review of the literature. This is consistent with Bowden's (1996) recognition of examining historical data phenomenographically, Hasselgren and Bleach's (1997) definition of phenomenography as a collection of responses to investigating a particular kind of research object in different situations, Entwistle's (1997) and Patrick's (2000) focus on the production of useful insights, and Marton and Booth's (1997, page 129) discerning the structure of a phenomenon by considering how it appears in literature.

The pool of meaning formed by the selected literature can be interpreted as expressing and illustrating its authors' experiences or understandings

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of what needs to be done to improve a school, and therefore a second order perspective to the literature can be taken. Such literature is a valuable a source for phenomenographic analysis, a source for identifying variation in ways of seeing, experiencing or understanding a phenomenon, like any other. Consequently, the literature review has the objective of discovering understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school, and is undertaken in a manner inspired by the phenomenographic tradition.

For practical reasons, some means of selecting potentially relevant literature needs to be applied. Significant writings on how to improve a school, as acknowledged by such as the NCSL or their inclusion in postgraduate courses for school leaders, are incorporated into this study, provided that they are deemed relevant (in terms of identifying variation) by the researcher (Francis, 1993, 1996; Ashworth and Lucas, 2000).

Organising the selected literature within a suitable framework, as discussed in Chapter Three, is an iterative process. This does not necessarily mean the removal of traditional field names, such as 'school improvement' or 'leadership', rather the emphasis is on constructing a framework that assists the identification of variation. Chapters Four, Five and Six address different ways of experiencing or understanding what needs to be done to improve a school through the processes of leadership, organisational analysis and learning respectively.

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Ideas originating from the literature were specifically bracketed during the phenomenographic analysis of the empirical data. However, returning to the literature, and reviewing it as described, has resulted in the discovery of some very generalised or abstracted understandings that can be considered alongside the empirical based understandings.

2.5 Methodological Issues

The examination of methodological issues, and the subsequent application of those issues to help evaluate the process element of this research study, is undertaken by employing overviews or frameworks presented by Bowden (1994b, 2000b), Säljö (1996, 1997), Dall'Alba (1996) and Entwistle (1997). Extensive reference is made to the work of Francis (1993, 1996), as her critique of many of the specific and detailed aspects of the phenomenographic approach can provide researchers with valuable and useful safeguards.

Before embarking on a detailed analysis of the methodological issues, it is important to place such issues into the right context. As Entwistle (1997) argues, at first sight some of the criticisms may cast doubt on the validity and value of the results of phenomenography. However, many of the criticisms can be seen as potential pitfalls of the approach that researchers must avoid, rather than reasons to dismiss the approach entirely. Entwistle (1997) goes on to emphasise that qualitative research is necessarily interpretive in nature, and compares it with historical

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research where developments arise as much from contested interpretations as from definitive findings.

Säljö (1997) and Bowden (1994b, 2000b) attribute the fact that phenomenography is attracting critical scrutiny as a sign that it is gaining recognition amongst the research community, and becoming a productive tool to think with. However, despite these acknowledgements of the value of critical scrutiny, Säljö (1997) expresses some of the difficulties (and perhaps his frustration) with his attempts critically to discuss phenomenography. On the one hand, if the procedures for data collection or analysis are criticised, the response is that data excerpts are only illustrations of categories of description. On the other hand, if the abstract and reductionistic nature of the results is questioned, the response is that the results are empirically based. As Entwistle (1997) observes, there are often elements of truth in the different perspectives, therefore the task for the researcher is to recognise the logic and reasoning behind the various alternative formulations, and take full account of them when undertaking his or her research.

2.5.1 Bowden's (1994b, 2000b) Framework

Bowden (1994b, page 2) draws attention to what, in his view, are the main criticisms of phenomenography, namely its perceived lack of validity, lack of ability to predict, researcher bias and the loss of individuals' perspectives. Validity and reliability have already been the

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subject of some discussion in Section 2.4.4, with the tentative conclusion that, given the unavoidable subjective and incomplete nature of the results of phenomenographic research, it is the issues concerned with the transparent reporting of the research process, and establishing interpreted validity generally, that are paramount.

Regarding phenomenography having a lack of predictive power, to ask phenomenography to determine the way (or even a way) a given individual conceives of a particular phenomenon is to confuse an individual possessing the capability to perform a certain mental act with an individual possessing a given conception – something which is contradictory to phenomenography's ontological assumptions. To some extent, it would also be like asking phenomenography to define causal links between (known) past experiences and a current conception – again something which is contradictory to its ontological assumptions.

As suggested above, a fundamental principle of phenomenography is that if a subject understands or conceives of a phenomenon in one way, this does not mean that the same subject cannot, and does not, conceive of that phenomenon in one or more other ways as well. At an individual level, the criticism (if indeed it is a criticism as opposed to a misunderstanding of the nature of phenomenography) is justified as phenomenography cannot predict how an individual will act in a given set of circumstances. However, at a collective level, given that in certain

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circumstances (when a research sample happens to be representative of a given population) a complex of categories of description can predict potential ways that individuals might conceive of a given phenomenon, the judgement is not quite so clear-cut. This is not to invalidate the argument that the perceived world will continue to evolve, potentially forever, but it is reasonable to assume that a given set of categories of description may remain useful long enough to be of value to those working in the field.

The extent to which researcher bias will be an issue in phenomenographic research is dependent to a great extent on the expertise (and ethics) of the researcher or team of researchers. Walsh (1994, page 27) identifies what she believes to be the essential qualifications for researchers embarking on a phenomenographic study, and these include generic research skills, a technical background to the phenomenon under investigation and knowledge of the phenomenographic approach – in particular, the skill of bracketing. She then goes on to consider whether or not an individual researcher (and a postgraduate student working toward a degree in particular) could possess all these qualifications, and warns that he or she will find it difficult to bracket his or her own conceptions satisfactorily, a concern echoed by Bowden (1994a, 2000a). Ultimately, whether or not the concern is justified depends on how well the researcher undertakes the research tasks. In this study, all of Walsh's (1994, 2000) arguments have been treated as dangers to be

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avoided, with at least some success, in the hope that the outcomes of the research will be both valid and useful.

To a large degree, the suggestion that the voice of the individual is lost is an accepted consequence of the phenomenographic approach. Marton and Booth (1997) emphasise that categories of descriptions are descriptions on the collective level, with the specific flavours, scents, and colours integral to an individual's personalised description removed. Phenomenography aims to describe the perceived world, and it is a consequence of realising this aim that only the bare essentials of meaning within individuals' ways of experiencing phenomena remain. Even if two individuals understand or conceive a given phenomenon in broadly the same way (their personalised conceptions both fall into the same category of description), this does not mean that they experience the phenomenon identically. Each could perceive different nuances from the other, attribute different values to the various aspects of their conception, and link their conception (and the aspects within it) to the rest of their awareness of the universe in different ways.

Uljens (1996) makes a similar point to Bowden (1994b, 2000b) but extends his concern to phenomenography's context- and subject-neutral reasoning. The claim is that while the conception is understood in terms of a person-world relation, both the person and aspect of the world have been lost, and it is not reasonable to understand something in such a

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context free environment. Svensson (1997) is also concerned with context, and argues that abstracted categories cannot stand alone. Specific examples both clarify the meaning of the abstract categories and provide an important knowledge concerning how the categories relate to specific cases – an understanding that is essential if the categories are to be applied to different situations. Marton (1995, 1996) regards individuals as bearers of the different ways of experiencing various phenomena, or fragments of those differing ways of experiencing various phenomena, a view that is consistent with these criticisms. In conclusion, the role of the individual is essential to the phenomenographic enterprise, but is not the primary focus of it.

A related issue to losing the voice of the individual is Hasselgren and Bleach's (1997) concern about the assertion that situations can only be understood in a limited number of qualitatively different ways, a statement which they claim suggests phenomenography is being non-reflexive with regard to this issue. Marton and Booth (1997, page 126) argue that if there had been an infinite number of ways of understanding a given phenomenon, each individual could experience it differently. This would result in each individual living in a totally different world to everyone else, without a sense of permanence (as they are unlikely to experience a given situation the same way twice), and without the possibility of communication as there would be no common ground. As we do not live in totally different worlds, are able to communicate and do

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experience permanence, Marton and Booth (1997) conclude that there are a limited number of ways of experiencing a given phenomenon.

With this rationale, Marton and Booth (1997) provide the research community with an ontological and epistemological basis for one of the fundamental principles of phenomenography. However, the claim that phenomenography is not reflexive with regard to its ontological and epistemological status cannot be so easily refuted.

2.5.2 Säljö's (1996, 1997) Framework

In his earlier work, Säljö (1996) suggests that phenomenography renders talk and language as a secondary phenomenon and not part of the real world. In 1997, Säljö expresses further concern regarding the relationship between discourse and experience and the appeal of phenomenography to experience. He states his amazement at the lack of attention to the two-sided nature of communication, and describes the lack of a theory of language in phenomenography as a weak spot. Specifically, he argues that as researchers only have access to what people communicate (or actually do), caution should be exercised in indicating a way of experiencing, rather than a way of talking, from the available data.

Johansson (1996) hypothesises that as phenomenographers overtly seek to identify distinctly different understandings or conceptions within the

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data, alternative interpretations are not even considered. Attention is also drawn (Säljö, 1997) to the potential role of socialisation during the data collecting procedure, and of learning how to experience events in life through the adoption of relevant criteria. In conclusion, Säljö (1997) appeals to analysts to limit their claims to how people talk about and account for their experiences, their accounting practices, rather than making claims about experience itself.

Richardson (1999) sees Säljö's (1997) rationale as offering an alternative way of interpreting accounts as discursive practices. However, Bowden (1994b, 2000b), writing five years earlier, effectively partially acknowledges both perspectives. He attributes the products of phenomenographic research firstly to relations between the individuals and the phenomenon (the subjects' conceptions), and secondly, to the nature of the communication between the researcher and the subject and its context (which includes the relation between the researcher and the phenomenon). Bowden's (1994b, 2000b) determinations describe this researcher's current understanding.

Hasselgren and Bleach (1997) acknowledge that there is an ongoing debate about what categories of description really are, and go on to comment that this is not unusual in relation to the findings of qualitative research. For example, in contrast with Säljö's (1997) work, Hazel et al (1997) argue for a deepening or enriching of the notion of conceptions

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through embellishing them with an aesthetic dimension. They argue that as long as emotion, which constitutes a significant aspect of experience, is excluded from the outcome space, a crucial part of variation will be missing from phenomenographic research.

For the researcher, the message seems to be that he or she must make a determination concerning the potential significance of an emotional dimension to the outcome space. In this study, these potential affective elements are likely to relate to the sense of ownership or commitment that subjects might have to their own institutions, but not to the simulated institution. Especially if the subject's institution is experiencing some difficulties, it is feasible that significant emotion will be present and affect his or her thinking, but arguably this will have a limiting rather than an expanding effect.

To some extent, this concern mirrors Mugler and Landbeck's (1997) work where they differentiate between students' normal conceptions of learning, and the highly strategic approach they may adopt under stressful learning conditions. The potential significance of stress when conceiving of a phenomenon, both specifically regarding how headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school and in general, are beyond the scope of this study but define an area worthy of further study.

2.5.3 Dall'Alba's (1996) Framework

Dall'Alba (1996) identifies some of the more overarching issues facing phenomenography. They are the need to:

1. develop and clarify the ontological and epistemological assumptions underlying phenomenography. This includes clarifying the meaning of key terms and concepts, such as 'conception';
2. demonstrate greater consistency between the aims, ontology, epistemology, and methodology associated with phenomenography. This involves ensuring that research is carried out in accordance with the principles identified, and that the approaches adopted are well documented;
3. consider the social and discursive nature of human experience as part of the research process;
4. clarify the relevance or contribution of phenomenography to practise and the scientific development of thought.

(Dall'Alba, 1996)

In this study, the ontological and epistemological assumptions are considered in Section 2.3.4, the aims of phenomenography in Section 2.2.2, and methodology in Sections 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5, addressing Dall'Alba's first and second points. The nature of conceptions, and the social and discursive nature of human experience, are both addressed in Section 2.5.2, responding to Dall'Alba's first and third points. Bowden (1994b, 2000) argues that the application of the results of phenomenographic analysis fall beyond the realms of phenomenography and form part of the appropriate subject discipline. Similarly, Marton and Booth (1997) state that the path of phenomenography points away from itself to other activities, suggesting that Dall'Alba's fourth point is beyond the realms of phenomenography. In many respects, as discussed in Section 2.3.4, Dall'Alba's (1996) analysis concentrates on aspects of phenomenography

that are secondary to the primary aims of constructing and discovering categories of descriptions and outcome spaces.

2.5.4 Entwistle's (1997) Framework

When discussing the validity of phenomenography in studying higher education, Entwistle (1997), in line with Patrick's (2000) argument, observed that the important thing is usually whether or not useful insights are produced, rather than the theoretical purity of the research. He then drew out of the current debate on the phenomenographic approach a number of cautions which are summarised below.

1. Questions must be posed in a way which allows subjects to use their own frame of reference, rather than the researcher's.
2. Categories of description need to be accompanied by a number of data extracts that fully delimit their meaning.
3. Care must be taken to establish the categories such that they justly reflect the responses made, and are fully open to gender differences. Discussion with others should provide an important safeguard. However, categories still need to be regarded as provisional descriptions (and subjective interpretations) which further research may challenge.
4. The researcher must explore the relationship between categories by analysing the meaning of each category in relation to every other category. This must be achieved through considering how categories are exemplified by individual subjects, and analysing the meaning of these differences. Both discourse practices and actions or experiences can be the focal point of the inquiry, provided the limitations of individual responses are taken into account in the latter case. The notions of figure and ground are significant when considering the data, and the effects of the purpose of the research, and its audiences, need considering.

(Based on Entwistle, 1997 , page 128-34),

Entwistle's (1997) first point reflects a fundamental principle of the phenomenographic approach. In this study, by asking subjects to

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complete an action plan, something which they would be very familiar with, they were as free to structure their responses according to their own preferences as they would be in the normal exercising of their responsibilities. However, despite having given subjects the opportunity to present their responses in any way they chose, in practice all 18 used the basic format action plan that they were presented with. The simulation exercise reflected the real life situation well, but to some extent constrained the presentation of responses, and therefore possibly also influenced the production of ideas.

The need fully to exemplify the categories of description with data extracts is a point well made, as this will enable readers of the research to shadow the thinking processes of the researcher when he or she abstracted the categories of description. In the case in question, a relatively large number of data extracts are presented in Chapter Seven for this very reason. In addition, a number of data extracts are included to illustrate the relationships between categories in the formation of the outcome space.

A detailed account of the process leading to the creation of the categories of description is also included in Chapter Seven, in order to demonstrate, insofar as it is possible, the accuracy of capturing the intended meaning behind the data excerpts. While difficulties encountered during the research process are discussed in this chapter, the outcomes of the

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research are evaluated in Chapters Seven and Eight. Although the importance of potential gender differences is acknowledged and fully accepted, with only 11% of the responses coming from females, and no females being involved in the discussion and challenging process, this constitutes an accepted weakness of this study.

However, the regular challenging and debating of the evolving categories of description that took place did make a very significant contribution to the construction of the categories of description. On a number of occasions, evidence for the existence of categories, in terms of supporting data excerpts, was demanded, and on other occasions, categories had to be significantly modified (or collapsed) as a direct consequence of this challenging process. Finally, the subjective, interpretive and tentative nature of categories of description has been acknowledged throughout both this methodological discussion and in Chapter Seven, but hopefully the validity, potential value and usefulness of the research outcomes have been demonstrated throughout the report as well.

The process by which the outcome space was generated, and therefore how meaning was perceived and analysed, is fully documented in Chapter Seven. In addition, as has been referred to in Section 2.3.3, considering the referential and structural aspects of each category of description proved to be very helpful. This was particularly so when analysing the relative meanings of the various aspects of a category through

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considering and reconsidering appropriate extracts within an individual subject's transcript.

The distinction between discourse practices and experience has been difficult to determine. Clearly, attempting to separate the phenomenon from the situation is problematic, especially as a situation can be interpreted in different ways, each of which can suggest both different purposes behind the research and different intended audiences. In this study, some safeguards were employed. For example, each subject received a letter clearly identifying the purpose of the research and was given assurances that individuals would not be judged in any way. Subjects also received a brief explanation of phenomenography to support some of these assurances, which also happened to meet some subjects' deeper interests in the research methodology.

In summary, the method employed to collect data may have contributed to subjects perceiving different expectations of what they ought to identify, the extent to which there would be any reflection on their perceived abilities, and therefore what meta-language should be included in the responses. However, evidence for these speculations is not forthcoming, and although Säljö's (1997) perspective is very relevant here, the extent to which what is being created reflects communication rather than experience is difficult to quantify. As Säljö (1996) himself identifies, thinking and doing and therefore communication are not

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disjointed, hence it is suggested that the resulting categories of description possess interpretive validity, and are potentially useful within the domains of school improvement and education management.

2.5.5 Ethical Considerations

This research study has been undertaken in accordance with the British Educational Research Association's (BERA's) (1992) *Ethical Guidelines*⁴, whose principles are broadly consistent with the British Sociological Association's (1994) *Statement of Ethical Practice*⁵.

The first section of BERA's (1992) guidelines refers to respect for persons, knowledge, democratic values and the quality of educational research. Throughout this study, individuals' submissions have been valued and accepted as valid contributions, and the importance of peer and supervisor review accepted, and where appropriate, incorporated into working practices. The guidelines also draw specific attention to the importance of informing participants about the aims of the research, and to confidentiality. The standard letter, particularly the heading, and the methodology sheet (both included in Appendix One), clearly set out the aims of the research, and the standard letter also directly states that colleagues who participate in the research will not be identified in the thesis.

⁴ As adopted on 28 August, 1992 and published on www.bera.ac.uk/guidelines.html

⁵ As adopted in 1994 and published on www.britisoc.org.uk/about/ethic.htm

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By basing the simulation exercise on a standard OFSTED Report, and collecting data using a simplified OFSTED Action Plan, both of which are familiar to subjects, the principle of communicability is respected. In addition, specialised vocabulary, or unusual uses of standard vocabulary, have been carefully introduced in the text, as illustrated by the title page of this chapter. Finally, since participants are not being identified within the thesis, findings will be reported, and the methodological principle of maximising the dissemination of information will be met, by placing the completed thesis within the University Library.

2.6 Conclusion

The case for phenomenography as the research approach was made, along with a rationale for collecting data through a simulation exercise rather than the more usual medium of a semi-structured interview. The application of the principles of phenomenography to the processes adopted in this study have been documented in detail, including reference to practical research issues where appropriate. The issues of validity, reliability and generalisability have been addressed, and an attempt made to evaluate the research process against principles deemed to be significant by established researchers in the field. A detailed account of the discovery of the empirical based understandings is given in Chapter Seven, and similarly, the discovery of literature based understandings is documented in Chapters three, Four, Five and Six.

Chapter Three

A Framework for the Literature

3.1 Overview

3.2 Defining Terms and Research Parameters

3.2.1 Management and Education Management

3.2.2 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

3.2.3 Administration and Education Administration

3.2.4 Governance

3.2.5 Research Parameters

3.3 Thinking, Theory and Understandings

3.4 The Adopted Structure

3.5 Conclusion

3.1 Overview

A number of key terms are introduced and defined, and the importance of thinking, theory and understandings for school leaders is highlighted. The potential value of a concept map for education management is discussed, and as a consequence of a critical analysis of the fields of literature relevant to this study, a specific structure or framework for the literature review is adopted.

3.2 Defining Terms and Research Parameters

There are a number of specialised terms, and often quite subtle distinctions, that impinge upon this research, and these are discussed at the outset. They include management and education management, transactional and transformational leadership, administration and education administration, and governance.

3.2.1 Management and Education Management

Gray (1979a) distinguishes between a mechanistic management system and an organismic management system. A mechanistic system, which he describes as appropriate for stable conditions, is based on Taylor's (1947) scientific management principles. An organismic system, appropriate for changing conditions and unforeseen circumstances, is characterised by the contributive nature of special knowledge, general rather than specific commitment, lateral communication and consultation.

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Distinguishing between management for stable and unstable conditions can be usefully applied to schools as, since education has become a higher political priority in the United Kingdom since the 1980s, schools can be said to be in a state of constant change. However, West-Burnham (1994a) refers to management as a contingent concept, in that it cannot universally be applied irrespective of the specific circumstances, and only becomes meaningful within a particular context. This widely accepted attitude to management offers a realistic approach to the application of management principles in schools, and indeed other organisations.

Once the term 'education' (or 'educational') is applied to management, it can be argued (Davies and Ellison, 1997) that it becomes an activity sufficiently different from commercial or industrial management to make it a discipline of study in its own right, a view supported by Bush (1995; 1999). West-Burnham (1994a) goes so far as to identify seven such differences between educational and general management¹. Similarly, Bottery (1994) identifies six potential differences between management in

¹ West-Burnham's (1994a) seven differences between educational and general management can be summarised as:

1. Schools' objectives are difficult to define;
2. Schools' objectives are difficult to measure;
3. The presence of children;
4. Managers and teachers in schools are professionals, and as such, claim a right to autonomy;
5. There is a special client relationship between teacher and pupil;
6. Schools have a fragmented organisational and management structure which has implications for decision-making (in terms of decisions happening at multiple points throughout the organisation and the difficulties of locating the responsibility for decisions); and
7. Little time is allocated for management work.

(West-Burnham, 1994a, pages 19-20)

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schools and management in commercial organisations², but after carefully considering the differences, concludes that the issues and interests of management in schools and elsewhere are not dissimilar. Squire (1987) also proposes that, what he refers to as 'education' management, is simply a distinctive mode of management and not a separate activity in its own right, a view also held by Bolam (1999), Bottery (1994) and Gunter (1999). Squire (1987) outlines the principal arguments that management and management strategies are inappropriate for schools. His response to these arguments is summarised in Figure 3.1.

Why Management is Not Applicable to Schools	Squire's (1987) Response
Management is derived from profit-orientated practice.	Both management in commercial and educational settings share the concept of value added. Both see the pursuit of knowledge as an end in itself.
Management is mechanistic.	In the last 50 years, the assimilation of sociological and psychological theory has been a major feature of the development of management theory (and practice).
Management strategies are inimical to creativity.	A structure which is concerned with classifying aims and appraising results is, at worst, neutral to creativity and, at best, highly congenial to it.
Systematic management entails appraisal but teacher performance should not be appraised because educational aims are too diffuse.	If an aim is capable of being pursued, it is capable of being defined.

(Squire, 1987, page 10)

Figure 3.1: Applying Management to Schools

² Different incentives; profit; competition; mission; hierarchy; and limited constituencies (goals).

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Although Squire (1987) is an exponent of the less popular interpretation of management within education, and employs the less popular terminology, he represents this researcher's viewpoint. Consequently, the term 'education management' is used throughout the study, with the exception of the use of any direct quotations, to refer to the application of management within an educational context. The Teacher Training Agency (TTA)³ and NCSL (Hopkins, 2001) acknowledge the value of management techniques developed outside the educational arena through their commitment to the application of best practice from within and outside education. Empirically, many of the more recent approaches to organisation development, including quality control and quality assurance, the development of high performing teams, learning organisations (with their focus on mental models and the potential of business process re-engineering), and a greater emphasis on leadership as opposed to management, have found their way into schools. In practice, the difference between educational and education management seems more a difference of espoused definition than of actual activity.

3.2.2 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

The terms 'transactional' and 'transformational' are regularly used, particularly in an educational context, to describe two distinctly different approaches to leadership activity. Tucker-Ladd et al (1992) see

³ The Teacher Training Agency (TTA) was the statutory body responsible for the continuous professional development of teachers and education managers, including headteachers, prior to the creation of the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) in September 2000.

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transactional leadership as an economic, political or psychological exchange between the leader and the follower, and as task orientated focusing on implementing established programmes. For them, transformational leadership occurs when leaders and followers motivate each other towards higher aspirations through positive personal relationships and the creation of attractive opportunities for engaging in teaching and learning. Interestingly, Coleman (1994) goes so far as to describe leadership within an educational context as having a vision and communicating it to others, and as relying predominantly on transformational leadership in the realisation of the organisation's mission. This is in line with Leithwood et al's (2002) findings that transformational leadership increases an organisation's capacity continually to improve.

While transformational leadership is often preferred on philosophical as well as practical grounds, as Hopkins (2000) observes, it lacks a specific orientation towards pupil learning and therefore should be regarded as a necessary but not sufficient condition for school improvement. Hopkins sees a preoccupation with transformational leadership, in common with many other education reforms, as focusing on the wrong variables if the intention is to improve schools. Thankfully, transactional and transformational leadership approaches need not be mutually exclusive, and therefore a skilled leader is able to apply them in appropriate

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situations (situational leadership), invoking contingency theory for leadership as well as management behaviour in organisations.

3.2.3 Administration and Education Administration

While popular usage in the United Kingdom suggests that administration can refer to low level, clerical type duties, as far back as 1979, Glatter (1979) drew attention to an alternative, all encompassing and equally applicable definition of the term, and its relationship with management:

British 'educational management' was that part of our broader conception of 'educational administration' which dealt primarily with the functioning of the institution.

(Glatter, 1979, page 15)

In practice, the context in which the term is used makes it clear whether clerical duties, or directing and managing type duties, are being referred to. Consequently, both interpretations are acceptable in the context of this study, especially as the term is only rarely encountered within the literature.

More recently, Bolam (1999) constructed what is, in effect, a hierarchy of terms for administration, leadership and management:

- Educational administration – in a broad, generic sense, is educational policy, and leadership and management activities at all levels;
- Educational leadership – the responsibility for policy formulation and, where appropriate, organisational transformation; and
- Educational management – the executive function for carrying out agreed policy.

(Bolam, 1999, page 194)

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He then went on to define education administration or educational administration through analysing the fundamental purposes of its study in terms of four activities or projects, each having its own distinctive rationale, mode of working and target audiences:

- 1 The 'knowledge for understanding' project – to understand the nature and processes of educational administration, by theory building and basic research;
- 2 The 'knowledge for action' project – to make evaluative judgements and recommendations for action which are communicated in technical and evaluative reports and via articles in professional journals and books;
- 3 The 'instrumentalist' project – activities targeted directly at practitioners although some outcomes, including training trainers courses and published accounts in professional journals and books, may be targeted at other trainers and consultants; and
- 4 The 'reflective action' project – its distinctive status derives from the fact that it is self-directed and many of its exponents operate atheoretically.

(Bolam, 1999, pages 195-7)

The use or non use of theory, and the resulting implications for knowledge, are addressed directly in Section 3.3. Although limited in scope, and at odds with much of common usage, Bolam (1999) both located the terms 'administration', 'leadership' and 'management' in relation to each other, and offered an analysis of the field in terms of the purposes for engaging in study within it. Perhaps, at some future point, observation of practice, research and theory will facilitate a more comprehensive and therefore more helpful version of Bolam's (1999) analyses, and consequently stabilise the use of language within the field of education management.

3.2.4 Governance

The distinction between governance and management in education, or more specifically the specific roles of a headteacher and governing body, has recently received government attention through the publication of a Governing Body Decision Planner⁴. This includes a checklist that attempts to clarify the differences between the two sets of responsibilities. It is envisaged that the governing body and headteacher work through the checklist and guidelines together in order to clarify their respective roles on key issues. In essence, the governing body's responsibilities are at a policy or strategic level, although the situation is slightly complicated by the fact that governors are required to perform certain executive functions (particularly in relation to the headteacher). In contrast, the headteacher's responsibilities, as laid down in the Conditions of Service⁵ for headteachers, are primarily for the management and organisation of the school and its staff, on a day-to-day level, in accordance with the governing body's policies.

3.2.5 Research Parameters

Throughout this study, the preferred terms of headteacher and pupil, rather than principal and student, are used to facilitate consistency, unless the latter terms are included in quotations. In line with Bolam et al's (1993) work, the principle that theory and research relating to

⁴ Available at www.dfes.gov.uk/governor/infodocs/information_31.doc

⁵ A document entitled School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document is published annually by the Department for Education and Skills and contains the conditions of service for headteachers.

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headteachers in any phase of education is at least partially applicable to headteachers in secondary schools, is adopted. The phase in which a headteacher works is clearly an important variable, but there is a large number of other equally significant variables, such as the geographical location of a school, its prior performance, its size, the socio-economic background of its pupils, and the quality and commitment of its staff and other community members.

There is also an empirical justification for sensitively applying research on headteachers from all phases specifically to the work of headteachers in secondary schools. In Bolam et al's (1993) research, completed questionnaires from 24 secondary school headteachers and 33 primary school headteachers were received. From these, they were able both to generalise about all headteachers in the sample, and draw attention to phase specific findings when appropriate. Bolam et al (1993) emphasise that, in their research, the broad picture of effective management which emerges is remarkably similar for the 57 schools involved. However, there were statistically significant differences between respondents in primary and secondary schools on almost all aspects of the research, which they attribute mainly to the size of secondary schools. Interestingly, there was even a suggestion that subject departments, rather than the secondary school as a whole, were the key management structures in large schools, especially where there was limited inter-departmental collaboration, a point addressed in Chapter Five.

3.3 Thinking, Theory and Understandings

The advent of more overt quality control is embodied in the OFSTED inspection framework (OFSTED, 2000), which has proved to be a testing initiative for schools. When the OFSTED framework is combined with the national agenda for competence based training of headteachers (Department for Education and Employment, 2000a; 2000b), the agenda for change for school managers becomes very demanding. In essence, these changes combine to bring an enhanced level of autonomy to school managers, although in reality that autonomy relates much more to how reforms should be implemented than to the nature of the reforms themselves.

Educational reforms and initiatives are increasingly being determined at the centre, but the increased emphasis on accountability is being directed at schools. Caldwell and Spinks (1988; 1992) draw attention to a danger of this institutional autonomy in that schools could attract the blame for the poor resourcing of the education service. However, O'Neill (1994b) does not seem concerned by this, provided that the real challenge of balancing expectations of high performance with individual needs and development is properly addressed.

Davies and Ellison (1997) insist that it is business process re-engineering, with its radical solutions to organisational problems, that is required to meet the challenges now facing the education service. This is in sharp

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contrast to the incremental approaches that generally predominate in schools. They argue that re-engineering must be applied to mindsets and attitudes, as well as processes, if it is to be successful, and describe this process orientated approach as the second wave of reform, following on from the first wave of increased autonomy in schools. Davies and West-Burnham (1992) emphasise that re-engineering is an approach that should become a permanent feature of school management as it can be successfully applied in a variety of contexts, and not just in times of crisis.

Covey (1999a; 1999b), whose work is central to the North American development programmes for headteachers, also professes that if major improvements in performance are desired, it is necessary for people to change how they think about management and leadership. They must effectively change their paradigms or ways of understanding reality, as all major breakthroughs represent breaks with traditional ways of thinking.

The relationship between thinking, theory and practice in education management is worthy of serious consideration, as the extent to which theory is needed is not universally agreed even amongst academics. For example, in the case of school effectiveness and school improvement research, Mortimore (1995), quoted in White and Barber (1977), states that the need for an integrated theory remains, although he does

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acknowledge that theory has been borrowed from other fields including child development and management science. In contrast, White (1997) questions the need for an underpinning theory at all, and argues that it will be fruitless to look for such a theory as no theory or laws have been found to explain even the low order attributes of educational research.

Stegö et al (1987) emphasise that schools are highly complex social structures, made up of large numbers of people, all of whom hold numerous attitudes that affect any prospect of development or meaningful change. Everard and Morris (1996) conclude that the way managers conceptualise organisations significantly affects how they manage them. Further, they argue that if managers are able to apply different models of organisations, depending on the particular situation, they are better able to manage them.

Gray (1979a) states simply that it is essential to adopt an analytical framework or model in order to develop understanding and therefore provide a rational basis for behaviour. As the work of Everard and Morris (1996) and Gray (1979a) implies, if theory is not adopted to help guide management decisions and actions, practising managers must rely on experience, and on responding to each new situation based on logic and so called common sense, a difficult undertaking in the complex and generally unstable environment in which they often find themselves.

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It can be argued (Hughes, 1985) that theorising is in fact always taking place, without it being acknowledged, as any decision will reflect a person's general understanding of the situation and the organisation. In summary, Bush (1995), in an update of his earlier work (Hughes and Bush, 1991), offers four main arguments to support the view that managers have much to gain from an appreciation of theory. These can be summarised as all evidence requires interpretation and schools are too complex to make decisions on an event by event basis; dependence on personal experience discards the knowledge of others; mistakes can occur while experience is being acquired which can affect children's one and only passage through school; and experience may be inadequate as the sole guide to action as contexts change. Bush (1995, page 18) affirms that, 'there is nothing more practical than a good theory', indicating that the real test of any theory is its relevance in guiding practice.

Hargreaves and Evans's (1997) recent work, where the tendency of many practitioners and policy makers in particular to take an anti-intellectual stance is considered, raises questions about how we understand or conceptualise the practitioner. In some of Hughes's earlier work, and working with Bush (Hughes and Bush, 1991), the relationship between theorist and practitioner was considered through two metaphors. First, Hughes and Bush describe theory and practice as distinct and separable activities, with the theorist designing the map, and the practitioner undertaking the journey and reporting back to the theorist any

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inaccuracies in the construction. Second, the theorist and practitioner are together in a helicopter, possessing the ability to see the big picture but also the detail of a given situation – in the words of Everard (1984), seeing both the wood and the trees and how they relate. In this case, there is no precise distinction between the roles of theorist and practitioner, rather an emphasis on being able to see the same situation from different perspectives.

If the concept of being a reflective practitioner (Schön, 1984) is accepted, perhaps through the use of small-scale research projects within the practitioner's institution, the theorist and practitioner could easily be one and the same, drawing on appropriate theory in order to solve practical problems. Such an approach contributes to the narrowing of the gap, or using the creative tension (Senge, 1999) between theory and practice, in order to develop new ways of thinking and understanding that will enhance performance.

The image of Plato's cave is often used to describe the difficulties faced by leaders in understanding their complex environment, and therefore the contribution of theory (Morgan, 1997; Caldwell & Spinks, 1998). The analogy consists of people chained up in a cave and viewing the activities of people outside the cave solely by shadows cast on the cave wall by a fire. The two main points of the analogy are that it is difficult to determine causes or intentions behind effects or actions, and that any

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interpretations are constrained by individuals' conceptions, paradigms and general ways of thinking. A corollary is that if a person should leave the cave, and observe directly the actions of the people outside, he or she would never be able to return to his or her previous thinking patterns as newer, more complete ways of understanding the phenomenon would have been internalised.

Davies and Ellison (1997) address the supposed theory-practice divide directly when they propose a knowledge and competency based approach to the development of education managers. They state that what needs to be done needs to be determined before undertaking action to achieve it. In their approach they are careful to distinguish between competence and competency.

Competence can be defined as the ability to perform job tasks to given standards, and to transfer that knowledge to new situations⁶. Applying Pareto's rule, Davies and Ellison (1997) suggest that approximately 20 per cent of the competences identified for a particular job task directly relate to 80 per cent of the job outcome, suggesting that as few as 20 per cent of competences are critical to success. They also refer to synergistic core competences in schools, where the overall organisational contribution is greater than the sum of the contributions of individuals.

⁶ Based on the work of the Management Charter Initiative (MCI).

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Competency can be defined as the personal characteristics that regularly enable a job task to be performed well in a variety of situations⁷. In rather simplistic terms, competences are stated in a job description, and competencies in a person specification. While some competencies can be described as threshold, in that they represent a minimum standard, a few (called core competencies) are seen as the keys to outstanding performance. There are a number of competency taxonomies that apply to education managers and headteachers in particular (Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996), but The National Standards for Headteachers (DfEE, 2000a), devised by Hay/McBer, and the taxonomy used by the National Education Assessment Centre (NEAC)⁸, based on work produced by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) in North American, are the most widely used.

The existence of The National Headteacher Standards is one way in which the TTA can demonstrate its commitment to a theoretical underpinning of its proudly practical work. Anthea Millett, in her role as chief executive of the TTA, has gone on record (Brundrett, 1999, page viii) as saying that throughout the agency's work there has always been an attempt to bridge the gap between research (and by implication from her comments, theory) and practice, especially in the fields of school

⁷ Based on the work of the Hay/McBer Corporation.

⁸ The National Education Assessment Centre (NEAC) is a private company, working out of Oxford Brooks University, that assesses actual and potential senior education managers for development and recruitment purposes. Some Local Education Authorities (LEAs), Solihull being a prime example, have set up a similar organisation of their own, known as an Assessment Centre, to perform equivalent functions, particularly for headteacher recruitment.

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effectiveness and school improvement. However, when materials from the NPQH⁹ and LPSH¹⁰ programmes are examined, or sections of the TTA's and the NCSL's websites visited¹¹, theory is being considered at a very tentative level. In contrast, Bush (1999a) observes that education management has become very popular with practitioners, who, unlike many policy-makers, sense that practice without theory is shallow. The latest OECD¹² (2003) Report *Networks of Innovation* specifically analyses examples of innovative educational networks within 'network societies' as facilitators for sharing research and theories with practitioners.

Some recent work at the newly formed Centre for Evidence-Informed Policy and Practice in Education (EPPI-Centre: Education), which was commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES), is also encouraging in terms of crossing the theory-practice divide. EPPI-Centre: Education, which has its virtual home at <http://eppi.ioe.ac.uk>, aims to provide a resource for people undertaking research reviews in education to inform policy, and has a School Leadership Review Group solely dedicated to school leadership. The group's main focus is on the roles of headteachers and their senior management teams, with specific reference to the processes of educational leadership which they define as the leadership strategies and methods for improving teaching and learning and thereby raise standards and improve schools.

⁹ National Professional Qualification for Headteachers

¹⁰ Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers

¹¹ www.tta.org.uk and www.ncsl.org.uk

¹² Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

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It is argued (Handy, 1989; Drucker, 1988 quoted in Bottery, 1994) that in future all organisations will be essentially knowledge-based, with specialists working both autonomously and collaboratively with other colleagues. This is in line with Covey's (2001) more recent suggestion that most employees are already knowledge workers. According to Gunter (1999), in contrast to the United Kingdom, in North America and Australia charting and understanding field developments is regarded as an integral part of professional practice. He suggests that the strength of this approach lies in understanding knowledge claims as controversial, and located in the often contradictory and stressful working lives of those who promote and challenge them, despite Cardwell and Spinks's (1998) concern that questions about knowledge claims are anti-management. Bush (1999) sees the rapid growth of education management as leading inevitably to questions about the nature of the subject and the extent to which it has a clear epistemological underpinning.

Nowotny et al (2002), Eraut (1999) and Gibbons et al (1994) all address the issue of epistemology, but Eraut (1999) in particular distinguishes between Type A, or public knowledge, stored in publications, libraries and databases, and Type B, or personal knowledge, what people bring to practical situations that enables them to think and perform (which can include professional and management knowledge). Gray (1979a), employing the concept that Eraut (1999) later called personal knowledge, drew attention to the fact that each individual will perceive or

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understand an organisation in a different (and personalised) way to other individuals, even though then they may all use very similar descriptions. Similarly, different teachers behave differently to the same class as they perceive the needs of their pupils differently, and therefore address different objectives. Gray (1979) judges that organisation theory is more subjective than is desirable, and that it is not safe to assume everyone understands or means the same thing when they use the same words.

West-Burnham (1994a) traces the development of theoretical perspectives on education management from a scientific and positivist view, through a focus on values and subjective perspectives, to an integration of perspectives and the use of grounded theory. The work of Gunter (1999) on histories in education management represents a continuation of this trend. What is evident is that thinking, theory and understandings have powerful roles to play in the practice of education management, and specifically that headteachers' thinking and understandings determine the actions they take to improve our schools.

3.4 The Adopted Structure

Bush (1995, page 1) states that there is no single generally accepted definition of what he terms educational management, which he attributes to its emergence from (and partial reliance on) sociology, political science, economics and general management. By referring to the work of other writers in the field, he also exemplifies the wide range of definitions in

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current usage. More recently (Bush and Coleman, 2000) Bush calls for the development of a conceptual map of the field, in order to support its continual development, particularly in the light of international shifts towards self-managing schools.

Bolam (1999, pages 193-4) acknowledges some of the potential advantages of having a conceptual map for education management, but reflects that currently no such map exists. In fact the need to review what Bush (1999) calls the academic discipline of educational management, and consequently redefine educational management theory, gave rise to an influential seminar series, funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), between 1997 and 1999. The task of creating a conceptual map for the field of education management is immense, and well beyond the scope of this study. All that is required here is a way of organising and structuring the literature in a manner that helps address the research question.

There are a number of possible sources from which the beginnings of a structure can be gleaned. Karstanje (1999) suggests that there are five major task areas in school management: teaching and curriculum; staff; school organisation; finance, building, the facilities; and external relations. Alternatively the EPPI-Centre: Education state that the literature in this field falls into at least four fairly distinct types: that produced by theorists; that produced by researchers; that produced by

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policy-makers and that produced by practitioners. Unfortunately they also observe that work emerging from the different domains is rarely mutually informing and is often contradictory. They go on to argue that even the two most commonly used theoretical approaches, organisation theory and educational administration theory, are beset by the dilemmas of conceptual pluralism.

The framework finally adopted, which emerged from a critical analysis of texts deemed by the researcher to be both representative of their field and relevant to this research, consists of dividing the literature into three sections. These are leadership (which includes not only reference to generic and education specific leadership, but also work on high performing teams); schools as organisations (applying organisation theory, theories of education management, and school and organisation effectiveness research); and learning in schools (incorporating work on learning organisations and therefore process re-engineering, school improvement research and development planning). The framework changed many times during the construction of this thesis, as the researcher became increasingly familiar with the literature, and more importantly, identified emerging relationships between many of the component concepts. The structure that has been finally adopted reflects the literature based understandings that constitute a significant part of the research findings.

3.5 Conclusion

Some key concepts in the field are introduced and defined. The potential contribution of theory to the quality of headteachers' thinking, understandings and therefore actions regarding school improvement is highlighted.

The relevant literature has been structured under three headings: leadership; schools as organisations; and learning in schools. Each of these headings becomes the title of a literature chapter that forms the basis of at least one understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school.

Chapter Four

Leadership

4.1 Overview

4.2 Leadership and Management

4.3 The Importance of Leadership for Learning

4.4 A Leadership Based Understanding

4.4.1 Sources of Objectives for Leadership

4.4.2 Images of Leadership

4.4.3 The Role of Teams

4.5 An Excellence Based Understanding

4.5.1 Models of Good Practice

4.5.2 The Holistic Nature of Headship

4.5.3 Headteachers' Contributions to Successful Schools

4.6 Conclusion

4.1 Overview

This is the first of three chapters that review and analyse a range of literature, from an essentially phenomenographic perspective, in terms of how it informs understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. Within this chapter, the symbiotic relationship between leadership and management is established, and the elusive relationship between leadership and learning is charted.

Two distinct understandings are discovered in the leadership literature. However, these understandings are particularly wide ranging, yet non-specific, in relation to their foci, and are therefore termed 'generalised' or 'abstracted understandings'. While each understanding possesses a clear and recognisable focus, the interpretation and application of that focus is determined by the perspectives adopted across a number of dimensions within the literature. The predominant dimensions for each understanding are explicitly identified and discussed. Only by considering different positions along these dimensions can the depth and extensiveness of each understanding, and the potential range of associated 'personalised understandings', be fully appreciated.

The first abstracted understanding is based on generic leadership (and therefore management) principles. How these principles are adapted to fit particular circumstances is determined by the specific leadership objectives selected, the image or images of leadership adopted, and the

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extent to which leadership is perceived as a shared endeavour. The second understanding is based on what constitutes excellence in headship. The aspects of headship excellence which potentially enable behaviour to be emulated are distilled from models of good practice, synergistic appreciations of the holistic nature of headship, and alternative interpretations of how headteachers contribute to successful schools. The latter two aspects are clearly closely related.

4.2 Leadership and Management

Although the terms (education) 'leadership', 'management', and 'administration' are in common usage, their precise meanings, and the significant differences between them, are often unclear, and certainly not agreed (Bolam, 1999). The terms 'leadership' and 'management' are regularly used inconsistently, and even interchangeably, by writers in the field. Holmes (1993, page 9), for example, defines school leadership as

...the application of reason, logic, values and political will to the achievement of educational objectives via the deployment of available resources.

On the other hand, Everard and Morris (1996, page 4) use

1. setting direction, aims and objectives;
2. planning *how* progress will be made or a goal achieved;
3. organizing available resources (people, time, material(s)) so that the goal can be economically achieved in the planned way;
4. controlling the process (i.e. measuring achievement against plan and taking corrective action where appropriate); and
5. setting and improving organizational standards.

as a description of management. Clearly, there is a significant overlap between these definitions, despite the fact that the former refers to

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leadership and the latter to management. Many texts (for example Bennett et al (1994); Everard and Morris (1996); Davies and Ellison (1997); Heim and Chapman (1990); and Green (2000)) cover similar ground, irrespective of whether they include the terms 'leadership' or 'management' in their titles. In many publications the phrase 'leadership and management' is used in its entirety, without an attempt to disassemble it.

To help clarify the distinctions between leadership and management, and to serve as working definitions, the work of Whitaker (1998) is invoked.

Whitaker is the author of the only complete text on managing schools sponsored by the Institute of Management (IM)¹, and insofar as it is possible to typify the definitions in general usage in this rapidly evolving field, he offers a good exemplification.

Leadership is mainly concerned with:

- Personal and interpersonal behaviour;
- Focus on the future;
- Visions and purposes;
- Change and development;
- Quality of outcome;
- Achievement and success; and
- Personal effectiveness.

Management is more especially concerned with:

- Keeping the organization running;
- Orderly structures;
- Maintaining day-to-day functions;
- Ensuring that work gets done;
- Monitoring outcomes and results; and
- Organizational efficiency.

(Whitaker, 1998, page 23)

¹ The main professional body for management in the United Kingdom, known as the Chartered Management Institute (CMI) since April 2002.

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At a relatively mundane level, leadership pertains to people, with future and quality emphases, and is about effectiveness; whereas management is concerned with systems and things, on a day-to-day level, and with efficiency. At a more philosophical level, but perhaps as useful for differentiating the concepts, Sharman (1987) describes leadership as being of the spirit, compounded of personality and vision, and management of the mind. He concludes that managers are necessary, but leaders are essential, underlining the fact that if schools are to be successful, both are needed. For simplicity, and in accordance with current usage in such as the *Teachers' Standards Framework* (DfES, 2001), the term 'leadership' is used to denote both leadership and management type activities.

4.3 The Importance of Leadership for Learning

In 1987, Squire published his report entitled *Education Management in the UK*, sponsored by the University of Warwick, which concluded that 'the education service is managed in a mode which is seriously defective and that the service needs urgently to fight a battle of competence in management if this skew is to be corrected' (page 1). Although Squire's findings were disappointing, they were not surprising, as most managers in schools were trained as teachers and had undergone very little or no preparation for management roles.

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In the same year, the findings of two other published reports (Handy, 1987²; Constable and McCormick, 1987³), this time on the quality of management development and management education in Britain generally, were also far from complimentary. As a consequence, in 1988 the Management Charter Initiative (MCI)⁴ was formed, and created a set of management competences on which management training and qualifications could then be based⁵.

The commitment to improve the quality of management in schools was based on the assumption that the quality of school management, and leadership in particular, directly correlates with the quality of pupil learning. Even recently (Dispatch Box, BBC2, 4 December 2001), Chris Woodhead (the controversial former Chief Inspector of Schools) categorically claimed that it is to better management that we must look if we wish to improve learning in our schools.

This assumption seems to be backed up by a substantial amount of research (Rutter et al, 1979; Weindling and Earley, 1987; Mortimore et

² Sponsored by the British Institute of Management, the National Economic Development Office and Manpower Services Commission.

³ Sponsored by the Confederation of British Industry and the British Institute of Management (which merged with the Institute of Industrial Managers in 1992 to become the Institute of Management, and has been known as the Chartered Management Institute since April 2002).

⁴ The Management Charter Initiative (which became the Management Standards Unit in April 2000) was the executive arm of the National Forum for Management Education and Development, set up by the Confederation of British Industry, the Institute of Management and the Department for Education.

⁵ These include National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) in Management, which are offered at five levels, where Level One is aimed at Supervisory Staff and Level Five at Senior Managers.

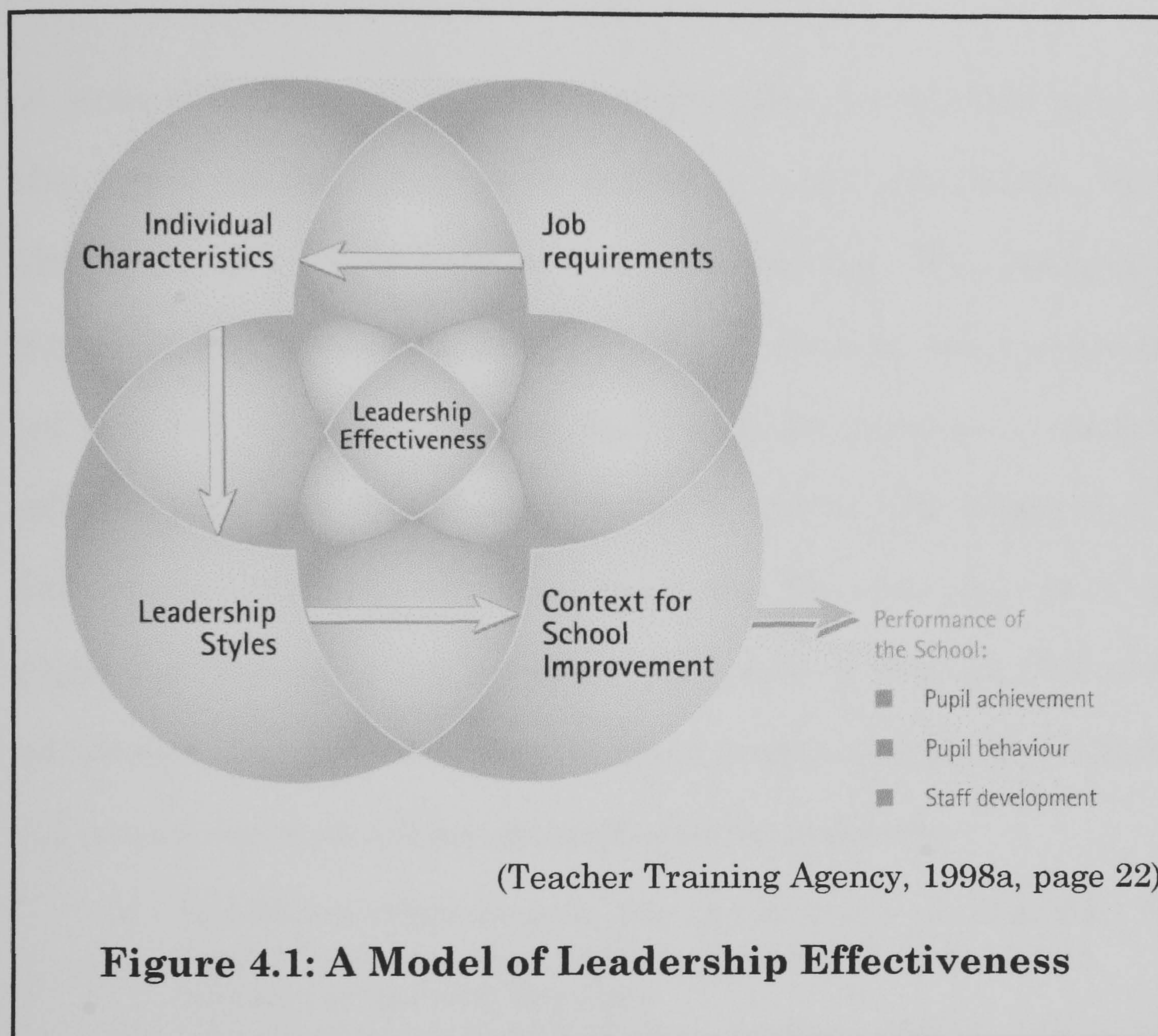
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al, 1988; Fullan and Steigelbauer, 1991). However, Hallinger and Heck (1999) question the assumption regarding the positive effects of leadership on schooling, based on the ambiguity of the empirical knowledge base and the work of the well respected scholars which they cite. The work of Brighthouse and Woods (1999) supports the contention that leadership is the key factor common to successful schools, but argues strongly that leadership is very complex. Brighthouse and Woods (1999) forcibly assert that the first rule of leadership is that it is shared, and significantly, unlike some of the previous contributions, state categorically that it is not all down to the headteacher.

One of the first tasks of the newly created National College for School Leadership (NCSL) was to commission Professor David Hopkins, a respected contributor to the field of School Improvement and now head of the Government's Standards and Effectiveness Unit, to investigate this reported link between school leadership and pupil learning. Hopkins (2000) concluded that instructional leaders are most likely to raise levels of pupil achievement if they can create a synergy between a focus on teaching and learning, and increasing the school's capacity to improve. This in turn requires the development of styles of leadership that enhance and celebrate the importance of teaching and learning for both pupils and staff.

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The TTA (1998a; 1998c) based their study of leadership on the Hay/McBer model of leadership effectiveness (Figure 4.1). Attention is drawn to the importance of leadership styles, which the TTA categorise as coercive, authoritative, affiliative, democratic, pacesetting and coaching.



Bush and Coleman (2000) collate the key attributes of what is known as educational, educative or pedagogical leadership by drawing on the research of influential workers in the field, notably that of Goldring and Pasternak, 1994, Duignan and Macpherson, 1992, Fidler, 1997a, Northfield, 1992, and Sergiovanni, 1998. Bush and Coleman (2000) conclude that school leaders should encourage, empower and supervise

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classroom teachers, stress professional development (particularly reflection on classroom practice), manage and monitor all aspects of learning (including stimulating curriculum development), and generally provide a positive and collaborative teaching culture.

In terms of relating to pupils and teachers, Maehr et al (1992) propose that school leaders affect pupil motivation and, consequently, they identify this as a crucial function of school leadership. They distinguish between ability goals (being judged as able, or avoiding being judged as not able) and task goals (learning itself as the goal), and point out that different goals lead to different learning strategies, and consequently, different learning outcomes. They assert that the selection of goals by pupils is influenced by the learning environment at both the classroom and school level, and go on to identify seven areas in which school leaders can promote the more success attracting task focused goals:

1. The Nature of Academic Tasks - the range of tasks, and the depth of understanding required, help define the operative meaning of learning for pupils;
2. Opportunities for Pupil Initiative and Responsibility - the more opportunities, the greater the likelihood of task learning. The greater the participation in decision-making, the clearer the picture of the school's mission (which should incorporate the intrinsic value of learning);
3. Recognition - what, who and how pupils are recognised all play their part. Rewarding pupils for out-performing their peers, rather than personal bests, can encourage ability focused learning;
4. Grouping - there is a danger of pupils in low ability groups feeling that they are less important than those in high ability groups. Ability grouping can encourage a learning environment that stresses ability, and not learning;
5. Evaluation Practices - again ability, not progress towards an individual's learning goal, can be emphasised. The school helps

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pupils construct meanings around assessments, in particular how they perceive learning and schooling, and most important, how they see themselves;

6. Resources - pupils and teachers are sensitive to how resources are allocated, and they use this to determine what is really valued; and
7. Organisation of the School Day - the usual short periods of time allocated to lessons encourage certain teaching and learning strategies, they do not allow much self-determination in the learning process for pupils and teachers.

(Based on Maehr et al, 1992, pages 410-29)

Having identified some key tasks that headteachers should address, Maehr et al (1992) turn their attention to the more general processes headteachers should concern themselves with. They observe that empowering teachers is not only good for staff morale, but is also crucial for school change. The more personally involved in change teachers are, the greater their personal investment, and the more likely they are to see how their work has meaning and significance within the grand plan. Teachers possess a high degree of expertise and knowledge about the realities of professional life, and when they are empowered, this can be harnessed for the good of the whole school. Maehr et al (1992) draw attention to the importance of everyone in the school community knowing exactly what a development means, on a practical day-to-day level, which can only be achieved by observing role models, or teachers having time to think and becoming reflective practitioners (Ghaye, 2001; Schon, 1983).

Leithwood and Steinbach (1993) address the question 'Do headteachers make a significant contribution to the improvement of their schools?'

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directly. Based on the results of fifteen years of research, they conclude that some do but many do not. They state (page 43) that what headteachers do depends on what they think, specifically their school improvement practices are products of how they think about and approach school improvement. They argue that little is known about headteachers' internal processes, how they think and feel about their jobs, and without a better understanding of headteachers' thinking, and in particular their problem-solving processes, it is difficult to explain the differences in their contributions to improving schools. It is hoped that this research effort will make a small contribution to filling the gap in the literature that Leithwood and Steinbach (1993) have identified.

Leithwood and Steinbach (1993) examined the problem solving approaches of practitioners, as applied to improving a school, and developed a six stage model for problem solving⁶. While they readily attribute many of the differences in the problem-solving process to gender, size of organisation, position in hierarchy, and socialisation, they also draw attention to the potential effects of four leadership styles:

- A. a focus on inter-personal relationships and establishing a cooperative and genial climate;
- B. a focus on pupil achievement, well-being and growth (through widely varied means);
- C. a focus on programmes or plans, improving staff competence, and developing procedures for carrying out tasks central to such programmes; and

⁶ Interpretation (a headteacher's understanding of the problem); goals (immediate purposes, based on an individual's interpretation); values (long-term purposes that guide a headteacher's thinking); constraints (what needs to be overcome); solution processes (what the headteacher actually does); and affect (the feelings the headteacher experiences during problem solving).

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- D. a focus on administration (budgets, timetables, personal administration and requests for information), sometimes referred to as 'administrivia'.

(Leithwood and Steinbach, 1993, page 42)

They refer to 'considerable evidence' that Style B (pupil achievement) in particular, and Style C (plans), make the greatest contribution to school improvement, with Styles A and D making contributions more as means rather than ends in themselves. Further analysis of their research enabled a four-part framework of headteacher practice to be produced⁷.

Leithwood and Steinbach (1993) accept that similar leadership practices will be interpreted differently by individual recipients. However, after reviewing the variables school culture, teacher development and teachers' perceptions of the helpfulness of the headteacher's leadership, they support a hierarchical view of the impact of different patterns of thinking and corresponding headteacher practices, with direct instructional leadership at the apex (page 50).

Education leadership, and of particular significance for this research, the different ways of thinking (which determine appropriate actions) employed by education leaders, can play a crucial role in improving the quality of pupils' learning. There is a strong argument for addressing the leadership and management needs of middle managers (Williams, 2002;

⁷ Direct Instructional Leaders (demonstration and coaching); Indirect Instructional Leaders (creating the conditions for teacher success, providing meeting time and sharing decision-making); Teacher-Centred Managers (corresponds to Leadership Style A: interpersonal relationships focus); and Building Centred Managers (corresponds to Leadership Style D: administration focus).

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Field, 2000; Gold, 1998; Dunham, 1995). Consequently, how headteachers (and other education leaders working at whole school, department or year group levels) think about and understand what needs to be done to improve a school, represents justifiable areas of research which may provide helpful insights into the school improvement process.

4.4 A Leadership Based Understanding

A leadership based abstracted understanding is understanding what needs to be done to improve a school as focusing on leadership. An adaptive approach is adopted, with the intention of giving meaning to practical, context specific actions within an overall leadership configuration, through selecting specific leadership objectives, adopting particular images of leadership, and contextualising leadership across a solitary-shared continuum.

4.4.1 Sources of Objectives for Leadership

The 1986 and 1988 Education Reform Acts placed significantly greater management responsibilities, and associated accountabilities, on headteachers. Wallace and Weindling (1999a) describe the process by which the British Government demands 'more for less' as 'power assisted steering through a combination of mandate, target, surveillance and corrective action' (page 206). In particular, the 1988 Act delegated responsibilities relating to personnel, finances, premises and development planning directly to headteachers and governing bodies. However, as

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Davies & Ellison (1997) observe, simply allocating these new responsibilities and accountabilities to school managers and governors, most of whom had little experience of such roles, did not prepare them for the challenge.

Given the potential contribution of school leadership and management to raising standards, and the fact that the quality of many development programmes left room for improvement, the Department of Education and Science (DES) established the School Management Task Force (SMTF). The SMTF published a report in 1990 which became very influential in setting the agenda for change. However, not all the recommendations of the report were implemented, and the 1993 School Teachers' Review Body's (STRB) published report was more than a little critical of headteachers' management in schools (STRB, page 38). This focus on developing headteachers' management and leadership abilities forms a cornerstone of a national strategy designed to improve pupil learning and the quality of education generally. The high profile way in which the strategy is pursued gives clear messages to headteachers about what is expected of them in terms of improving their schools, especially given the existence of National Headteacher Standards (a nationally recognised set of headteacher competences developed in the mid 1990s).

As Cordingley (1999) reports, TTA's core priority for school management is helping teachers to improve teaching and learning so that pupils

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achieve more. Consequently, from the TTA's point of view, skilfully managing budgets and attracting resources is only appropriate in so far as it provides a springboard for the development of teaching and learning. However, as Redwood (1997) observes, a proportion of headteachers have proved themselves to be financial wizards, and Cotter (1995) suggests that headteachers are more likely to be able to describe the technicalities of their budget than explain what is being done to help any under-performing colleagues within their own schools. Individual headteachers must decide for themselves the extent to which they should address these contrasting objectives.

It is argued that school leaders have a responsibility for supporting teachers in the development of knowledge, understanding and practice, and therefore they have an associated responsibility to be effective mediators of research and even researchers themselves (Cordingley, 1999). Contrastingly, Du Quesnay (in Hellowell, 2000) argues that the research community is too introspective, and fails to engage practising professionals. At a national level, Hargreaves (1994, page 47) argues strongly that, in practice, government policies are driven more by prejudice and ideology than by evidence, except when evidence is carefully selected to support a political point of view. Dissemination of knowledge, adherence to ideology and the pragmatic application of techniques provide another range of leadership choices for headteachers.

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While it might be assumed that essential headteacher responsibilities, as described in their conditions of service⁸, are taken into account when headteachers are appointed, referring to her work on the selection of headteachers, Evetts (1994) argued that this is not the case. The POST project on the selection of secondary school headteachers (Morgan et al 1983, Morgan 1988) concluded that selectors had a meagre knowledge of the job and that non job related factors often dominated the selection decision. Surprisingly, using appointment procedures to help determine appropriate objectives for headteachers is simply unreliable. When actually in service, it is not unreasonable to suggest that headteachers have different development needs from their aspiring colleagues, to some extent depending on their experience and consequential evolving perspectives on leadership. Weindling (1999a) applies three periods of organisational socialisation (drawn from non educational fields) to leaders who are new in post⁹ but Parkay and Hall (1992) derive a five stage model specifically to describe the career paths of new headteachers¹⁰. Du Quesnay (2001) argues that appropriate development provision should be available (from the NCSL) throughout the following five stages of school leaders' careers:

1. emergent leadership (when teachers begin to take on responsibilities);

⁸ A document entitled School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document is published annually by the Department for Education and Skills and contains the conditions of service for headteachers.

⁹ Encounter, anticipation, or confrontation (rational interpretations and sense making); adjustment, accommodation, or clarity (attempting to fit in and looking for role clarity); and stabilisation (stable patterns emerge but this is only visible in data from longitudinal studies).

¹⁰ Survival; control; stability; educational leadership; and professional actualisation.

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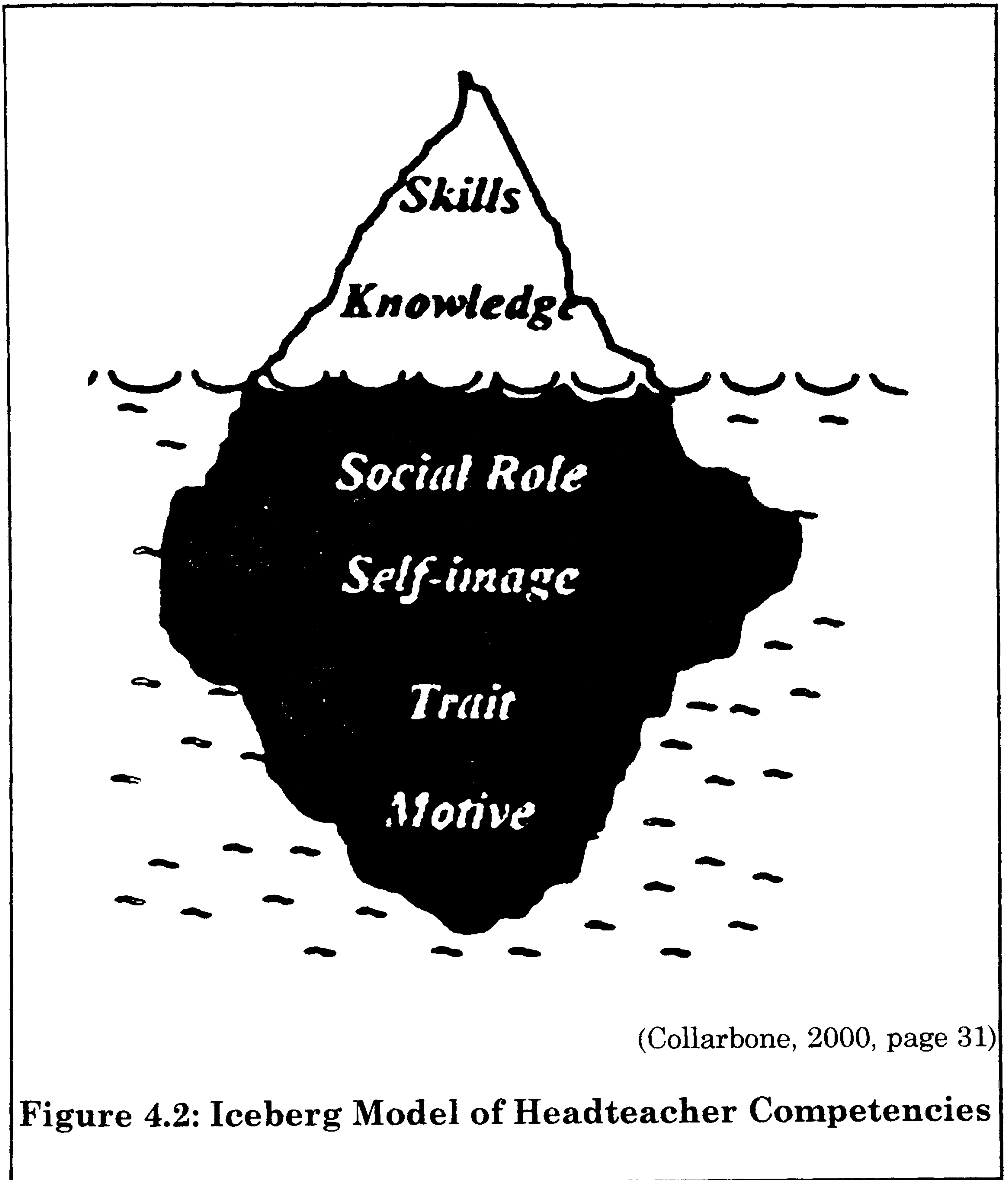
2. establish leadership (for assistant and deputy headteachers who do not intend to pursue headship);
3. entry to headship (including preparation for and induction into headship);
4. advance leadership (when school leaders are mature in their role and wish to update their skills); and
5. consultant leadership (experience leaders ready to train, mentor or inspect other school leaders).

(Based on Du Quesnay, 2001, pages 40-2)

There are currently three government sponsored headteacher training programmes that address this need: a Headteacher Leadership and Management (induction) Programme (HEADLAMP); the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH); and a Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers (LPSH). As there exists analyses which chart headteachers' progress through a number of phases, along with differentiated training programmes for them, it is not unreasonable to suggest that understandings relating to leadership could change over time, and similarly headteachers' leadership objectives could also change over time.

Having addressed the technical differences between competence and competency, Collarbone (2000) draws attention to an array of necessary competences required of headteachers, all of which could be interpreted as objectives for leadership. Referring to theoretical and practical knowledge, she states that use can be made of School Improvement research, with particular reference to professional leadership, emphasising teaching and learning, continuous professional development and organisational learning, as these underpin the national agenda.

From August 2001, based on the work of Hay/McBer¹¹, greater emphasis has been given to a competency-based approach which locates various characteristics or competencies at different levels of consciousness, as



illustrated in the Iceberg Model (Figure 4.2). Collarbone (2000) defines motives, the notion at the absolute base of the iceberg, as the natural and

¹¹ Hay/McBer is an internationally recognised, and well respected, management consultancy company that was engaged by the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) to help with the development of the LPSH programme.

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constant thoughts and preferences which direct a person's outward behaviour. The practical research reported here is concerned with how headteachers' thoughts (or understandings), relating to what needs to be done to improve a school, might direct their outward behaviour.

Whichever analysis is adopted, the resulting database of information suggests a whole range of potential leadership activities, any one of which could be regarded as an objective for leadership. The selection of specific leadership objectives will contribute to the creation of a leadership framework and configuration that, when adapted to meet a particular set of circumstances, will give meaning to everyday actions.

4.4.2 Images of Leadership

In the context of the 1990s and beyond, Caldwell and Spinks (1992) identify a capacity for leadership as the central requirement for schools. However, leadership is a rather elusive concept. Burns (1978) suggests that it remains one of the most observed but least understood phenomenon on earth. Grace (1995) asserts that it, in common with culture, cannot be effectively analysed through a checklist approach. Holmes et al (1989) warn that it can be dangerous exclusively to focus on leadership characteristics, as the assumption that there is an ideal set of leadership characteristics is totally invalid. However, elusive or not, headteachers will have mental images of leadership that will inform their understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school.

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The prominent leadership theories, according to Sale (1997), are trait, behavioural, contingency and attributional. Trait theories attempt to identify common characteristics of leaders (which Sale suggests can imply that leaders are born not made). Behavioural theories, on the other hand, concern themselves with preferred actions, implying that leaders can be trained. In an attempt to address the incomplete or inadequate nature of these theories, contingency theory examines the situational variables that influence leadership. However, such contingency theories soon become highly complex and counter-intuitive. Finally, Sale (1997) presents attribution theory as a suitable response to these limitations, as it characterises leadership as those attributes (such as consistency) that people describe leaders as having.

Sale's (1997) analysis serves to confirm the partial nature of leadership theories, and suggests that at least some leadership traits or characteristics are difficult to transmit. He argues that the key to understanding successful leadership is to accept that personal qualities and values are central to the task. If genuine values are not central to leadership, it will fail (and similarly, if values are not central to leadership development programmes, they too will fail). Taking on board the importance of values, but working at a more specific level, Preedy (1993) summarises and briefly illustrates some recent advances in our knowledge about leadership (Figure 4.3)

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Generalisation	Illustration
1. Emphasis should be given to transformational rather than transactional leadership.	Headteacher takes action to change community attitudes towards the school.
2. Outstanding leaders have a vision for their organisation.	Headteacher envisages the school as a learning centre for the whole community.
3. Vision must be communicated in a way which secures commitment among members of the organisation.	Headteacher seeks the commitment of teachers in devoting time and energy to changing community attitudes towards school.
4. Communication of the vision requires communication of its meaning.	'Community' is a metaphor for the school: headteacher rewards related teacher activities.
5. Issues of value – 'what ought to be' – are central to leadership.	Headteacher has strong commitment to equality in terms of access to schooling.
6. The leader has an important role in developing the culture of the organisation.	Headteacher involves members of community in all ceremonies at the school.
7. Studies of outstanding schools provides strong support for school-based management and collaborative decision-making.	School policy is determined by groups representing parents, teachers, pupils and the community at large.
8. There are many kinds of leadership forces – technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural – and these should be widely dispersed throughout the school.	Planning for the various programmes in school is carried out by teams of teachers, each having its own leader.
9. Attention should be given to institutionalising the vision if leadership of the transforming kind is to be successful.	The vision of the school as a learning centre for the community is reflected in goals, policies, plans, budgets and activities.
10. Both 'masculine' and 'feminine' stereotype qualities are important in leadership, regardless of the gender of the leader.	Headteacher is sensitive and caring about personal needs ('feminine' stereotype): headteacher fosters a competitive team approach to raising the school's academic standing ('masculine' stereotype).

(Preedy, 1993, page 147)

Figure 4.3: Knowledge About Leadership

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Preedy (1993) draws particular attention to the importance of symbolic leadership, and the communication of meaning. She relates these activities to those integrated messages given by the patterned use of words and actions that have an impact on the beliefs, values, attitudes and therefore behaviours of school community members. She also argues that having a vision, which embodies a view of excellence and a means of achieving it, and securing commitment to that vision, is just the starting point. It must also be institutionalised so that it determines the majority of the everyday activities within the school.

When headteachers were asked to reflect on their images of leadership, (MacBeath et al, 1995), they offered a wide range of powerful metaphors, including driving an external combustion engine, showing that you can teach, doing nothing to make the school authorities uncomfortable, and running a small business. Leigh (1994) draws attention to the fact that research findings about leadership are often contradictory, and summarises what he believes to be the most prominent different ways of looking at leadership:

- a focus of group processes;
- personality and its effects;
- the art of inducing compliance;
- an exercise in influence;
- act or behaviour;
- a form of persuasion;
- power relationship;
- an instrument of goal achievement; and
- a way of defining an individual's role.

Leigh (1994, page 17)

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Given the fundamental differences in the conceptions of leadership embodied in these and other 'elementary' and 'static' analyses of the concept, it is inevitable that the adoption of different dominant images of leadership will influence headteachers' understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. However, the work of Hall et al (1984) was undertaken specifically with the intention of generating more than lists of leadership metaphors, attributes or strategies that should be applied by all headteachers or school principals. They conclude that the role of the principal in the school improvement process must be viewed in terms of many factors, that individual principals view their role and priorities differently, and that it is naïve to suggest that simply changing one variable will, in itself, produce dramatic improvements.

Hall et al's (1984) research focused on the 'principal as change facilitator' aspect of what principals actually do, which enabled them to identify three change facilitator styles that incorporate the recorded behaviour of all their research subjects - 'the principal as responder', 'the principal as manager' and 'the principal as initiator'. In their simplest form, moving through the styles in the order given tends to suggest points along a reactive-proactive continuum.

Hall et al acknowledge the work of Thomas (1978) which, although undertaken independently, resulted in a similar typography, but with the descriptors 'principal as director', 'principal as administrator' and

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'principal as facilitator'. Hall et al's (1984) work analysed principals' behaviours in relation to a number of dimensions: vision and goal setting; structuring the school as a work place; managing change; collaborating and delegating; decision making; and guiding and supporting. Their empirical findings under the 'vision and goal setting' and 'managing change' dimensions offer indications of principals' (or headteachers') personalised understandings of what needs to be done to change, or improve, a school.

To some extent, Hall et al's (1984) research is unusual in that it examines the implications for a school of different interpretations of an aspect of the principal's role, rather than the implications for leadership of conceptualising the school in a given way. The authors conclude that, although there is a strong correlation (0.74) between implementation success at the classroom level and principal change facilitator style, success in terms of effectiveness depends very much on definition. Specifically, they found that all styles were effective in that change took place, but teachers perceived manager style principals as being most effective, even though initiator style principals were in fact most effective according to hard data on change taking place. Significantly, Hall et al (1984) acknowledged that none of the criteria directly addressed pupil achievement (the official criterion for effectiveness) and suggested that if this were to be the success criterion, a different style again may be needed to demonstrate greatest effectiveness.

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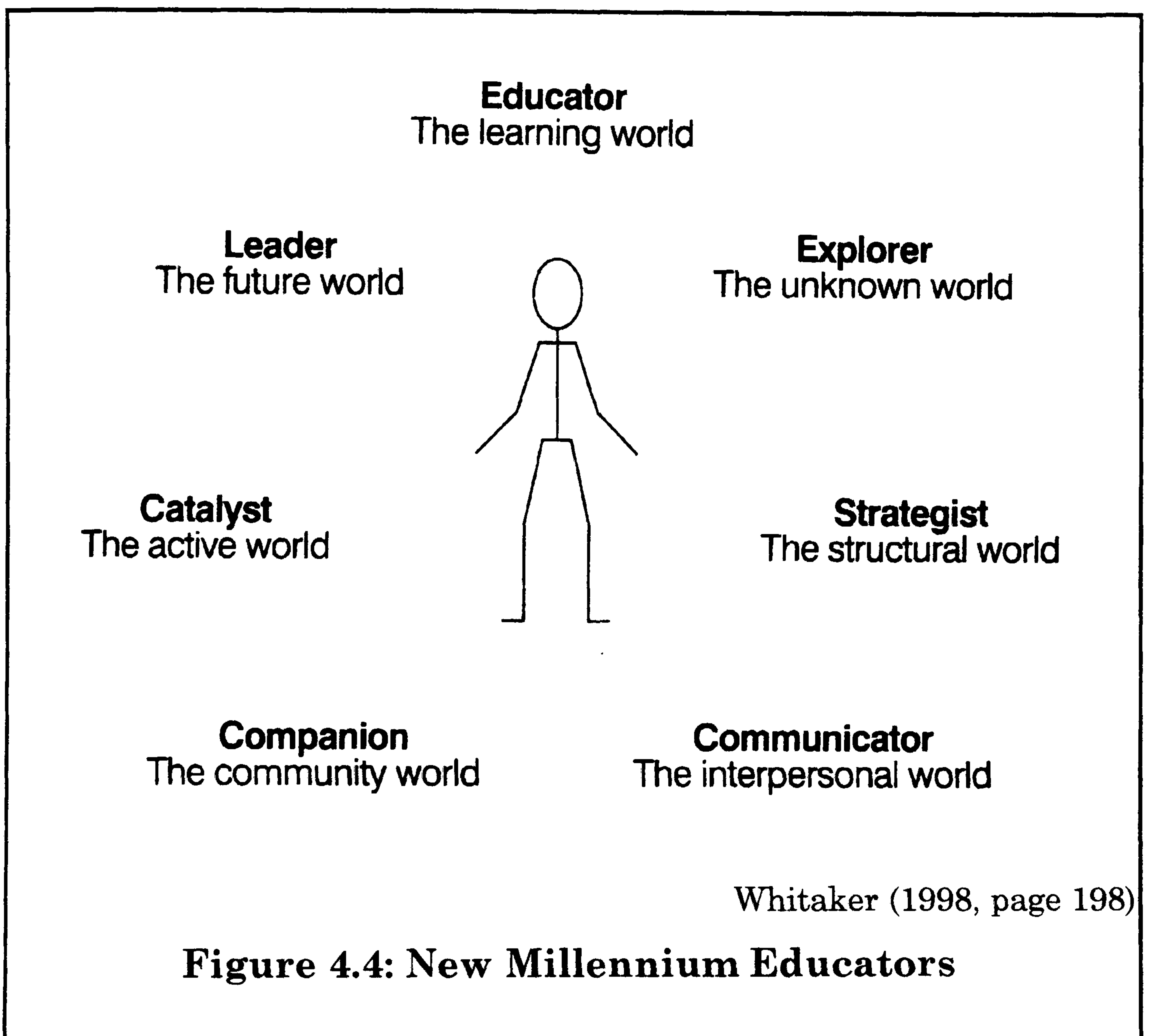
Hoy and Miskel (1996) suggest that effective leadership involves matching leadership styles with appropriate situations, and in particular, effectively communicating meaning by exchanging symbols. Stegö et al (1987) went further, and argued that it is not possible to understand school leaders' actions without understanding the structures (particularly decision-making) and cultures in which they work. Stegö et al's (1987) assertion is addressed directly in this research study through the creation of a leadership-based abstracted understanding that enables the selection of leadership ideas to provide actions with meaning in the context of a particular leadership configuration.

A similar link to that identified by Stegö et al (1987) is highlighted in Gray (1979a), but this time focused on the relationships between typologies of organisations and leadership. Gray (1979a) goes back to Rudge's (1968) typology of organisations consisting of traditional, charismatic, mechanistic, human relations and systemic categories and proposes that leadership styles relate as much to such organisational structures as to individual personality. He goes on to suggest that Rudge's (1968) organisation types are particularly interesting to explore in relation to schools as they tend to characterise some of the popular views about 'headmasters' and schools¹².

¹² Traditional leader (typical in old public schools); charismatic leader (typical in progressive schools); mechanistic leader (clearly 'the boss'); human relations leader (nostalgic about grammar schools); and systemic leader (more a fantasy than reality).

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Whitaker's (1998) analysis is less simplistic. Rather than suggesting that headteachers exemplify one stereotype, or occupy one world, he argues that, in the new millennium, they are simultaneously present in many worlds (Figure 4.4). He sees the headteacher as constantly rotating through multiple realities and making small but significant contributions in each, and thus responding to the inevitably untidy, unpredictable and challenging nature of the role.



Sergiovanni (1990) employs an even more subtle approach in his model of leadership. He states that both value and value-added dimensions, as

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given in Figure 4.5, are necessary to achieve extraordinary performance. He sees the value dimensions as being concerned with competence and basic accountability, and value-added dimensions with excellence. Sergiovanni complements his dimensions with the two corollaries tabulated in Figure 4.6, which emphasise the importance of being both politically astute and morally and spiritually motivated.

Value Dimensions <i>The emphasis is on:</i>	Value-added Dimensions <i>The emphasis is on:</i>
1. Management	Leadership
2. Participation investment	Extraordinary performance investment
3. Manipulating situations	Providing symbols and enhancing meaning
4. Planning	Purposing
5. Giving directions	Enabling teachers and the school
6. Providing a monitoring system	Building an accountability system
7. Extrinsic motivation	Intrinsic motivation
8. Congeniality	Collegiality
9. Calculated leadership	Leadership by outrage

(Sergiovanni, 1990, page 15)

Figure 4.5: Value and Value-added Dimensions

Even when focusing on the value-added dimensions, Sergiovanni (1990) states that, individually, none of them is powerful enough to bring about quality education on its own. He states that there is a critical connectedness between the dimensions, and that the dimensions are best understood as compromising inter-dependent parts. For example, he proposes that a school that builds a covenant with objectives and clearly

defined outcomes, but is devoid of symbolic representations, will not allow the school community to derive sense and meaning from their school lives, and ultimately will fail.

The Two Corollaries	
<i>Corollary</i>	<i>Interpretation</i>
1. Building in Canvas	Sergiovanni (1990) employs the metaphor of the canvas tank used in warfare as a decoy and to present the illusion of strength. He encourages schools to present the right public face and therefore gain the freedom to function internally in ways that make more sense.
2. Emphasise Moral Leadership	Bureaucratic theories of leadership seek a response from the mind and the hand, but the unique human response is one of spirit which responds to values, beliefs, moral dimensions and ethical standards. Moral leadership represents and symbolises something of value to followers – it is concerned with what is good as well as what is effective.

(Adapted from Sergiovanni, 1990, page 26-9)

Figure 4.6: Sergiovanni's Two Corollaries

Sergiovanni (1990) asserts that if purposing is to have value, it must be lived, and consequently describes the challenge of leadership as the translation of values and ideas into actions and programmes. He exemplifies such leadership behaviour with a combination of solid management and good interpersonal skills, which he suggests together form the raw materials of situational leadership.

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Situational leadership, according to Sergiovanni (1990), involves being able convincingly to play the role of principal teacher at the same time as bonding together the school community around a common set of values and ideals. It is this bonding process that helps community members derive a sense of meaning from their school lives, and a commitment to excellence in their work. Sergiovanni (1990) believes that commitment can best be facilitated through regularly expressing beliefs, daily modelling successful behaviour, building traditions, and the active development of rituals. An appropriate balance of such symbolic and cultural leadership effectively communicates to staff, parents and pupils the values and direction that are important to the leader and the school, and links the school's covenant with the personal meaning community members enjoy in their daily lives.

Cattanach (1996) also draws attention to the importance of a balanced approach and good judgment for effective leaders when he describes an Aristotelian or golden mean as the most desirable position between two extremes. Further, within an educational context Cattanach (1996) suggests that there are at least 15 such continua, of which 'data-intuition', 'public's right to know-employee confidentiality', and 'consistency-flexibility' form noteworthy examples.

Sergiovanni (1990) applies the notion of balance to a set of five leadership forces that school leaders can apply in varying degrees, depending on the

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circumstances. He describes a technical force which refers to the employment of sound management techniques, a human force that harnesses the school's social and inter-personal potential, and an educational force which consists of expert knowledge about educational issues. Together, these three forces are the basis of school competence, and, he argues, are necessary but not sufficient conditions for excellence.

Symbolic force, focusing on key goals or modelling appropriate behaviour to indicate what is important, is exemplified by spending time with pupils, raising teaching and learning issues above management activities, leading rituals and generally expressing a unified vision in words and deeds. Finally, cultural force consists of defining, involving and expressing the timeless values and beliefs that give the school its unique identity.

This cultural force, which Sergiovanni (1990) refers to as the 'high priest function' of leadership, requires the regular articulation of school purposes and mission, the induction of new staff, the nurturing of myths and traditions, the clarification of how things are done around here, the rewarding of approved behaviour, and generally developing and expressing systems of symbols which have real meaning for community members. When effective, cultural leadership bonds teachers, parents and pupils to the work of the school within a common purpose. Sergiovanni (1990) stresses that the emphasis should be on the semantics

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of leadership, the meaning of a leader's actions. It should not be on phonetics of leadership, what he or she actually does. Leadership semantics can play a powerful role in communicating school values and commitments simply through symbolic daily acts.

Taken collectively, the work of Rudge (1968), Gray (1979a), Hall et al (1984), Stegö et al (1987), Sergiovanni (1990), Cattanach (1996), Hoy and Miskel (1996) and Whitaker (1998) suggests that leadership is 'multifaceted' and 'dynamic' in nature. It also suggests that being sensitive to the often inter-dependent perspectives, and finding the right balance between them, and drawing attention to the meaning behind actions rather than the actions themselves, are essential activities for leaders.

Headteachers will adopt particular perspectives or images regarding individual theories of leadership that will inform and influence their understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. However, the analyses documented here force the conclusion that this is not enough. Headteachers are also required to deal with, and even orchestrate, the inter-connections between competing leadership theories, even as their significance changes from context to context and therefore moment to moment. Such a requirement serves to strengthen the case for an adaptive approach within a leadership based abstracted understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school.

4.4.3 The Role of Teams

Although the headteacher is the most senior leader in a secondary school, there are other members of the leadership (or senior management) team. MacBeath and Myers (1999) refer to a press release, given by the Secretary of State for Education on 3 December 1998, stating categorically that good heads are the key to success. This claim is echoed by Millett (1988), in her role as Chief Executive of the TTA, who states that research and inspection evidence makes it clear that quality leadership is crucial for school improvement. While Brighouse and Woods (1999, page 8) observe that there is strong agreement that it is all down to the headteacher, they go on to emphasise that it is a bit more complicated than that.

Superhead Marsha Elms, quoted in Redwood (1999), asserts that while she believes a lot can be done in the long term, one person cannot turn round a failing school alone. This view is supported by research undertaken by Harris for the NCSL (cited in O'Leary, 2002). Harris's research concludes that schools who have a normal succession of headteachers have a better chance of long-term improvement than those who have a superhead, in part because the superhead approach relies too heavily on one individual.

Wallace (2000) reported that the Government's image of a heroic new breed of school manager, the superhead, was short lived, following a spate

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of high-profile resignations. Du Quesnay (in Hellowell, 2000), founding director of the NCSL, goes as far as attributing the calamities that occurred when superheads were placed in failing schools directly to the dangers of seeing school leadership as residing solely with the headteacher.

The General Secretary of SHA, John Dunford (Dunford, 2000), points out that while the days of the headteacher being the only decision-maker in school have long gone, it is not always easy to wean staff away from their desire to leave all decisions (and, he argues, any associated blame) with the headteacher. As Senge (1999, page 40) points out, people love heroes, but when things go wrong, they intuitively feel someone has screwed up. The extent to which headteachers themselves see leadership as a distributive function, as something that is shared with other colleagues, can be conceptualised as a point along a solitary-shared continuum. It is argued that the position adopted by headteachers along this continuum will directly influence their understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school.

Andrew Kakabadse, Deputy Director of the Cranfield School of Management, speaking to the Royal Society of Arts, and quoted in *The Times Educational Supplement* (2001), categorically states that today's organisations face too many issues, and have an order of complexity such that the single leader concept has to give way to team based leadership.

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In the school context, Reid et al (1987) attribute the elusiveness of school improvement to the fact that we backed the wrong horse – the individual teacher. Even the TTA (1998a; 1998c) refer to the leadership team's ability, rather than solely that of the headteacher, as distinguishing the best from the rest. Teams have a role to play in maintaining and improving our schools.

As Bell (1997) points out, it is often assumed that everybody knows what teamwork is, and has a shared perception of what it means, an assumption that he claims is rarely borne out in practice. He defines teamwork as a group of people working together on the basis of:

- shared perceptions;
- a common purpose;
- agreed procedures;
- commitment;
- corporation; and
- resolving disagreements openly by discussion.

(Bell, 1997, page 120)

While Bell (1997) acknowledges that teamwork is demanding and time-consuming, he suggests that it can help reduce pressure and stress, by building on the strengths of individuals, and creating confidence and support generally. Crawford et al (1997) claim that effective teams, which work together for a common goal or purpose, are effective as a result of applying interpersonal skills, clear communication, motivation, negotiation and leadership.

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The stages teams go through to become effective are described by Gray (1982) as 'forming, storming, norming, performing, and mourning' (but he emphasises that the final stage can occur after any of the previous four stages). In Taylor and McKenzie's (1997) analysis, the final stage is labelled 'disbanding'. The consensus is that teamwork does not just happen automatically, it needs to be managed to be effective, and therefore logically team development is as important as individual development (Bell, 1997).

Wallace and Hall (1994) suggest that the creation of senior management teams represents, to a large extent, a response to the sheer size and complexity of today's organisations; a staff culture which values people having some say in decisions; being shown shining examples of teams working well in industry; and the amount of change now demanded of schools. Such a strategy can only be embarked upon with the commitment of headteachers (and their willingness to be held accountable for the performance of their team), but surprisingly, Wallace and Hall (1994) conclude that senior management teams are unlikely to be successful without a strong commitment to a team approach from other team members as well.

Creating a senior management team (SMT) implies superimposing new ways of working, in terms of equal contributions from members, over norms relating to hierarchical relationships. When 'controlling' their

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teams, headteachers use a combination of overt and covert methods, ranging from laying down ground rules, to attempting to manipulate the setting (through subtly indicating their preferences by such as body language). Wallace and Hall (1994) conclude that, in successful teams, the emerging norms are heavily influenced by headteachers, but are still the outcome of genuine negotiation between all team members.

Crawford et al (1997) see the interrelatedness, interactions and symbiosis of leadership and teams as absolutely crucial to managing people. It is further argued by Bell (1997) that whereas in the past the individual teacher has been regarded as the focal point for change, in the future the team will be the focal point of professional activity. He believes that, if well-managed, working in teams will bring significant benefits to individual teachers, groups of teachers and the whole school in terms of:

- agreeing aims;
- clarifying roles;
- sharing expertise and skills;
- maximising use of resources;
- motivating, supporting, and encouraging members of the team;
- improving relationships within the staff group;
- encouraging decision-making;
- increasing participation;
- realising individual potential;
- improving communication;
- increasing knowledge and understanding; and
- reducing stress and anxiety.

(Bell, 1997, page 121)

The time and resources headteachers allocate to team development directly correlates with the importance they give to team activity. Where headteachers value teams, they give them a role in negotiating what

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leadership means within the context of the leadership team, and therefore in determining the meaning of all the routine actions that take place in schools. Such headteacher behaviour can also be interpreted as modelling appropriate leadership behaviour for individual team members who lead teams of their own.

The extent to which headteachers see leadership as a shared activity, as meaning different things for them when working as a team than when working as an individual, influences their understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. In addition, it would appear that the effectiveness of a team approach is dependent on the extent to which all team members' understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school attribute value to a team approach.

4.5 An Excellence Based Understanding

An excellence based abstracted understanding is understanding what needs to be done to improve a school as focusing on idealised good practice. A reflective-professional approach is adopted, with the intention of personalising mental schemas and behaviour patterns for a particular school environment, through contemplating models of good practice, appreciating the holistic nature of headship, and evaluating alternative interpretations of headteachers' contributions to successful schools.

4.5.1 Models of Good Practice

The first attempt to analyse the role of secondary school headteachers was performed by Hughes (1976). His study of seventy-two secondary headteachers highlighted the tension caused by trying to carry out what he termed their 'chief executive' and 'leading professional' roles. In his later work, Hughes (1990) introduced the term 'professional-as administrator' to reflect the fact that headteachers have the educational background to maintain credibility as 'leading professionals' (Hughes, 1988) while also being effective chief executives. The symbolic significance of direct teaching that many headteachers value supports their educational perspective, and their involvement with goal setting, change facilitation, motivating others and representing the school to external audiences contributes to their chief executive perspective, making for a dynamic position.

Rudduck (1995) describes headteachers trying to reconcile the traditional responsibilities of being the leading professional with the newer responsibilities of being a managing director as the duality of the role. In contrast, Hargreaves (1994, page 53) states that we should abandon the pretence that gifted teachers necessarily make headteacher managers, and advocates the employment of professional managers to take charge of the administration of the school, which would allow the headteacher to focus on being the leading professional.

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For her PhD thesis, Doughty (1998) questioned the continued relevance of Hughes's (1976) model of a headteacher's role. Both Hughes's (1976; 1990) and Doughty's (1998) research suggests that, compared to the 1970s, there has been a decline in the emphasis placed on the leading professional function within a secondary headteacher's role, leaving the chief executive function prominent. Doughty (1998) concludes that Hughes's model is still relevant today, although she does suggest that some of its descriptors need updating.

Dimmock (1993, page 77) observed that headteachers who are conscientious about fulfilling both their administrative and instructional leader roles personally define them in ways that ensure they work well together, but can also be identified separately in terms of the responsibilities they fulfil. He argued the balance between the professional and administrative domains has implications for effectiveness, and that in effective schools the balance tips towards the professional domain with the administrative domain existing purely to support teaching and learning. How headteachers conceive the expectations and values inherent in the leading professional and chief executive aspects of their role informs their understandings of what makes a 'good' headteacher, which in turn can influence their understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school.

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A more detailed analysis of a headteacher's role is given in the *National Standards for Headteachers* (DfEE, 2000a). The Standards form a framework for describing the professional knowledge, understanding, skills and attributes necessary for successful headship under the five headings:

- strategic direction and development of the school;
- teaching and learning;
- leading and managing staff;
- efficient and effective deployment of staff and resources; and
- accountability.

(DfEE, 2000a, page 11)

Doughty (1998) suggests that Hughes's model can be a relevant way of looking at the National Standards, and that correspondingly, the National Standards can be used to clarify aspects of the leading professional and chief executive dimensions in the context of the 1990s and beyond. Interestingly, Grace (2000a; 2000b) applies a simplified version of Hughes's (1976) model when he challenges the overall content of the NPQH programme, an action which indirectly supports the continued relevance of Hughes's (1976) analysis.

A number of other job-analyses for headteachers exist (Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996). For example, in the USA, as from 1984, twelve skill dimensions¹³ have been defined and used to help select and guide the development of headteachers (Stego et al, 1987). Eraut's (1999) analysis

¹³ The skill dimensions are problem analysis; judgement; organizational ability; decisiveness; leadership; sensitivity; range of interests; personal motivation; educational values; stress tolerance; oral communication skill; and written communication skill.

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of such lists suggested that there is always both a sociopsychological dimension, generic to all organisations, and a technical dimension, specific to schools. He also pointed out that the headteacher's personal role in many of the activities listed may vary widely, from do it yourself to monitoring capable colleagues, depending on the expertise of the senior team.

Ribbins and Marland (1994), strongly support the work of Reynolds and Parker (1992), which points out that it would be very surprising if today's effective headteacher bore more than a passing resemblance to the effective headteachers of the past, including effective headteachers as described by school effectiveness research. Holmes et al (1989) suggest that although it is possible to describe what effective headteachers do, it is very difficult to separate their actions from other variables (such as intelligence, personality, the quality of teaching staff, the characteristics of pupils and the local environment) that affect school quality. Consequently, they question, when considering good schools, if the leader makes the good school or the good school makes the leader look good. Certainly, when the NCSL (2001) refer to headteachers with a proven track record of success, they cite those who have led Beacon Schools or Specialist or Advanced Specialist Schools. At no point do they make reference to headteachers who will have led and sustained schools in challenging circumstances.

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Hallinger and Heck (1999) and Leithwood and Steinbach (1993) conclude that the leadership of the headteacher can make a difference but in an indirect manner. Hallinger and Heck (1999) also emphasise that leadership itself is influenced by the context of the school and its environment. A significant conclusion of their research is that there is a wide variety of approaches adopted by headteachers, even in good schools.

The necessity of a quality senior team, whether it is the headteacher or the school as a whole that determines success, and the extent to which it is possible to identify stable traits of headteacher excellence, are tensions within the literature that form a constantly questioning intellectual context to this field of study. Ultimately what emerges from this research approach is a body of literature that attempts to identify and generalise the attributes of effective (or even highly effective) headteachers.

Wallace and Weindling (1999a) provide a backdrop for headteacher effectiveness when they direct attention to specific factors that they argue need to be considered in order to improve the effectiveness of school leadership and management:

1. the local and school context, including recent history, will be highly significant and therefore advocating universal quick fix solutions should be avoided;
2. managing change is a long, difficult and often unpredictable process and therefore sufficient time for changes should be allowed;
3. headteachers should address any ethical dilemmas in order to justify managerial action;

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4. the inequalities inherent in systems of local management should be acknowledged;
5. headteachers should focus simultaneously on improving management procedures and improving teaching of learning;
6. performance should be monitored through the information already required by the system and additional data when appropriate;
7. a greater diversity of appointments should be made in schools; and
8. external support should always be available.

(Wallace and Weindling, 1999a, page 212)

Fullan and Hargreaves (1995) offer twelve guidelines to make teachers' actions effective, which they argue need to be applied in individualised combinations. In addition, they propose a further eight guidelines for headteachers, described as a mindset rather than a mandate, from which headteachers should choose their own individual combinations that are most appropriate in their own unique circumstances. These are:

1. understand the culture;
2. value your teachers: promote their professional growth;
3. extend what you value;
4. express what you value;
5. promote collaboration, not competition;
6. make menus, not mandates;
7. use bureaucratic means to facilitate, not to constrain; and
8. connect with the wider environment.

(Fullan and Hargreaves, 1995, page 112)

Even though Southworth (1990) was working from a specifically primary perspective, he produces a similar list which suggests, yet again, a commonality in the knowledge, skills and attributes needed by headteachers, irrespective of the phase of education in which they work.

Green (2000) summarises Hay/Mcber's (1999) research into highly

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effective headteachers from all phases of education, which identifies what the best headteachers and deputy headteachers do:

- focus on data, quality of teaching and learning, refer to standards and targets to raise achievement;
- are outcome orientated and measure progress through results and monitoring;
- have huge amounts of energy and commitment to step change in performance and are relentless in their focus on raising standards;
- are driven by a core set of values which underpin their vision;
- share leadership, involve others, ask for help, and are outward-focused; and
- in particular, successful headteachers act quickly to tackle under-performance, take a strategic view aimed at transforming performance and create time and space to take risks.

(Green, 2000, page 116)

Hay/Mcber's (1999) also conclude that the very best new headteachers do as well as the best established headteachers, and the best deputy headteachers contribute significantly to the school's performance. Based on Hay/McBer's analysis of what highly effective headteachers (as identified by OFSTED and the TTA) did, said, thought and felt, the TTA (1998a) produced Models of Excellence for headteachers. The TTA claim that these models complement the National Standards by referring to how highly effective headteachers use their knowledge, understanding skills and attitudes. The plural is described as indicating that the mix of fifteen characteristics, grouped into five clusters, is unique to the individual, as he or she brings about, and sustains, improvement.

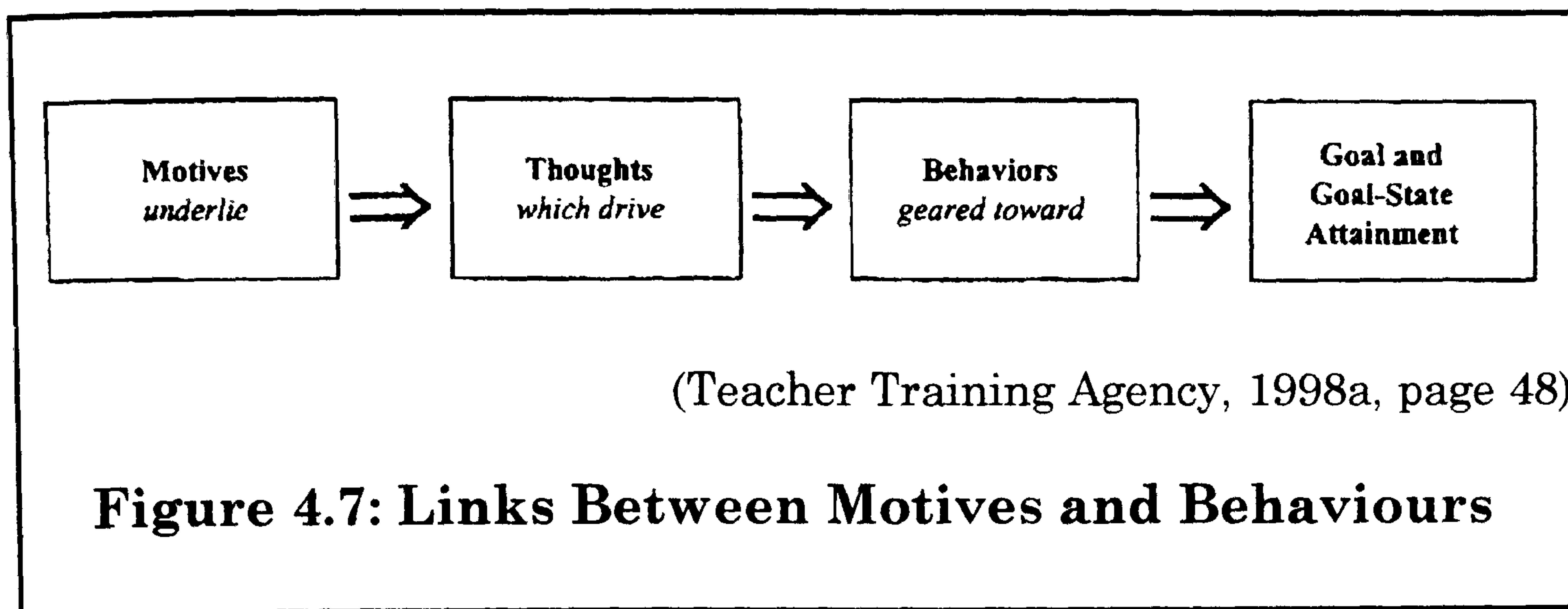
The prime function of these models is to act as benchmarks against which individual headteachers can compare their behaviour and performance in

order to set targets for improvement. The process is compared (TTA, 1998a) to the use of PANDA¹⁴ data, which is used to benchmark school performance and set targets for its improvement. Interestingly, an attempt is made in the PANDA document to compare like with like¹⁵, but no such attempt is made by the TTA with these models. Precisely what would constitute significant contextual characteristics, how those characteristics could be measured, and the extent to which the performance characteristics of headteachers working in so called similar circumstances is homogeneous, are questions that need further research.

The TTA (1998a; 1998c) define behaviour in this context as a function of some personal characteristics in interaction with some situational characteristics. They assert that motives, non-conscious but ongoing needs, wants or concerns that are characterised by strong desires to reach 'goal states' that have meaning and attraction, influence almost everything we do. They also assert (TTA, 1998a; 1998c) that motives, often concerned with achievement, affiliation or power, determine the areas in which we engage. We behave (decide or act) in ways that are consistent with our motives. This chain of determination can be illustrated diagrammatically as in Figure 4.7.

¹⁴ PANDA data refers to Performance AND Assessment data. It consists of statistical comparisons of schools' performances, based on assessments of pupils' performances, and forms background and contextual information against which schools set performance targets.

¹⁵ The attempt to compare like schools is addressed by creating the notion of 'similar schools'. Similar schools are schools deemed to possess statistical similarities across key variables, such as measures of pupils' prior performances and their socio-economic background as indicated by the percentage of pupils claiming free school meals.



In essence, the tasks identified in the Models of Excellence that headteachers undertake, and the contextual influences that they address, will be consistent with their motives and thoughts. Similarly, it is argued that headteachers' understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school will also be consistent with their motives and thoughts. Consequently, if headteachers are fully to rationalise their school improvement intentions, they will require a level of self-knowledge that can only be accessed through some form of psychoanalysis or a reflective-professional approach to their work. The alternative is for headteachers (and their senior teams) to describe their approach to school leadership and management as what Levačić et al (1999) described as a combination of cerebral and insightful activity.

4.5.2 The Holistic Nature of Headship

Reported personal accounts of the LPSH experience, which is overtly based on the National Standards and Models of Excellence, contain a number of positive reflections on the experience. For example, Besford

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(2000) states that the results of the questionnaires used to collect perceptions were fascinating. He also adds that on completion of the programme, thanks partially to the quality thinking time it gave him, he had drawn up a course of action for improving his, and his school's, performance. Similarly, Traies (2000) felt that the programme worked for her. She also found the time for reflection, and re-focusing five years into headship, very valuable. (She even proposed inventing a leadership programme for very long serving heads that could go under the name 'Foglamp'!)

However, there are a number of concerns regarding the diffuse nature of the National Standards for Headteachers and Models of Excellence. As Sale (1997) observes, the TTA's skills and competency approach assumes that these skills are known, and can be transmitted. Green (2000) argues that although there is much that is common among successful headteachers, there is also what he terms an 'X' factor, something unique to each and every individual headteacher.

Cave and Wilkinson (1992) emphasise the need for higher order capacities to do with judgments, intuition, and political acumen, which are not specifically addressed in the Standards. They also see personal qualities like integrity, stamina and commitment, as well as personal value systems, as fundamental, but claim that it is not clear how these are to be developed within the model, let alone demonstrated. Similarly

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acknowledging the particular nature of headship, Hughes (1990) suggests that headteachers are in a unique position for 'action-centred leadership' (Adair, 1988), which seeks to balance the needs of the task, the individual and the team, and therefore employ some of the higher order capacities discussed. Despite Cordingley's (1999) suggestion that the National Standards can be seen to offer an important context in which the connections between management and pedagogy can be understood, Cave and Wilkinson (1992) are concerned that the models are seeking to make school leadership as headteacher proof as possible.

Especially as so much work in schools is now done in teams, Davies and Ellison (1997) show concern that the emphasis in the Standards on individual competences and competencies can undervalue the efforts and potential of teams. Ribbins and Marland (1994, page 33) call for a new direction in the study of headship altogether (perhaps reflecting the American experience discussed in Section 4.5.3) which takes a more holistic approach, and reflects what real headteachers do in real schools. Eraut (1999) supports the call for a more holistic focus, and argues that headteachers' capacity to perform is affected by the total demands of the job (emotional as well as physical), and the expectations of others (governors, senior managers, teachers and parents).

Southworth (1999) draws attention to the need to be cautious about offering a view of effective leadership that is unattainable, and suggests

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that the greatest benefit of the Standards approach may be in encouraging headteachers to reflect on their own performance. Concern is expressed by Smith (2001) that the Standards can be too prescriptive, and that we may now be in an age where free thinkers are no longer welcome, an age where conformity is what is desired. Holmes and Wynne (1989) make a similar point when they argue that it is inappropriate to try and identify a single, universally desirable, 'type' of headteacher. As McMahon (1999) argues, the Standards need to be seen as offering more than a way of implementing national initiatives, if they are to be valued as a development tool.

Grace (2000a; 2000b) suggests that development based on the Standards contributes to the ideology of management that has begun to dominate the language and actions of many working in education. He also argues for an understanding of ethics, morality and spirituality to match this understanding of management to be built into national headteacher development programmes. Wallace and Weindling (1997) also concluded that managers face a vast range of ethical dilemmas, relating to educational, political and managerial values, and Everard and Morris (1996) argue that managers have a right and duty to resist demands that seriously upset the balance and health of an organisation.

The new Chief Inspector of Schools, David Bell, is reported (Canovan, 2002, page 6) as stating that he believes headteachers need warmth and

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personal involvement to get the best out of their schools, thus recognising the personal qualities as well as technical skills of headteachers. As Levačić et al (1999) observe, the 'skills and attributes' section of the Standards does attempt to address the human side of leadership. However, Eraut (1999) argues for the development of an ability to deliberate about issues and problems, to see how different people might be affected, and to consider the long term perspective. He describes a progression beyond competence that is associated with a gradual replacement of analysis by more intuitive forms of cognition.

What is clear from this debate is that the National Standards and Models of Excellence do not capture the holistic nature of headship to everyone's satisfaction. The whole is greater than the sum of the parts, in both rational and non-rational terms. It is the uniquely human aspects of the role, reasoning, making ethical judgments, considering intuition and emotions, and adopting multiple perspectives, that are overtly missing. How headteachers respond to these often non-rational demands, the meanings they derive from them, and the values they attribute to them, will influence their understanding of headship excellence, and therefore potentially of what needs to be done to improve a school.

4.5.3 Headteachers' Contributions to Successful Schools

The National Standards for Headteachers and Models of Excellence offer one perspective, the perspective promoted by the DfES, on the

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contributions headteachers make to successful schools. However, there are other ways of looking at headteachers' contributions. Tucker-Ladd et al (1992) consider the preferred perspective of the United States of America's National Centre for School Leadership, and identify the main objectives of America's National Centre as producing new knowledge (especially relating to teaching and learning) and designing programmes that focus on improving leadership and the psychological environment of the school.

Unlike the English system, the American approach to these objectives is to focus on the relationship between the leader, culture (or psychological environment) and climate of the organisation, rather than the personal characteristics or attitude of the leader. The terms 'climate' and 'culture', like the terms 'leadership' and 'management', are used inconsistently in the literature, and therefore their meaning is not always clear.

Wallace and Hall (1997, pages 27-9) define culture as shared or complementary symbols, beliefs and values expressed in interaction. They claim that meanings and norms can be subsumed within the notion of culture, and that myths and anecdotes also form part of a school's culture and can be used to interpret the present situation. For example, they refer to a culture of teamwork which encompasses beliefs and values relating to norms and rules of behaviour, such as reaching agreement by consensus and acknowledging dissenting views.

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Patterns of actions representing shared values, such as when the headteacher visits classrooms to show that he or she values what goes on there, are seen by Wallace and Hall (1997) as symbolic elements of culture. Interestingly, Hoyle (1986) observes that such actions combine a symbolic function with a necessary managerial function of monitoring teaching and learning. Rituals, such as regularised and habitual seating patterns that indicate authority, and ceremonies, used as a form of celebration, are also common elements of cultures. When fundamental meanings and norms are shared, a common culture is said to exist.

Wynne (1989, page 234) defines school climate as the gratification members of the community gain from being in the school, the industriousness they display while they are there, the efficiency with which they carry out their tasks and the predictability of the school environment. In some ways, school climate can be regarded as a personal reaction or response to the school's culture, especially given Wynne's (1989) proposal that a healthy climate can be facilitated through targeted actions. He suggests climate can be fostered by encouraging participation and forming small groups of those sympathetic to the school's goals; maintaining an administrative structure; balancing gratification and efficiency; heightening collective identity through aesthetic, ceremonial and intellectual appeals; and recognising that the pursuit of a good school climate requires judicious compromises and even a willingness to engage in confrontation. Despite the popularity of the word, which Wynne (1989)

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attributes to its metaphorical value, if the metaphor is followed through, there can be some quite disturbing implications regarding the stability and predictability of climate as a result of what can be quite subtle influences.

Tucker-Ladd et al (1992) argue that a headteacher can influence both the climate and culture of the school, and in so doing, affect classroom practice and therefore pupils' learning outcomes. The National Centre for School Leadership's selection of programme material and teaching methodologies for leadership training is determined by applying four postulates which illustrate the core beliefs held by the Centre regarding school leaders who are committed to change:

1. leaders for change are transformational in nature, engaging in relationships with followers that inspires them to accept and accomplish value-driven, higher-level goals beyond their own self-interest;
2. leaders for change use collaborative, inclusive structures in the decision-making processes;
3. leaders for change believe that school needs, and the answers to those needs, are defined by the school's context; and
4. leaders for change evaluate the effects of improvement efforts in terms of a variety of pupil outcomes.

(Tucker-Ladd et al, 1992, page 402)

The purpose of the leadership training programme is stated as assisting school leaders to translate theory into practice, specifically to help use current research on leadership, the teaching and learning process, and methods of evaluation as they plan, implement and assess their school improvement efforts. Expected outcomes are that administrators will embrace values-driven leadership, work collaboratively with their staff

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during planning cycles, and use research at least to some extent within a year of attending the programme.

The whole emphasis is on understanding the context and realities of the school, and communicating effectively with community members, to realise the school's mission. In short, the emphasis is on headteachers' understandings, and the sharing of those understandings. It is not on the skills or attributes of headteachers, as headteachers are expected to work collaboratively within their schools, which to some extent negates the need for the entire list of required skills to reside with one individual.

Tucker-Ladd et al (1992) accept that the variation in headteachers' performances was not explained by differences in their activities, but rather by differences in the meanings that they attributed to their activities. They define five dimensions of instructional leadership that can be used to organise meaningful activities around beliefs (as opposed to creating functions that need to be performed). They are defining mission, managing the curriculum, supervising teaching, monitoring progress; and promoting an instructional climate.

Providing meaning for the work of the various actors in a school is deemed to be the most significant role of the headteacher – arguably something that can best be done within the context of a shared understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school.

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The National Centre for School Leadership's evaluation of their leadership programme suggests that it is the compatibility between the headteacher's and teachers' conceptions that will determine effectiveness. Different expectations between headteachers and teachers cause ineffectiveness, as a result of a lack of shared beliefs, rather than a lack of capability or even an unwillingness to implement good practice.

The American experience offers an alternative interpretation of headteachers' contributions to successful schools, based mainly on the relationship between the school leader, the school climate and the school culture. This interpretation is significantly different to the English model that is predominantly concerned with the personal attributes of the leader. However, there could easily be other interpretations of headteachers' contributions to successful schools, within diverse cultures or close to home. How headteachers themselves see their (potential) contributions to making schools successful significantly influences their understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school.

4.6 Conclusion

Based on the leadership literature, it is argued that two distinct but related abstracted understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school can be defined. A leadership based understanding obviously focuses on leadership, and is particularly concerned with the processes of leadership, while an excellence based understanding is more concerned

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with the content of what constitutes an excellent headteacher. A key assumption in both understandings is that effective headteachers make successful schools.

Both understandings are generalised in nature, existing beyond the specific, as indicated by the term 'abstracted' within their full descriptions. They could also be considered as 'framework understandings', as they offer a framework with which to examine a ladder or pyramid of 'contributing understandings', that ultimately form part of the 'resultant understandings' at the centre of this research. While it is accepted that we as thinking beings can only be conscious of one understanding at any one time, it is worth emphasising that any individual could have the capability to understand a phenomenon in a number of different ways.

Chapter Five

Schools As Organisations

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5.3.3 Political Models

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5.4 Effectiveness in Schools

5.4.1 Definitions

5.4.2 Characteristics

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5.4.4 Subject Leadership

5.4.5 Quality Standards

5.5 Conclusion

5.1 Overview

This, the second of three literature chapters, explores the notion of organisations. Some possible structures, purposes and dilemmas inherent in organisations are considered, but most importantly, how an appreciation of organisations can contribute to headteachers' understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school is examined. The abstracted understanding discovered in the literature has two predominant dimensions, each of which is examined in detail.

First, a range of different models of education organisations, based on very different values, beliefs and perceptions, are critically analysed through filters formed by expanding and disaggregating the research question. These are the roles and responsibilities of headteachers; the prevailing environment within schools; the meanings of success or improvement; and the conceptions of schools. Combining models, and the adoption of multiple perspectives, are also considered.

Second, definitions and characteristics of effectiveness in schools are compared and contrasted. The implications for leaders of applying these analyses, at both whole school and subject levels, are then addressed. It is argued that interpreting a situation in terms of organisation theory, and what it means to be effective in a given context, facilitates the formulation of an improvement strategy that addresses the needs of a school.

5.2 An Organisation Based Understanding

An organisation based abstracted understanding is understanding what needs to be done to improve a school as focusing on the organisation. An interpretive approach is adopted, with the intention of formulating a specific improvement strategy that addresses the perceived needs of a particular school, through utilising a range of organisation theories, and employing various working definitions and characteristics of effectiveness.

Handy (1984) suggests that the way we look at organisations can help us understand some of the dilemmas of schools as organisations, although he acknowledges that this does not automatically guide our actions, even if it is an obvious first step. Gray (1979a) argues theories of organisations and the practice of management are very closely related, particularly as theories of management are often derived from theories of organisations.

Argyris and Schon (1971) offer six different ways of looking at an organisation: a political entity with a legitimate 'we'; an agency for collective action; a task system with simple tasks and roles; a theory of action to achieve objectives; a cognitive enterprise consisting of individual incomplete images; and a cognitive artefact made up of individual images and public maps. Their definitions can be interpreted as potentially describing the evolution of an organisation, or forming a hierarchy of organisational complexity. Reference is made in their work to the fact

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that there can be a significant difference between the espoused theory of action (as suggested by formal documentation) and the theory-in-use (as observed). Their analysis provides a toolbox of useful organisation-related concepts, and an objective scale against which different theories of schools as organisations can be compared.

An alternative perspective is provided by Sergiovanni (1997) who points out that not all people groupings can be characterised as organisations, for example families, communities and friendship groups. He argues that changing the metaphor, and for example, considering schools as communities rather than organisations, would effectively change the truth about schools, and therefore also how they should be organised and run. Sergiovanni (1997) also emphasises that metaphors create their own realities, that what is true is relative to its generative metaphor, and therefore that truth is subjective between conceptual frameworks.

There can be a tendency to think of structure in solely physical terms, particularly if organisations are seen as objective entities. As Gray (1979a, page 51) states, structure is a description of the relationships between people in the organisation, and an explanation of what those various relationships mean. He argues that structure is a dynamic and constantly changing quality, often described in terms of the jobs people do or their status within the organisation, and as such can affect leadership styles in a similar way to the individual personalities of leaders.

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Hoy and Miskel (1996) emphasise the importance of matching structure with goals, environment, technology, people and strategy, as there is no best way to structure an organisation. O'Neill (1994) contrasts structure, with its roles, relationships and lines of authority, with culture, incorporating organisational values and beliefs. This contrast draws attention to the inter-dependent relationship between structure and culture – while the structure of an organisation enables its culture, an organisation's culture seriously affects the operation of its structure.

Gray (1979a) distinguishes between organisations which serve purposes, and individuals who have objectives. A similar distinction can be made between organisations' missions and individuals' visions. In terms of detail, Caldwell et al (1988) suggest that schools break down their missions into goals which are still quite broad statements of overall direction and general intent. These goals, which Caldwell et al (1988) see as covering the areas of outcomes for pupils, improving pupils' experiences, the provision of resources and the management of the school, often have targets to focus them, and these act as success criteria within the planning cycle. Bolam et al (1993) suggest that individuals' visions also have common elements, can be consciously or subconsciously expressed, and are also often focused through aims, objectives and targets. The distinction between organisational and personal perspectives is evident throughout the literature, and is a theme that regularly emerges in this study of education organisations.

5.3 Theories of Education Organisations

Everard and Morris (1996, page 143) assert that there is no one 'right' model of so complex an entity as an organisation, and suggest that different models offer different approximations to the truth. Similarly, Ellström (1983) argues that organisational models refer to a set of assumptions about the nature of organisations, each emphasising one particular aspect, and resulting in, at best, a partial understanding of the organisation as a whole. Gray (1982) compares education management with a prism in which the rays diverge rather than converge into political and economic, administrative and sociological, institutional and organisational, and curriculum and content viewpoints. In summary, education management is characterised by 'conceptual pluralism' (Bush, 1999).

Theories of education, unlike scientific theories, represent different ways of seeing a problem, rather than a scientific consensus on what is true (Bush, 1995). Cuthbert (1984) points out that many such theories, or models, have been borrowed from a wide-range of disciplines, and in a few cases, developed specifically to explain the unique features of education institutions. Conversely West-Burnham (1994a) celebrates the contributions of commercial practice to theories of education. He points to the influences of motivation theory (Herzberg, 1968), leadership (Adair, 1973), teams (Belbin, 1981), management learning (Kolb, 1983), total

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quality (Deming, 1986), inter-personal relationships (Beare et al, 1989) and target setting (Drucker, 1992).

Many frameworks have influenced thinking in the field of education management, particularly those of Ellstrom (1983), Cuthbert (1984), Bolman and Deal (1984), Sergiovanni (1984a; 1984b), Velzen et al (1985), and Stego et al (1987). However, more recently, the work of Bush (1995) has provided a framework for the theories of education management that is both detailed and relatively comprehensive. Consequently, Bush's (1995) framework is used here to structure the exposition of theories or models of education organisations, followed by reference to an additional emerging theory, and a discussion of combined models.

Bush (1995) categorises theories of education management as formal; collegial; political; subjective; ambiguity; and cultural. For the purpose of analysing the models, the research question 'How do headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school' is expanded and disaggregated into a number of key aspects:

- *The roles and responsibilities of headteachers* in relation to the school improvement process. (This corresponds to the implications for the headteacher perspective of the 'what needs to be done' element of the research question.)
- *The prevailing environment within schools*, specifically those conditions which form a background to the school improvement

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process which are beyond the direct personal control of headteachers. (This corresponds to the allowing or even enabling perspective of the 'what needs to be done' element of the research question.)

- *The meanings of success or improvement*, or what conditions need to be met, according to a given paradigm, for the school to be described as successful or improved. (This corresponds to the 'to improve' element of the research question.)
- *The conceptions of schools*, or simply what is a school according to a given paradigm. (This corresponds to the 'school' element of the primary research question.)

Once each model has been introduced, available literature is critically analysed using these four aspects in order to identify how the model might contribute to the research question.

5.3.1 Formal Models

As Packwood (1977) observes, the potential richness of hierarchical structures inherent in formal models is rarely recognised. The term 'formal models' includes bureaucratic models (the most generic of the formal models); systems models (which focus on the interaction of such as departments); structural models (that assume organisations are structures driven within relatively closed systems); rational or analytical models (within which logical processes are highly desirable); and hierarchical models (where vertical accountability through the

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achievement of multiple objectives is paramount) (Bush, 1995). More recently, Levacic et al (1999) refer to an official model within their writings, that constitutes a formal model of a combined rational-technicist nature.

The Roles and Responsibilities of Headteachers

Within the concepts of formal models, leaders are seen as the font of all knowledge, and operate through the formal authority of their position. Power is shared with senior teams, and the general consent of staff sought, for purely practical reasons. Leaders control their staff by setting goals and holding people to account for their achievement.

Headteachers must provide stability for education, while accommodating change (Packwood 1989). They must set the school's primary objectives and policies, determine which innovations are to be undertaken, set the tone and closely represent their schools in the wider community. Referring particularly to an official model, Levacic et al (1999) suggest that headteachers must manage schools rationally in line with agreed educational principles, as organisations, with a tight coupling between inputs, processes, and outputs, and underpinned by shared values.

The Prevailing Environment Within Schools

In formal models, goal seeking is seen as the guiding force of a school, especially when those goals are seen as 'official', even though, as Hughes

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and Bush (1991) point out, it is often difficult to determine precise goals in schools. Staff are seen as owning endorsed initiatives, implementing them unproblematically, without goal conflict. Informal human contacts and subjective conceptions of organisations are perceived as unnecessary distractions from rational decision-making and the defining of roles.

Decision-making is generally portrayed in the literature as a solely rational process within formal and official models. However, Hoyle (1982) refers to alternative rationalities and even non-rational approaches, and more recently Bennett (1997) also questions the purely rational approach to decision-making in schools, and points to a non-rational approach in which individuals are motivated by affective factors. OFSTED (1995), for example, arguably the voice of officialdom, presents an official view of how cerebral and insightful approaches to school management and decision-making should be combined.

The Meanings of Success or Improvement

Sergiovanni (1997) expresses the belief that schools must appear fully rational if they are to be regarded as legitimate by all interest groups, and therefore the appearance of rationality can be taken as an indicator of success. Setting the right goals, creating the right structures, and holding people to account are key success indicators within formal models. Conversely, goal conflict, horizontal interaction and excessive change can make organisations unstable, and should be avoided.

The Conceptions of Schools

Formal models see organisations as stable environments, having little discrepancy between their formal structure and what actually happens within them. Schools are regarded as highly structured hierarchical systems, working from the top down through an official leader. Within the framework of formal models, Hughes (1990) questions the assumption that schools are such stable and predictable organisations. By referring to 'structural relativism', he calls for flexibility within structures, and points out that the more uncertain the environment, the greater the need for adaptability.

When formal models are used to interpret reality, they emphasise hierarchical structures and systems, rather than people, as constituents of schools; however, structures can be seen as a means of arbitrating conflict between individuals (Lungu, 1985). Bolam (1991) warns against the risk of transforming teachers into bureaucratic functionaries within formal models, and Hoy and Miskel (1996) draw attention to the potential incompatibility between formal models and professionalisation.

5.3.2 Collegial Models

The main features of collegial models are a preference for authority of expertise or professional authority over positional authority; an assumption of common values which lead to shared objectives; and decision-making by consensus (Hughes and Bush, 1991). While process is

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clearly important within collegial models, as it is up to all participants to make the approach effective, in practice they tend to range from pure collegiality to some form of restricted collegiality. Interestingly, even when they were looking specifically for collegial models, Blase and Anderson (1995) were unable to find a significant degree of democratic professional interaction in schools, or even much evidence of collective action.

Noble and Pym (1970) suggest that the law and the expectations of external stakeholders tend to preclude the existence of a true collegium. They even argue that when a collegium exists in part, there is a real danger of the Kafkaesque experience, the argument that the decision is taken elsewhere whenever the organisation is being held to account, and of even everyday decisions becoming slow and cumbersome.

The Roles and Responsibilities of Headteachers

Bolam et al (1993, page 43) conclude that the traditional headteacher stereotype is often, in effect, the standard by which teachers measure their own headteacher, either consciously or unconsciously, even though such an autocratic image is no longer viable. They proceed to present a more modern image of an effective headteacher, as someone who works with colleagues to provide a clear sense of direction, delegates management duties but retains ultimate responsibility. Firestone and Wilson (1987) emphasise the importance of the style in which a

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headteacher becomes involved in the work of colleagues. Specifically, they strongly recommend a collegial and supportive approach to all aspects of school management.

Based on a case study, Hayes (1997, page 17) suggests that headteachers who aspire to a collegial approach should engage in a number of actions. These include encouraging a mutually supportive team before introducing a formal structure; keeping staff well informed; avoiding 'playing games' (or what Ball (1987, page 120) calls 'pseudo-participation' and Hargreaves (1994) 'contrived collegiality'); and allowing time for development that encourages and demonstrates the value of involvement. School leaders within a collegial context need to acknowledge experts and capitalise on their authority of expertise; ensure real representation; and create opportunities for discussion.

Davies's (1983) research confirmed that teachers wanted greater participation and responsibility. However, while staff may feel more comfortable and valued in a democracy, Trafford (1997) suggests that headteachers will almost certainly be required regularly to reassure teachers about their changing roles and relationships at a time when headteachers themselves feel threatened from all directions. Traditional heroic models of school leadership are clearly inappropriate in the context of collegial models, perhaps being replaced with the notion of the headteacher being the first among equals.

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The Prevailing Environment Within Schools

In 1990, the SMTF found it necessary to write to all teachers and governors stating that successful school management depends upon the collective effort of staff and governors, and not just on headteachers. Fullan and Hargreaves (1995) concur with this view when they argue that it is too much to expect headteachers and their deputies to transform the culture of the school on their own. Clearly, all staff have a responsibility to make collegiums work.

An obvious danger of collegial models is that staff can have the means to 'bring down' an organisation. To avoid this, a form of 'interactive professionalism' (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1995) tends to evolve, which helps all concerned cope with highly sophisticated collaborative cultures. Decision-making may be egalitarian within collegial models, but the need for delegation to take account of individuals' capabilities remains.

The Meanings of Success or Improvement

As process is central to collegial models, adopting and following the right processes is one indicator of success. Consequently, staff believing that the benefits of participation outweigh the time investment, and effective committees that exemplify creative synergy rather than consensus based on compromise, suggest an improvement over more traditional ways of working. It is the moral authority that collegial decisions often bring with them that typifies the process-based successes of collegial models.

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Caldwell et al (1988) draw attention to the importance of clearly identifying where policy and implementation groups can contribute to school improvement, of stipulating the purpose behind policy, and of integrating planning into the normal pattern of school life. Reflecting on his five to six years as a headteacher, Trafford (1997) concludes that a democratic approach does in fact bring with it school improvement. As evidence, he cites both hard and soft indicators in terms of a value added analysis of examination results and people's impressions, both within the school and those who regularly visit it.

The Conceptions of Schools

Professional authority, decision-making based on individual cases rather than norms, is central to school-based activities. Teachers have autonomy within their classrooms, and therefore their collaboration is essential if any degree of consistency is going to be achieved across the school. Headteachers must balance participation, the internal dimension of democracy, with accountability, democracy's external dimension.

The potential conflict between collegial principles and everyday practice is addressed by Hughes and Bush (1991). They suggest that there is often confusion amongst collegial theorists regarding how things are, and how things ought to be. Professionals in schools tend to share decisions, especially when the concept of transformational leadership, which can be seen as integral to collegial models, is invoked. Bell and Halpin (1997) go

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so far as to describe moving towards collaborative management, with its emphasis on consultation, teams and shared decision-making and responsibility, as a necessary step for schools, if they are to survive current and impending changes in society.

5.3.3 Political Models

Political models, or micropolitics, focus on groups. Bush (1995) suggests that political models tend to under-estimate the effect of day-to-day procedures, formal structures, and the implementation of official policies, but also that they provide an effective way to analyse the role of power (the ability to determine the behaviour of others or to resolve conflict) within schools. Political models examine how interest groups are created, the distribution of power and influence within and between interest groups, and how and why alliances are formed and dissolved. Although Holmes et al (1989) make reference to the zero-sum nature of power, clearly this does not negate the need to take its effects into account when managing a school.

Baldrige (1989) suggests that the theoretical background to political models consists of a combination of conflict theory, community power theory and interest groups theory. Alternatively, Loader (1997), referring to the work of Zohar and Marshall (1994), equates our inherited adversarial model of democracy with Newtonian physics in terms of our lack of consensus about meanings, values, customs and symbols within

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organisations. The analogy equates colliding atoms with individuals behaving in ways that they feel best serve their own self-interest, thus making confrontation the norm. Loader (1997) describes a new quantum community, analogous to a combination of quantum physics and complexity (chaos) theory, that acknowledges a shared reality that must be experienced as an integrated whole. He sees a need for a new wholeness (or gestalt) to replace a focus on separate elements which aligns with his psychoanalytical perspective on education management. With its emphasis on individual and group psychology, and particularly the instrumental and symbolic aspects of decision-making, Marland (1982) goes further and argues that political theory addresses the discrepancy between the declared rationality, and the reality, of schools.

The Roles and Responsibilities of Headteachers

Headteachers adopt a range of micropolitical strategies including controlling information or meetings, dividing and ruling and full cooperation, but as Evetts (1994) points out, headteachers are only one of many participants. According to Bush (1995), headteachers may adopt the approach of becoming a key participant in negotiations, or alternatively, they may avoid such direct involvement and concentrate on creating a framework to develop policy instead.

Ball (1987, page 87) identifies four style types in the performance of headteachers. He defines the three main styles as inter-personal (relying

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on personal contact and relationships), managerial (concerned more with formal procedures including committees) and political. He subdivides the political style type into adversarial (using confrontation to maintain control) and authoritarian (which favours dictat). Ball (1987) argues that while individuals have a tendency to one style, they are not limited to it. Holmes et al's (1989, page 56) typography of headteachers is based directly on their use of power. Their typography consists of three styles: authority and indolence; incentive systems; and decision-making. Holmes et al (1989) state that the typography's main value is in helping colleagues to recognise the implications of working in a given way. Addressing the inescapable moral implications of political models, Hughes (1990) concludes that effective leadership needs a delicate combination of political skill and integrity.

The Prevailing Environment Within Schools

Hoy and Miskel (1996) provide a useful analysis of power when they describe legitimate power as being either formal or informal, and illegitimate power as being coercive and political. They see power and politics as unavoidable realities of organisational life, and observe that they can be cruel and destructive or considerate and constructed. Political models reflect the reality that power exists, and is exerted in schools, and that power can be used to benefit individuals at the expense of the organisation, or to benefit the organisation as a whole.

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The Meanings of Success or Improvement

Hoyle (1982, page 97) contemplated the likelihood of an improved knowledge of micropolitics improving performance in schools. He distinguished between theory-for-understanding and theory-for-improving before concluding that even if headteachers could be taught micropolitical skills, this would raise serious moral issues. Similarly, Holmes et al's (1989) analysis provides a picture of the choices available to those who work in school, and suggests some of the likely consequences of acting on those particular choices.

If a school is to be successful, the power that naturally accrues to the dominant groups or coalitions must be balanced by the power of the official leaders. This enables decision-making to be seen as bargaining, as well as reflecting the power of the different groups. Essentially, political models describe a structure in which headteachers balance control and autonomy, while also providing professional leadership for their staff (Hoyle, 1986, page 170).

Headteachers require the co-operation of staff to manage their schools. However, ironically, as Marland (1982) points out, because of the symbolic meaning some teachers attribute to headteachers' actions, headteachers must consider how internal politics contribute to teachers' emotional needs to feel that they are working in line with their own educational and managerial philosophies. While acknowledging the

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powerful micropolitical forces that such as political parties, professional groups and unions bring to bear on schools, Marland (1982, page 124) argues that it is the pressure of individuals' fear, pride and sensitivities that represents the most potent pressure at work in schools. Consequently, he stresses that for schools to be successful, there is a need simultaneously to work on both the psychological and structural planes.

The Conceptions of Schools

Within political models, organisations are described as political arenas, whose inhabitants are constantly fighting over power and resources. They are poorly co-ordinated with ambiguous and unstable goals, making them ideologically diverse (Bush, 1995). While interests can act as motivators, and the conflict of ideas can be a positive factor in change, it is the prevalence of destructive rather than constructive conflict that tends to be stressed.

Mintzberg (1983) identifies five political games common in organisations: games to resist authority; games to overcome that resistance; games to increase power bases; games to overpower opponents; and games to change the organisation. Inbar (1996, page 12) offers an alternative approach which proposes that there are four basic inner games of management, or ways individuals deal with the psychological aspects of management. Specifically, he suggests that management can be seen as an inner game of power, hesitation, perfection or victory. He then

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proceeds to describe how various activities, such as appointing staff, delegating responsibility, budgeting, timetabling, establishing committees and evaluating the organisation can be employed during the playing of these games. According to Inbar's (1996) analysis, the concept of a school within a micropolitical framework consists of a situation where the organisation's main activities are intentionally employed, and interpreted from, the point of view of gaining control and accumulating power.

5.3.4 Subjective Models

Subjective perspectives on educational management can be regarded as anti-theories (Hughes and Bush, 1991) as they emerged as a reaction to the perceived weaknesses of bureaucratic models. What became known as the Greenfield-Griffiths debate (Kendell and Byrne, 1977/8) provides a set of arguments and counter arguments concerning the value of traditional scientific method. Where there is agreement is on the judgement that traditional organisation theory is failing to deliver useful concepts and hypotheses to school leaders, arguably because of an organisational as opposed to an individual focus.

As the debate progressed, Greenfield (1977/8) stated that it was his awareness of the ideas, and not the ideas themselves, that was new, and that his increased awareness surfaced as he became more uncomfortable with a well ordered, simple systems theory, view of the world. Harrison

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et al (1976, page 3) described the basic issue as being a division between those who look at organisations as objective realities, and those who believe that organisations are technologies designed by people for human and social purposes.

In a similar vein, Gray (1982) observes that subjective models provide a way of looking at an organisation that acknowledges and respects the uniqueness of individual perceptions. As each person will have a different experience of the same organisation, an organisation can only be understood, and indeed exist, through the experiences of its members (as understandings are based on interpretations of experience). Gray (1982) uses 12 propositions to relate subjective theory to practical contexts¹, and concludes that organisations are created by their members, and have as a function the creation of opportunities for individuals to grow and be happy. If this assertion is accepted, how people feel (and think) about the organisations they are part of, which in turn is dependent on their relationships with others, their perceptions of others, and ultimately their perceptions of themselves, is a key issue.

¹ 1. Order will always form and reform but in a different way. 2. Structure is a description of the behaviour of people. 3. Organisations serve purposes, they do not have objectives. 4. The critical dimension in human organisations is human behaviour, and not technology. 5. Individuals always behave in terms of what they believe to be in their best interests. 6. Organisational experience is always subjective. 7. Organisations are personal constructs, artefacts or fantasies, existing only in the imagination of individuals. 8. Organisational change occurs only as a consequence of changes in an individual's self-concept. 9. Organisations function as expressions of collective value systems, and are inherently in a state of conflict. 10. Activity is generated in terms of psychological exchanges between members. 11. Organisations distribute roles and status without respect for individuals' abilities. 12. Managers can only react to events, they cannot anticipate them.

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The Roles and Responsibilities of Headteachers

There are few guidelines within subjective models for management action, as school management is seen as headteachers matching their own preferences to the preferences of others. Leadership is defined in terms of personal qualities, rather than the official authority of the headteacher, although the notion of professionalism could be used as a covert method of control (Bush, 1995). Consequently, subjective models focus on the answerability of individuals, rather than the accountability of the institution, as those in authority do not necessarily influence practice. The best advice (Gray, 1979a, page 76) is to engage in dialogue to discover how people are different, what their needs are, and where each person wishes to go, especially as organisational change can depend on an understanding of individuals' wishes and beliefs.

Loader's (1997) very personal self-reflections compares examining behaviour with looking at a glass, and considering the inner life of individuals with looking through the glass. In line with subjective theory, Loader (1997) refers to Leithwood et al's (1992) work, and highlights the importance of understanding headteachers' own mental processes, knowledge structures and non-rational beliefs, attitudes and values. He refers to the world as having a spiritual foundation, with the need to be true to oneself, as opposed to an exclusively objective or scientific foundation.

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The Prevailing Environment Within Schools

Subjective models acknowledge the existence of competing organisational realities, each based on values and experiences and possessing its own legitimacy. Dale (1972) argues that schools more than other organisations are consciously constructed as different and temporary worlds by the various actors within them. He also suggests that pupils may use their experiences of family groups as a meaning system to help them construct a reality for a school, while teachers make greater use of their value systems. In theory, there are as many realities as individuals, but Dale (1972) proposes that, in practice, realities tend to cluster around common features. However, as opposing values are inherent within different realities, conflict is endemic to organisations, and therefore reconciling human understandings must play a crucial role in solving organisational problems.

Hoy and Miskel (1996) observe that it is individuals and not organisations that have goals, goals relating to self-esteem, career advancement and job satisfaction, and that these goals may not be specific, more a set of beliefs about what it is right to do within organisations. They also state that these beliefs extend as far as interpretations of formal roles within the organisation. Within subjective models, structures are ways of describing what people do, not objective facts (Gray, 1979b, page 123).

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The Meanings of Success or Improvement

Greenfield (1989) argues that most theories of organisations, and many strategies for changing or improving them, grossly oversimplify the situation. They often assume that people and organisations are separate, whereas in fact they are inextricably intertwined. Organisations contain diverse personal meanings, and beliefs about how people should interact with one another in order to achieve their goals. Consequently, altering or improving organisations is dependent on altering the ideas of the people within them.

Within subjective models, as Bottery (1993) points out, success requires an appreciation of the individuality of judgements and of the subjectivity of values. Success also requires abandoning the search for a single, best image of organisations, as such a limited view of reality could limit thinking (Greenfield and Ribbins, 1993).

The Conceptions of Schools

Greenfield and Ribbins (1993) reject the dualism which conventionally separates people and organisations, and instead promote attention on human actions and intentions, as it is those that form organisations. They argue that organisations do not exist independently of people, but are invented out of social reality, and that individuals construe the world in very different ways, and use sets of meanings, or theories, to make sense of their world and what happens within it. However this does not

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mean that the generalisations presented through organisational theory are invalid, a point acknowledged by Hoyle (1976, page 4); rather that we must learn to live with contending and even inconsistent generalisations about social reality.

Dale (1972) argues that while a phenomenological approach is not sufficient in itself, as it focuses on the 'how' and not the 'why' of the social world, it is necessary for a substantial understanding. It is concerned with things as they appear to us, our subjective understandings and interpretations of the world as it is directly experienced by us, and not as mediated through some other framework. He sees the purpose of a phenomenological perspective as developing an understanding of, and describing, the subjective meanings attributed to people's actions. Gray (1979a, page 5) even points out that although individuals use similar language to describe an organisation, this does not change the fact that it will be perceived in different and personal ways. Within subjective models, individuals are seen as interpreters and constructors of the world, not passive acceptors of some objective reality.

5.3.5 Ambiguity Models

Ambiguity models refer to the existence of uncertainty and unpredictability within organisations, and are based primarily on data from educational settings. Cohen and March (1989) point out that while no real organisation can be accurately characterised in terms of

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ambiguity all of the time, many can at some point in their existence, or in relation to some of their functions. According to Bush (1995), ambiguity models embody three essentially different concepts or metaphors: organised anarchies; garbage cans; and loosely coupled systems.

Turner (1977) and Cohen and March (1975) identify three characteristics that distinguish anarchic organisations from more predictable ones. These are problematic preferences (as a consequence of a lack of clarity about goals), fluid participation, and unclear technology (as a consequence of the fact that learning is only partially understood). However, as Wallace (1991) observed, even schools that can be described in this way can flourish, which is to say that they at least survive.

The garbage can metaphor breaks the assumption that organisations necessarily adopt a rational approach, or sequence of events, to solve a problem, in fact it suggests that organisations can be characterised by a lack of intentionality. Problem solving and choice are viewed as a garbage can into which various issues, problems and solutions are dumped by participants prior to an outcome emerging.

Outside the organisation development (OD) movement, few attempts have been made to apply a social system model to the study of schools. Hoy and Miskel (1996) see the loose-coupling perspective, a body of theory that describes organisations as elements or subsystems that are only tied

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together loosely, as a helpful challenge to the traditional bureaucratic approach to understanding schools. Gray (1982) suggests that loosely-coupled systems, or open systems theory, represents a 'less naïve' interpretation of systems theory, and Hoyle (1986) concludes that loosely-coupled systems enable professional freedom by in effect providing a balance between control and autonomy.

The Roles and Responsibilities of Headteachers

In practice, schools operate between extremes across the dimensions of stability and rate of change. Where stability is low, and the rate of change high, the usual management techniques are limited in their effectiveness. Enderud (1980), commenting from a university perspective, suggests that organised anarchies in particular have less leadership than they should have, especially in times of rapid change. In such an environment, where decisions typically relate to the short-term, and therefore real accountability for subordinates is unrealistic, it is the development of autonomous staff that makes any progress possible.

When ambiguity models describe a school, there is very little useful guidance for headteachers. Facilitators rather than heroic leaders are needed, facilitators who often need to channel activities in subtle ways, ways that Enderud (1980) refers to as 'Machiavellian'. In such circumstances, headteachers either devote their time to decision-making, and persistently encourage the participation of others, or forsake direct

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involvement, and concentrate on developing structures and individuals instead.

The Prevailing Environment Within Schools

Within ambiguity models, purposes are generated from an interplay of individuals' interests, or prioritisations of the organisation's goals. The resulting purposes tend to be vague, and therefore neither provide adequate meanings for individual actions or useful guides to human behaviour. Committee membership often provides as much an opportunity to discover goals as to promote them, which is highly significant, as rapidly changing organisations are as dependent on the developing capabilities and understandings of their staff as on their current competence (Eraut, 1999).

The situation is just as problematic for teachers inside the classroom. Teachers use techniques which may or may not result in learning, but there is never a guarantee. Although their participation may be consistent, the involvement of advisers, parents, and governors is not. Consequently, only the existence of formal structures enables the organisation to function, and some decisions to be planned.

The Meanings of Success or Improvement

Wallace (1991, page 185) suggests that one of the primary management tools of school improvement, strategic planning, is operating under a false

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assumption. He argues that the premise of schools working in a stable environment is erroneous, as they are neither wholly chaotic nor entirely stable. Despite Lambert's (1977) challenge to the assumption that organisations necessarily work best when they are characterised by high levels of predictability, stability and consistency, headteachers still need to ensure structures and procedures are in place that facilitate planning.

Wallace (1991) adds detail when he analyses decision-making, a process central to strategic planning. He categorises decision-making as a rational activity consisting of incremental steps, and as a 'garbage can', before concluding that 'disjointed incrementalism' or 'evolutionary planning' (Louis and Miles, 1992) most accurately describes the reality of schools. This latter perspective rejects the assumption that there is a clear path from values or goals to actions, and that the optimum solution is always achieved. Instead, a dialectical model is described, which involves making successive limited comparisons between a limited number of alternatives, and the careful nesting of short, medium and long term planning. The decisive indication of success for headteachers is the realisation of the organisation's purposes and goals within an unstable and rapidly changing environment.

The Conceptions of Schools

Within ambiguity models, intentions and actions, processes and outcomes, administrators and teachers, teachers and teachers, and even

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teachers and pupils, form only loose connections with one another. Unpredictability is inherent in schools as educational technologies are far from totally understood. Organisational structures are deemed problematic as individual manager's responsibilities overlap with those of committees and the external context can influence the internal decision-making process. In short, through the ambiguity perspective, causal connections describe uncommon and even exceptional events in schools.

Bush (1995) suggests that ambiguity models exaggerate the degree of uncertainty present in most schools. In particular, he argues that they do not take full account of the structures and regularised processes familiar to teachers and education managers. He argues that in practice, schools operate with a mix of rational and anarchic processes, and therefore ambiguity models are only appropriate for describing schools, or parts of schools, when they are unstable or passing through a period of instability.

5.3.6 Cultural Models

Looking at schools as organisations through their cultures, and the meanings and norms that are subsumed within their cultures, is a relatively new endeavour (Bush, 1995). Typically, school cultures contain patterns of action representing shared values, some particularly symbolic elements that have specific meanings for members of the school community, and myths and anecdotes that can be used to interpret situations from a local viewpoint. The centrality of the notion of culture

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to headteachers' responsibilities indicates that thinking of a school in terms of its culture, and therefore its climate and ethos, will provide informative and useful ways of understanding them.

The Roles and Responsibilities of Headteachers

Within cultural models, official goals are of limited value for guiding headteachers' decisions or actions. When applying a cultural perspective to their schools, headteachers must focus on the human aspects of management, especially if they wish to predict what people will do, or interpret the meanings people give to their actions. Both formal and informal aspects of the organisation must receive attention, as these are inextricably intertwined within individuals' meanings systems, and are therefore equally likely to determine actions.

It can be argued (Schein, 1989) that all our perceptions, thoughts and feelings are largely culturally determined, and therefore that leaders should examine their own mental models and assumptions before taking action. Leaders need to appreciate that we live in a complex world in which effects often have multiple causes, and that emotional strength is required to help themselves and others cope with constant change. Schein (1989) also states that leaders must keep information flowing freely within their institutions, encourage the participation of (and reward) those individuals who hold supportive assumptions, and most importantly, they must be perpetual learners.

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The Prevailing Environment Within Schools

If schools are to foster a genuine learning culture, there are several fundamental assumptions that they must accept (Schein, 1989). These include the belief that the world can be managed, that both individualism and groupism are valid, and that autocratic and participative approaches are both acceptable if they are based on trust. Members of the school community must be accepting and tolerant of the ways of others, and enterprising and flexible in their own approaches to their work.

Harris (1992) argues that ritual forms a large part of education culture, and that without ritual, true educational excellence cannot be achieved. He proposes a three step methodology for the use of ritual in education: establishing a climate for ritual in schools (by such as celebrating a sporting success); analysing existing rituals to determine the values and messages they represent; and creating new rituals that embody appropriate messages relating to the structure and antistructure of the organisation. The rationale here is that by carefully addressing the emotional and ethical dimensions of rituals, and carefully managing any conflicting values that they contain, rituals can become a powerful and effective force for improvement.

The Meanings of Success or Improvement

As shared meanings, understandings and sense-making describe culture, clearly at least these conditions need to be met for success to be sustained

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within cultural models. Schein (1989, page 373) suggests that if a culture becomes self sustaining, and the internal environment is comfortable, there is hope for success. However, such an approach can underestimate the disruption that competing cultures can cause for members of an organisation, and this approach can also disregard the potential effects of non-cultural aspects of the organisation.

Pheysey (1993, page 46) makes a compelling connection between culture and organisational design, or what she terms an ongoing process of redesign, when she argues that organisations are designed whilst they operate. This more dynamic perspective implies that effective organisation design is needed for success, design that avoids innovation without change or improvement, design that acknowledges that developments and improvements must be preceded by changes in the attitudes of teachers and others.

The Conceptions of Schools

Handy (1984) published his attempt to provide what he termed new conceptual pictures of schools as organisations. As in earlier drafts (1979, 1978), Handy acknowledged that schools were different from other organisations, but maintained that they were also similar to them in fundamental ways. In particular, Handy (1984, page 12) stressed that all organisations seek predictability and even certainty, as in such circumstances, the need for decisions is reduced.

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Handy (1984) developed a typography of schools as organisations, or cultural types, made up of four elements: the club culture; the role culture; the task culture; and the person culture. In the club culture, the headteacher is a leader (as opposed to manager) at the centre of a web of influence, and is surrounded by like-minded people. This cultural type is rich in personalities and folklore, and can work well in organisations of up to 20 people, even though it is very dependent on the headteacher. In the role culture, headteachers manage role occupants (as opposed to individuals or their conceptions) through procedures, rules, standards and evaluation procedures that are designed to deliver efficiency and fairness. Consequently, effectiveness requires the right analysis of the situation and a structural design to address it, and change the adjustment of priorities and staff training.

In a task culture, a team and resources are applied to a task. Although not time efficient for routine tasks, and can make individuals feel insecure, a questioning, exciting and challenging environment is generated (which is ideal for problem-solving situations and tasks beyond the capabilities of an individual working with subordinates). As a task culture does not correspond to any particular specification or standard, it easily evolves to respond to change, and does so less individualistically than a club culture and more speedily than a role culture. The person culture sees the organisation as a resource for developing individual talent and professional expertise. Consequently, there are limited control

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mechanisms as people are encouraged, persuaded, even bargained with, but not managed. The analogy is of stars, loosely grouped to form a constellation, but as it becomes apparent that one person is not able to succeed at the task, a task culture is considered in the name of effectiveness. These broad descriptions of cultural types clearly support Handy's (1984) own assertion that someone who is at home in one culture can be incapacitated in another.

The typography of four cultures includes one that is led, one that is managed, one that is facilitated and one as context for the development of individuals. In some ways, Handy (1984) offers an analysis within an analysis of organisations, and sets the standard of analysis by which other analyses are judged. Pheysey (1993, page 46) makes direct associations between Handy's (1984) cultural types and particular design models. She associates an entrepreneurial cluster or clan with a support or person culture; a traditional adhocracy, pyramid or web with a power or club culture; a decentralised collegiate or matrix with an achievement or task culture; a classic bureaucracy or hierarchy with a role culture; and a hybrid or multi-divisional forms with a mixed culture. Pheysey (1993) formalises the inexorable relationship between school cultures and their structures, and her correspondences illustrate that schools can be perceived as one or any combination of cultural-structural types.

5.3.7 Towards Institutional Transformation Models

Davies and West-Burnham (1992, page 134) argue that for new levels of success in schools, we need new models of organisations. They specifically call for models that devolve responsibility and accountability closer to the learning process. Although there are currently few contenders, James (1999) argues that if education management theory does not take account of an institutional transformation perspective, a perspective that encompasses non-rational and emotional dimensions, it will be inadequate in terms of accurately reflecting the reality of schools. Institutional transformation theory integrates psychodynamic theory, with its focus on individuals, and social systems theory, which links open systems theory, leadership and micropolitics. The integration of the two overarching perspectives may only partially focus on the learning process, but James (1999) argues it can be very powerful in helping to understand rapid change in organisations.

The Roles and Responsibilities of Headteachers

James (1999) refers to a basic assumption dependency mentality, which is where the group has lost sight of its primary task and exists purely to satisfy the needs of its members. He argues that these basic assumption tendencies can exist in varying degrees, and are strongly influenced by anxiety. He further suggests that headteachers should identify the predominant anxieties and tendencies, and exploit them in ways that move the school forward, but crucially, without becoming embroiled in

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long-term collusion. In adopting this strategy, headteachers need to dismantle inappropriate social defences associated with the otherwise private tasks of teaching, encourage work on the school's primary tasks of managing learning, and progressively transfer leadership authority down the organisation to facilitate school improvement.

The Prevailing Environment Within Schools

Within institutional transformation models, schools are deemed to contain anxiety and stress, where stress is the mental, physical and emotional consequence of institutional or societal anxiety being projected on to individuals. Consequently, it is anxiety (which can be both a barrier to change, and an imperative for it), and the social defences against it, that are the areas of interest, not stress. James (1999) recognises that the management processes within an institution can both reduce and increase anxiety, and that the defences against anxiety can also be seen as obstructing change, or useful in promoting it. Schools form arenas where potentially deficit models of teaching and school effectiveness form tensions with reflective practitioner practices and other positive approaches to teaching and education management, as individuals constantly strive accurately to depict important aspects of reality.

The Meanings of Success or Improvement

The fundamental success indicator for schools within institutional transformation models is keeping the organisation focused on its primary

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task of maximising learning, and thereby avoiding the trap of schools existing purely to service the needs of their members. If a traditional task-person analysis is applied, a dominant task dimension is required. In their drive to become more effective, as institutions with an ethos of continuous improvement, schools must ensure that they appropriately manage anxiety at all levels in the organisation.

The use of collaboration by headteachers, as a means of reducing anxiety or gaining the approval of followers, also indicates success, provided that it does not become the anti-task or contain any hint of collusion. Collaboration, as a process and as a goal, can be justified in a number of ways. Collaboration has value as a way of facilitating the meaning-making process; as a means of integrating the separate parts of an organisation; as a way of exploiting the available pool of talent; and as a form of social defence that involves facing the enemy together. The danger in the latter point is that the needs of an organisation's members can become more important than the organisation's primary function, instead of the two categories of needs being regarded as inter-dependent.

The Conceptions of Schools

According to James (1999), schools progress smoothly along their school improvement journeys until some trigger, such as the appointment of a new headteacher or an unfavourable inspection report, causes a crisis or fracturing of the school culture which initiates a process of change. These

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triggers may well create anxiety, anxiety that can become a driving force behind change. Schools are contexts in which different anxiety forces combine, and either retard or accelerate change and improvement. In essence, anxiety can give rise to intentions or even goals within the minds of organisational members, which, because of their emotional charge, can focus organisational purposes, and even give the organisation a new impetus for change or improvement.

5.3.8 Combined Models

When education managers adopt a given model, there is a danger that certain key elements emphasised within that model become exaggerated. Stegö et al (1987, page 10) point out that the same event can be interpreted very differently by people applying different lenses or models, and that each model offers its own version of reality, with its own vision, and its own techniques for reaching the promised land. They suggest that school leaders require capabilities relating to all images of schools, as the relevance of images change according to individual circumstances, although they do accept that these capabilities may be distributed amongst a team rather than being resident with one individual. The importance of having different paradigms and competing conceptual models for informing educational leaders' thinking is highlighted by Boyd (1992), and Hughes (1990) points out that no single perspective can hope to provide guidance for practice in such complex, real-life situations as education leaders find themselves.

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Wallace (1999) suggests that employing different models sequentially is to mix metaphors, although the significance of each model will vary according to the particular circumstances. Conversely, to integrate models is to apply multiple metaphors, assuming that the concepts can be rendered compatible. The value of using multiple perspectives has been supported by a range of authors including Enderud (1980), Davies and Morgan (1983), Ellstrom (1983), Cuthbert (1984), Sergiovanni (1984a; 1984b), and Bush (1989 and 1995). Many versions of combined models exist, but reference is made to the work of Paisey (1981), Ellström (1983), Silverman (1984), Ball (1987), Bolman and Deal (1997), and Wallace (1999), as collectively it both exemplifies the diversity of possible approaches and combinations, and illustrates some of the complex ways in which headteachers may need to think in order effectively to understand their schools.

Although not based on Bush's (1995) models, Paisey (1981) notes that teachers think differently about organisations. He claims that teachers use different viewpoints or metaphors about their schools, based on different values and leading to different organisational outcomes², and this explains why different solutions to problems are preferred by different individuals. Similarly, Ball (1987) identifies four headteacher

² Paisey (1981, page 132) associates the following viewpoints, values and organisational outcomes: the human body, competency and the deployment of differential ability; the human family, delegation and the deployment of formal authority; the world of nature, dominance and the deployment of natural power; and the machine, rationality and the deployment of technical tasks.

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leadership styles³ which he claims represent solutions to the political dilemmas within schools.

With a more organisational focus, Silverman (1984) contrasts the insights derived from a systems approach to an organisation, with a view of interaction such that individuals attach meaning to their own and their colleagues' actions. Addressing what he defines as the real debate, he tried to determine which approach is most helpful, rather than attempt to reconcile the two notions. Ellström's (1983) approach is to integrate four organisational models: a rational (formal) model; a political model; a social system (collegial) model; and an anarchistic (ambiguity) model. He situates each of the four models along two axes, goals by consensus or conflict, and processes that are transparent or ambiguous, thus indicating the conditions under which a particular model most accurately reflects reality. Wallace's (1999) less ambitious amalgamation combines cultural and political models. He hopes to help managers understand how organisations should be managed according to their values through reaping the benefits of insights that each perspective can bring while avoiding the tunnel vision that can result from adhering to one model (Wallace, 1999, page 29).

A more inclusive analysis of organisations is performed by Bolman and Deal (1997). Having acknowledged that no single 'story' is comprehensive

³ Ball (1987, page 87) identifies four headteacher leadership styles: inter-personal; managerial; political-adversarial; and political-authoritarian.

enough fully to understand organisations, they claim to have sorted the various insights into four major frames, or perspectives, which can be used to probe organisations. An overview of the four frames – structural, human resource, political and symbolic – is given in Figure 5.1.

	Frame			
	Structural	Human Resource	Political	Symbolic
Metaphor for Organisation	Factory or machine.	Family.	Jungle.	Carnival, temple, theatre.
Central Concepts	Rules, roles, goals, policies, technology, environment.	Needs, skills, relationships.	Power, conflict, competition, organisational politics.	Culture, meaning, metaphor, ritual, ceremony, stories, heroes.
Image of Leadership	Social architecture.	Empowerment.	Advocacy.	Inspiration.
Basic Leadership Challenge	Attune structure to task, technology, environment.	Align organisational and human needs.	Develop agenda and power base.	Create faith, beauty, meaning.

(Bolman and Deal, 1997, page 15)

Figure 5.1: Overview of Frames

Each frame can be used to interpret the many day-to-day events within an organisation, events such as goal setting, planning, decision-making, evaluation, meetings and communication generally. Conversely, individual events can be used to serve multiple purposes. For example, within a structural frame communication can be seen as a means of transmitting facts and information. However, within a human resource frame, communication can be a means of exchanging information, needs

and feelings; within a political frame a way of influencing or manipulating others; and within a symbolic frame simply telling stories. Leaders, and innovative leaders in particular, must address themselves not just to the world as they see it, but also to the world as others see it (Everard and Morris, 1996, page 220).

Bolman and Deal (1997) acknowledge that selecting an appropriate frame requires a combination of analysis, judgment, intuition and even artistry, but they do offer a number of generic questions⁴ to guide or augment the decision-making process. Nevertheless, the real power of their work is revealed through their examination of multiple frames in relationship to leadership effectiveness and ineffectiveness (Figure 5.2).

Frame	Effective Leadership		Ineffective Leadership	
	Leader	Leadership Processes	Leader	Leadership Processes
Structural	Analyst, architect.	Analysis, design.	Petty tyrant.	Management by detail and facts.
Human resource	Catalyst, servant.	Support, empowerment.	Weakling, pushover.	Abdication.
Political	Advocate, negotiator.	Advocacy, coalition building.	Con-artist, thug.	Manipulation, fraud.
Symbolic	Prophet, poet.	Inspiration, framing experience.	Fanatic, fool.	Mirage, smoke and mirrors.

(Bolman and Deal, 1997, page 303)

Figure 5.2: Reframing Leadership

⁴ Bolman and Deal (1997, page 271) suggest five questions that might help in the selection of an appropriate frame. Are individual commitment and motivation essential to success? Is the technical quality of the decision important? Are there high levels of ambiguity and uncertainty? Are conflict and scarce resources significant? Are you working from the bottom up?

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Given that what constitutes leadership effectiveness is determined by the adopted model or organisation theory (Scheerens, 1992), Bolman and Deal's (1997) synthesis can be interpreted as suggesting that the ability to successfully operate within appropriate multiple frames correlates with effective leadership generally. In short, if Bolman and Deal's (1997) frames reflect or approximate all known reasonable viewpoints, and the leader is deemed effective in every frame, it follows that the leader is effective (by definition) in terms of making the organisation effective. Regarding this research, it is argued that interpretations of effectiveness, in the context of organisation theories, are at the heart of an abstracted understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school.

5.4 Effectiveness in Schools

Having considered organisation theories as one of two sources of knowledge that inform an organisation based abstracted understanding, what constitutes effectiveness in schools, the second source of knowledge, is addressed. School effectiveness research, and where appropriate organisation effectiveness research, is critically analysed in terms of definitions, characteristics, whole school leadership, subject leadership, and quality standards.

5.4.1 Definitions

As Preedy (1993) points out, exactly what constitutes school effectiveness, and the part played by management in developing it, are large and

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complex questions with no definitive answers. Gray (1993) suggests that much effective teaching and learning cannot be captured by the usual performance indicators employed in effectiveness research. Scheerens (2000, page 23) points to a pluralistic attitude to effectiveness.

Williams (1995b) expresses concern that the school effectiveness movement threatens the existence of intangible educational objectives concerning the cultural, ethical and spiritual development of individuals. Although Silver (1994, page 5) emphasises the importance of considering the historical and political contexts of any definitions of effectiveness, he highlights an elegant definition - an effective school is one which serves all its pupils well.

Fidler (1997b) draws attention to the value-laden nature of measures of effectiveness, a point that can easily remain hidden behind the seemingly neutral word 'effective'. The controversial nature of school effectiveness is taken up further by Dimmock (1993, page 201), who points out that how effectiveness is measured has changed over time, and that the meaning, purpose and applicability of the concept tends to come from the government of the day, and not educationalists. Fitz-Gibbon's (1996a; 1996b) approach to school effectiveness is also to challenge the validity and meaning of many of the so called 'hard' indicators, and to draw attention to the value of feedback for complex systems, in terms of them learning to become effective.

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An alternative approach is taken by Stoll and Fink (1998) and Lodge (1998) who focus on the definitions of ineffective schools, and draw attention to the fact that research is concerned with more than a bi-polar approach to effectiveness and ineffectiveness. Stoll and Fink (1998, page 190) take the seemingly simplistic view that schools are deemed ineffective when they make less progress than expected, after initial attainment and background factors have been taken into account. Lodge (1998, page 148) emphasises the importance of the different perspectives through which determinations of effectiveness are made. As intimated in Section 5.3.8, when Bolman and Deal (1997) compare the key influential research findings on effective organisations and effective managers (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Collins and Porras, 1994; Kotter, 1982; and Lynn, 1987), they conclude that effectiveness correlates consistently with the use of multiple frames.

5.4.2 Characteristics

School effectiveness research attempts to identify and describe factors that are associated with effective schools, although at first glance it can erroneously be taken to be the search for factors that cause a school to become effective. Researchers tend to present their research outcomes as effectiveness characteristics. The precise list of these characteristics varies, at a macro level reflecting the stage of industrial development of the country in which the study has taken place, and at a micro level through language differences (rather than meanings implied).

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When selecting effectiveness criteria, Holmes et al (1989, page 260) suggest five principles: enough clarity that progress becomes evident; being central to the main improvement rationale of the school; inclusivity that involves everyone; being guided by effectiveness research; and part of the vision or mission of the school. At its simplest, at least in terms of the number of characteristics, Gray (1995, page 27) suggests the three measures of academic progress (an outcome factor), pupil satisfaction (a process factor) and pupil-teacher relationships (a process factor) provide a workable approach. A more comprehensive analysis that appears in multiple texts (Sammons et al 1995; 1997, Hopkins, 1995) is given in Figure 5.3. In his earlier work, (Hopkins et al, 1994, page 45), eight organisational factors⁵ (about which there is broad agreement amongst researchers) and four process factors⁶ are identified. The process factors directly address the dynamics of schools, and infuse some meaning and energy into the organisational factors.

There are many examples of such lists in the literature. The National Commission on Education (1996, page 366) also produce a similar list, but with ten factors, and Scheerens (1992, page 50), reviewing a synthesis of school effectiveness research prepared by Borger et al (1984), identify

⁵ Organisational factors: curriculum focused school leadership; supportive climate within the school; emphasis on curriculum and teaching; clear goals and high expectations for students; a system of monitoring performance and achievement; on-going staff development and inservice training; parental involvement and support; and LEA and external support.

⁶ Process factors: a feel for the process of leadership (organisations are sailed rather than driven); a guiding value system (agreement on high expectations, explicit goals, clear rules and a genuine caring about individuals); intense interaction and communication (pressure and support horizontally and vertically); and collaborative planning and implementation (within and beyond the school).

1. Professional leadership (Firm and purposeful. A participative approach. The leading professional.)
2. Shared vision and goals (Unity of purpose. Consistency of practice. Collegiality and collaboration.)
3. A learning environment (An orderly atmosphere. An attractive working environment.)
4. Concentration on teaching and learning (Maximisation of learning time. Academic emphasis. Focus on achievement.)
5. Purposeful teaching (Efficient organisation. Clarity of purpose. Structured lessons. Adaptive practice.)
6. High expectations (High expectations all round. Communicating expectations. Providing intellectual challenge.)
7. Positive reinforcement (Clear and fair discipline. Feedback)
8. Monitoring progress (Monitoring pupil performance. Evaluating school performance.)
9. Pupil rights and responsibilities (Raising pupil self-esteem. Positions of responsibility. Control of work.)
10. Home-school partnership (Parental involvement in their children's learning.)
11. A learning organisation (School-based staff development)

(Hopkins, 1995, page 48)

Figure 5.3: Factors for Effective Schools

eight factors that appear in multiple studies⁷. Some research focuses on specific contexts. For example, Brighouse and Woods (1999, page 10), endorsing the work of Smith and Tomlinson (1989), identify the key characteristics of successful inner-city secondary schools (Figure 5.4).

⁷ Factors appearing in multiple studies: leadership; school climate; teacher-pupil relationships (including the variable 'high expectations of people achievement'); curriculum and teaching (comprising the emphasis on basic skills, effective net learning time, homework, streaming, length of lessons and clarity on achievement); evaluation; physical environment and characteristics; financial resources; and characteristics of family background (socio-economic status, race and attitude towards education).

- Leadership and management in the school by the headteacher and the department.
- Teacher involvement in decision-making (in curriculum, methods, organisation, use of resources, whole-school policies).
- Climate of respect of (teachers-teachers, pupil-pupils, pupils-teachers, teachers-parents, etc), including respect for other cultures, languages, and religions.
- Positive feedback to and treatment of pupils.

(Brighouse and Woods, 1999, page 10)

Figure 5.4: Success Factors of Inner-City Schools

Interestingly, they emphasise that at secondary level we may have to talk about effective departments rather than effective schools.

While Scheerens (1992) argues that there is no single school characteristic that is exceptional in determining effectiveness, it is evident from the lists of effectiveness factors considered here and elsewhere that leadership is not only in every list, but is also at the top of every list. Consequently, when the place of leadership is combined with Brighouse and Woods's (1999) reference to effective departments, it seems to suggest that an analysis of school effectiveness research, through whole school and subject leadership perspectives, would be helpful.

5.4.3 Whole School Leadership

Despite Scheerens's (1992) relatively recent assertion to the contrary, the 1977 DES's landmark study, *Ten Good Schools*, concluded that effective leadership (in a climate that is conducive to growth) is the most important single factor in the success of schools. At the time, Bridges

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(1977), and later Cuban (1988), were keen to emphasise the nature of school leadership as being a pupil orientated activity, in which headteachers worked through people. The value placed on education leadership is not new.

Sweeney (1982), in his research synthesis on effective school leadership, says the evidence clearly indicates that headteachers do contribute to effectiveness. In the research that he studied, headteachers who emphasise instruction, are assertive and results orientated, and create an atmosphere conducive to learning, make a difference that is actually reflected in pupil learning outcomes. Bottery (1994) sees visionary leadership that incorporates team members' self-regulation, through the provision of meaning-making, as the key to success, visionary leadership that Ribbins and Marland (1994) describe as very diverse.

Although school size and teacher background are not generally found to exert any important influences on leadership effectiveness (Cheng, 1994), socio-economic factors do tend to influence what headteachers focus on (Andrews and Soder, 1987). Davies and West-Burnham (1992, page 222) identify ten key elements common to effective school leadership⁸, irrespective of the contexts of the schools. Davies (1997) even goes so far

⁸ Elements of effective school leadership: a focus on learning; moral purpose as the purpose; the need for human scale organisations; the centrality of leadership; developing and sustaining a learning organisation; the redefinition of the resource base; the need for responsive cultures; performance management as the critical factor; the need for global awareness and community interdependence; and personal effectiveness as a synthesising agent.

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as to produce a list of factors that are directly within the control of, or are at least influenced by, headteachers and their management teams. Scheerens (1992) also draws attention to the fact that such education leadership can be carried out by senior and middle managers as well – in effect, that education leadership can and should be distributed throughout the organisation. Mortimore and Mortimore (1991) emphasise that it is very important for headteachers to have a personal philosophy of education, as this gives the school its direction. Taffinder (1995) makes a similar point when he refers to ‘imposing context’ – a way of interpreting the world for employees, and of identifying what matters and what does not.

More recently, Hallinger and Heck (1999) found evidence for the proposition that school leaders influence their schools, primarily through three avenues: purposes; structure and social networks; and people. They take the conclusions of Leithwood and Steinbach’s (1993) work regarding the largely indirect influences of effective headteachers further when they propose that headteachers influence processes that have an impact on learning, foster a culture in which staff find meaning in their work, and motivate colleagues to learn and solve problems collaboratively.

Hallinger and Heck (1999) are at pains to point out that headteachers themselves are subject to the considerable influences of the norms and characteristics of their schools. They also state that the recent trend of

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viewing schools as learning organisations produces a different set of variables linking leadership, the school, and effectiveness, than those promoted during the effective schools era. What constitutes effective leadership changes over time.

Bolam et al's (1993) research (which supports the findings of Mortimore et al (1988) and Nias et al (1989)) investigates teachers' and headteachers' perceptions of effective management, rather than focusing on effectiveness as measured by pupil outcomes. As Leithwood (1994) found, school leaders have a strong influence over teachers' perceptions of various school characteristics, their commitment to school change, and their capacity for professional development. Bolam et al (1993) argue that British schools are perceived to be effective when they display key management features, particularly purposive leadership by headteachers; broad agreement on goals, values, mission and policy; a cohesive management team; and a collaborative professional subculture. While they offer the usual guidance for headteachers, unusually, they also offer similar guidance for their senior team.

5.4.4 Subject Leadership

Having addressed whole school leadership by headteachers and their senior management teams, the focus now moves to subject leadership. As early as 1994, Silver (1994, page 140) focused on the sub-structures (such as departments) of secondary schools, along with the role of headteachers

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and teachers. However, it was left to Harris et al (1997) to draw attention to the irony that most school effectiveness research highlights the importance of teaching and learning, and that teaching and learning is generally addressed through subject departments, and not through the school as a whole. Their research suggests that subject departments that are likely to translate their efforts into effective teaching and learning present a reasonably consistent profile (Figure 5.5).

- A collegiate management style;
- A strong vision of the subject effectively translated down to the level of the classroom;
- Good organisation in terms of assessment, record keeping, homework etc.;
- Good resource management;
- An effective system for monitoring and evaluating;
- Structured lessons and regular feedback;
- Clear routines and practices within lessons;
- A syllabus matching the needs and abilities of pupils;
- A strong pupil-centred ethos that systematically rewards pupils;
- Opportunities for autonomous pupil learning;
- A central focus on teaching and learning.

(Harris et al, 1997, page 159)

Figure 5.5: Effective Departments

More recently, Harris (1998) has established characteristics of less effective departments, which mirror the existence of similar research (Stoll and Fink, 1998) into ineffective schools.

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According to Harris et al (1997), effective departments tend to be good at either working with, or neutralising, external influences, which goes some way to explaining why support of the school was not a major factor in the effectiveness of departments. Others, such as Wise (2001) and Williams (2002), also recognise the importance of effective subject departments for encouraging effective teaching, and ultimately effective learning.

Interestingly, after studying the school effectiveness literature, Gray (1998), cited in Bush and Coleman (2000), came to a number of conclusions that support the importance of departments' contributions to successful schools. He concluded that there is a generally greater variation of pupil performance within schools than between them, and specifically, that there is often a large variation of performance between subject departments within the same school. The role of middle managers, and subject leaders in particular, cannot be ignored when understanding what needs to be done to improve a school.

A number of concerns regarding the validity and general applicability of school effectiveness research have been considered in detail and are well-documented (Reynolds, 1996; Creemers and Reezigt, 1997). However, Fitz-Gibbon (1996a, page 74) forcibly states that the most prominent danger with school effectiveness research is the eagerness to jump from correlation to causation, from features of effective schools towards guiding ineffective schools towards improvement. Instead, Fitz-Gibbon

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(1996a) calls for an increase in valid feedback, and a decrease in misleading feedback (as sometimes provided by inappropriate inspection reports). Lauder et al (1998, page 57) also conclude that the leap from schools making a difference to a recipe for improvement is too ambitious, and argue that if good schools are engineered by design and not serendipity, key variables (such as school culture, politics, strategic position and communication) have not been fully addressed.

Conversely, Creemers (1996, page 56) argues that recent developments in school effectiveness research make it multi-levelled (in that it looks at the classroom as well as the school) and that it now recognises the relationships and synchronicity between the levels. Creemers's (1996) point is supported by the work of Sammons et al (1994, page 9), who draw attention to the importance of providing pupil level data, including quality school intake information, to enable multi-level analyses (by both schools and the inspectorate) to take place.

5.4.5 Quality Standards

The notion of quality is clearly linked to the idea of effectiveness, particular, as Owen (1997) remarks, with the cycle of planning, implementation and review that relies so heavily on judgements of effectiveness. Examining the use of quality in the whole of the public sector, Sadler (2000) found the quality schemes most in use to be the EFQM Excellence Model, the Charter Mark, the Investors in People

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initiative, and ISO 9000. West-Burnham (1992) proposes that inspection, quality control, quality assurance and total quality management form the stages within a hierarchy of approaches to quality. He also suggests that as schools progress through these approaches, they gain increased awareness and personal responsibility, an emphasis on process, and an acceptance of the continuous improvement imperative.

In the English (and to a lesser extent the Welsh) education systems, inspection is the most visible tool for ensuring quality. When OFSTED teams inspect a secondary school, they are required to evaluate and report on how effectively and efficiently headteachers and other staff lead and manage the school (OFSTED, 2000). Given that there is usually a clear relationship between standards achieved and the effectiveness of leaders and managers, inspectors must determine the extent to which this causality applies. They must evaluate impact rather than intention, and ensure that their judgments of leadership and management make sense when set against their judgments about standards. In essence, inspection teams are required to evaluate the effectiveness of leadership and management as it constitutes a crucial element of the effectiveness of the school.

Detailed exemplifications of very good and unsatisfactory leadership and management are proposed by OFSTED (OFSTED, 2000), which effectively represent their success and failure criteria for leadership and

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management within schools. Inspectors are told to focus on the extent to which leadership and management create an effective and improving school in which pupils are keen and able to learn. They are also asked to comment on the extent to which staff, senior staff, and the headteacher in particular, know what needs to be done to improve the school, in what order of priority, and how to do it (OFSTED, 2000, page 91). This research project could potentially contribute to a framework within which inspectors could comment on headteachers' (and others') understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school.

The findings of OFSTED inspections may simply be used as benchmarks against which future improvements can be measured, or trigger further external attention (as when a school has serious weaknesses or requires special measures⁹). Following the principles embodied in West-Burnham's (1992) proposed hierarchy, Du Quesnay (in Hellowell, 2000) wants headteachers to get more experience of the inspection process, and therefore to become more capable of self-evaluation. She also asserts that she does not yet consider schools to be ready for a greater degree of self-regulation, however, under her direction, the NCSL (NCSL, 2002) began piloting a strategic development programme designed to build up the inspection skills of headteachers in their first two years of headship.

⁹ In effect, any overall OFSTED judgment will fall into one of five categories: should consider applying for Beacon School status, good to satisfactory, a school in challenging circumstances (less than 25% 5 A*-Cs), found to have Serious Weaknesses or require Special Measures. Being judged to fall in any one of the latter three categories will mean further formal contact with Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) and the Local Education Authority (LEA).

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With a similar motivation, the Scottish Office Education and Industry Department (1997) produced 33 indicators for schools to use within their own self-evaluation procedures. MacBeath and Myers (1999) turn these performance indicators into a self-evaluation document for headteachers, which they can use to reflect on their own performance, again establishing the importance of leadership within school effectiveness. Bush and Colman (2000) examine examples of the application of Total Quality Management (TQM) to schools, by drawing on the work of West-Burnham (1992). They present a simplified version of Deming's original 14 quality points, and the modified version of these used in Mt Edgecumbe High School, Alaska, which West-Burnham (1992) describes as the best known application of TQM to a school.

A number of Mt Edgecumbe's quality points are of particular relevance. Mt Edgecumbe emphasise leadership, breaking down barriers between departments in order to work as a team, and putting everybody in the community to work to accomplish a transformation. These principles can be interpreted as supporting an emphasis on leadership, high forming teams, and creating a learning organisation respectively. However, Mt Edgecumbe School also advocate working to abolish grading and the resulting harmful effects of rating people, and ceasing dependence on testing to achieve quality, which mitigate against the DfES focus on National Curriculum assessment as a means of raising standards, and its Target Setting and Performance Management agendas.

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The tension between the use of hard targets (or control) and values-based school improvement (that cannot be verified through hard data) represents a real dilemma in terms of judging effectiveness in schools. Bottery (1994) concludes that management in schools should be concerned less with efficiency, predictability, control and implementation of external agendas, and more with empowerment, consciousness-raising and participation.

Goddard and Leask (1992) make the point that different visions of quality (and therefore effectiveness) are held by the different partners in education (parents, pupils, employers, teachers and governors), and this makes a national model of quality in education that would be accepted by all interest groups difficult to create. Wallace (1999, page 129) goes as far as to predict that any quest for one, best theory, to explain the social world, is probably futile, and Gray (1979a, page 77) points out that it is not whether a model is right that is in question, but the implications of using it. The answers one receives are dependent on the questions one asks, and the questions one asks are likely to reflect the theoretical position of the researcher (Theodossin, 1983).

Davies (1994) argues that schools in the 21st century need a radically new way of thinking (process re-engineering), and expresses serious doubts as to whether an approach such as TQM, with its focus on incremental improvement, can make a significant contribution to the development of

education. Whatever approaches to organisations and effectiveness (including quality standards) are adopted by headteachers could directly influence their understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school.

5.5 Conclusion

The literature on schools as organisations can be divided into two categories: theories of education management (which includes general organisation theory) and effective schools research. Both categories of literature inform and therefore contribute directly to an understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school with a focus on schools as organisations. As with the literature based understandings described in Chapter four, the understanding is described as being 'abstracted'. This implies that the organisation based understanding provides a framework around which more specific 'contributing understandings' can form, inter-relate and integrate, and thus create a 'resultant understanding' with the structure indicated.

Chapter Six

Learning in Schools

6.1 Overview

6.2 Learning and Capacity Building

6.3 An Active Learning Based Understanding

6.3.1 The School as a Learning Organisation

6.3.2 School Improvement Processes

6.3.3 Development Planning

6.4 Conclusion

6.1 Overview

In this final literature chapter, the link between individual learning, organisational learning, and the development of a school's capacity to craft change, is exposed. Similarly, the high levels of inter-dependence between the elements of each of the analyses of the school improvement process, and the elusive synergistic nature of the combination of the elements, as indicated in the literature, is established. An active learning based abstracted understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school, that incorporates a distinctive combination of both these overarching concepts, is then formally defined.

A broad outline of the reasons for a school to become a learning organisation is presented, and followed by a comparative analysis of a range of descriptions and characteristics of this nebulous notion. The main consequences of becoming a learning organisation, in terms of leader learning and follower learning, are also highlighted. The school improvement process is defined, and its sub-processes described, prior to a distillation of the advantages of a combined school improvement/school effectiveness perspective. The main implications for leadership, regarding cultural change, and the coordination of multiple levels within a school, are articulated.

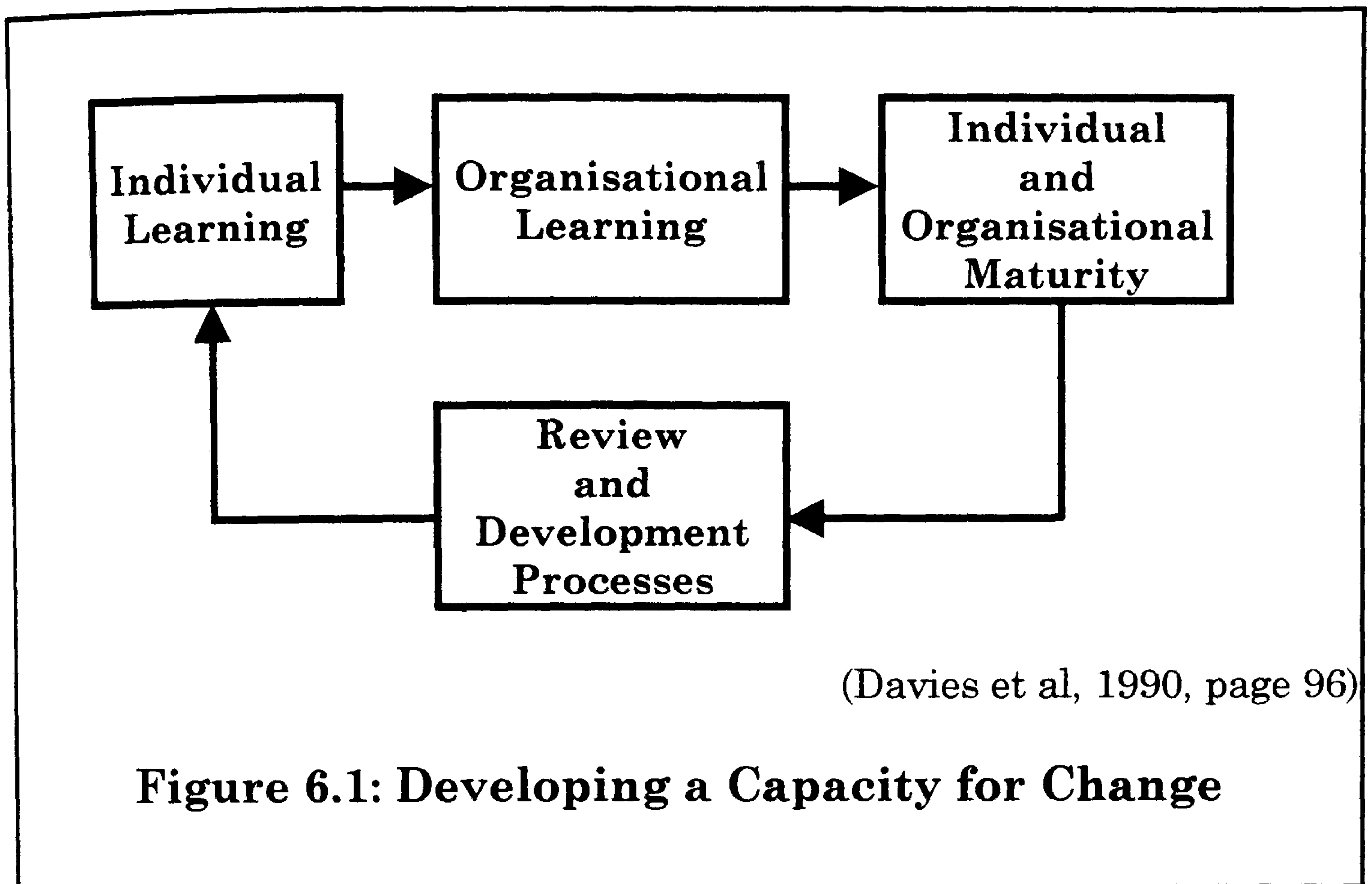
In the last main section, the notion of development planning is examined, and the distinction between drawing up a development plan, and the

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development planning process, is made. The improvement potential of development planning for schools is explored, and common pitfalls highlighted. Finally, the inter-dependence of development planning, becoming a learning organisation, and the school improvement process generally, particularly in terms of increasing a school's capacity to craft change, is acknowledged.

6.2 Learning and Capacity Building

With regard to management processes, Davies et al (1990, page 105) develop the notions of mature and immature organisations (Kanter, 1981; Peters, 1987). Mature organisations believe in continuous improvement, translate explicit aims into meaningful objectives, are responsive to clients' perceptions of needs, employ situational leadership styles and task oriented teams in open and consultative ways, and are essentially self-managing. Conversely, immature organisations reinforce the status quo, have unclear objectives, make assumptions about clients' needs, employ dictatorial leadership styles and rigid hierarchies in inflexible ways, and maintain centralised control through role status. Based on this analysis, Davies et al (1990) argue that the top priority for a success orientated organisation is the development of individuals' capacities for learning. They also conclude that both individual and organisational learning are essential prerequisites for individual and organisational maturity (Figure 6.1).



As indicated in Figure 6.1, Davies et al (1990) also emphasise the importance of continuous review and development. Without a whole school focus on reflection and improvement, the capacities for growth at both individual and school levels would not be maximised, or that potential realised. This direct link between individual learning, organisational learning, and developing a school's capacity to craft change (a form of attitudinal and cultural learning in itself), is an essential element of explicit school improvement efforts.

The work of Caldwell and Spinks (1988; 1992; 1998) also includes a simple framework to guide thinking (and recommend action) within a school improvement context, but their emphasis is on the education system as a whole. Caldwell and Spinks (1998) describe three 'tracks' or stages of development: building systems of self-managing schools; an

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unrelenting focus on learning outcomes; and creating schools for the knowledge society. They prefer the term 'tracks' as although these stages are loosely hierarchical, they currently exist simultaneously. Caldwell and Spinks (1998) accept that their third track, creating schools for a knowledge society, is difficult to describe in detail, but suggest that it is best thought of as a 'gestalt' in which the whole is greater than the combination of its parts.

Within their framework, Caldwell and Spinks (1998) identify three levels of self-management that must be connected in a coherent way: the school; the group; and the individual. Cheng's (1996) and Cheung and Cheng's (1996; 1997) research findings, on which Caldwell and Spinks's (1998, page 47) propositions are closely based, are particularly powerful, as they specifically identify links between self-management, classroom practices, and pupil learning outcomes. Although Caldwell and Spinks's (1998) focus is more closely on self-management, their conclusion that the focus for school improvement should be on learning at school, group and individual levels, and the development of a school's (and indeed system's) capacity to manage change, are of wider interest.

The indivisibility of a set of propositions is also a feature of Hopkins's (2001) work. The NCSL commissioned a think tank, under Hopkins's chairpersonship, to draw up a new framework for the development of school leadership. The think tank's findings, (Hopkins, 2001), are

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expressed as ten propositions¹, which must be regarded as a set or totality, as each individual proposition builds on, and amplifies, the others. The resulting vision of school leadership unrelentingly focuses on pupil learning, professional learning communities, capacity building, and organisational coherence.

Interestingly, despite the National College's implication that business leadership is superior to education leadership², Hopkins (2001), based on his synthesis of recent comparative studies, concludes that

...highly successful business executives would be extremely challenged to exert outstanding leadership in schools.

(Hopkins, 2001, page 15).

Arguably, the ability simultaneously to focus on learning (and teaching), capacity building (and empowerment), and transforming the school into a learning community for pupils and staff, is what distinguishes outstanding school leaders. Certainly, Hopkins's (2001) prerequisites of an active view of pupil, teacher and leader learning, seeing the future as a place to create rather than somewhere to arrive at, and addressing the twin goals of learning (including learning how to learn) and achievement, would be difficult to attain without knowledge of the learning (and

¹ School leadership must be: purposeful, inclusive and values driven; embrace the distinctive and inclusive context of the school; promote an active view of learning; be instructionally focused; a function that needs to be distributed throughout the school community; about building capacity by developing the school as a learning community; futures orientated and strategically driven; developed through experiential and innovative methodologies; served by a support and policy context that is coherent, systematic and implementation driven; and supported by a National College that leads the discourse around leadership for learning.

² On the NCSL website, web address www.ncsl.org.uk, under their Perspectives on Leadership section, users are invited to put their questions to leaders from the world of business, the public sector and education (in that order) to discover what makes an effectively leader.

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therefore leadership (Senge, 1999)) disciplines axiomatic to a learning organisation.

Fullan (1988; 1992b) makes the point that a headteacher's role should not be seen as influencing a specific change, but rather as leading changes in the school as an organisation, and of encouraging a collaborative culture. Covey (1999) draws attention to the potential of adopting guiding principles for making individuals more effective and organisations more empowered. This is particularly pertinent, given the high levels of insecurity currently evident in many organisations, and the consequential breakdown of trust that this engenders (Covey, 2001). It is argued (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1995) that teachers able to play their full part in the school improvement, or total teachers, are most likely to emerge in a culture of teaching where working relationships are typified by a supportive and inquiring community, committed to common goals and continuous improvement. Dimmock (1993) emphasises that when such internal change or restructuring takes place within schools, both time and training are necessary for teachers to effectively master the required new and often complex behaviours. He refers to this conclusion as T-lessons: change requires time; change requires training (Dimmock, page 89). The literature clearly suggests that managing change (but not specific changes), and encouraging a collaborative and principle guided culture over a period of time, can form a pivotal part of a headteacher's role within the school improvement processes.

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Cultures that are collaborative, guided by principles and goals, and are committed to continuous improvement, can help a school expand its capacity (its collective competency as an organisation to effect change). Hopkins (2001) argues that the essential ingredients for expanding a school's capacity consist of two features. First, an established professional learning community in which staff work collaboratively to set goals for pupil learning, assess pupil progress, develop action plans to raise pupil achievement, and continually engage in inquiry and problem-solving. Second, programme coherence, where pupil and staff learning are co-ordinated, focused on clear learning objectives, and sustained over time. Actively addressing learning at all levels in a school, and facilitating the symbiotic relationship between individual and group learning, in a systematic but constantly evolving manner, contributes to a distinct understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school.

6.3 An Active Learning Based Understanding

An active learning based understanding is understanding what needs to be done to improve a school as focusing on the inter-dependence of pupil, professional and organisational learning. An evolutionary approach is adopted, with the intention of continually increasing the school's capacity to craft change, and bringing a unifying purpose to the school's improvement interventions, through assimilating learning organisation principles, school improvement processes, and development planning activities.

6.3.1 *The School as a Learning Organisation*

Clark (2000, page 20) points out that while it can be argued that in some ways schools are already learning organisations, they do not necessarily adopt learning organisation principles, as they are modelled on modern structures which assume hierarchical and sequential understandings of learning. However, in his earlier work, (Clark, 1996, page 8), he acknowledges that some schools embrace certain features of a learning community, and thereby take on to some extent a synthesis of cohesion and openness, of community and of learning.

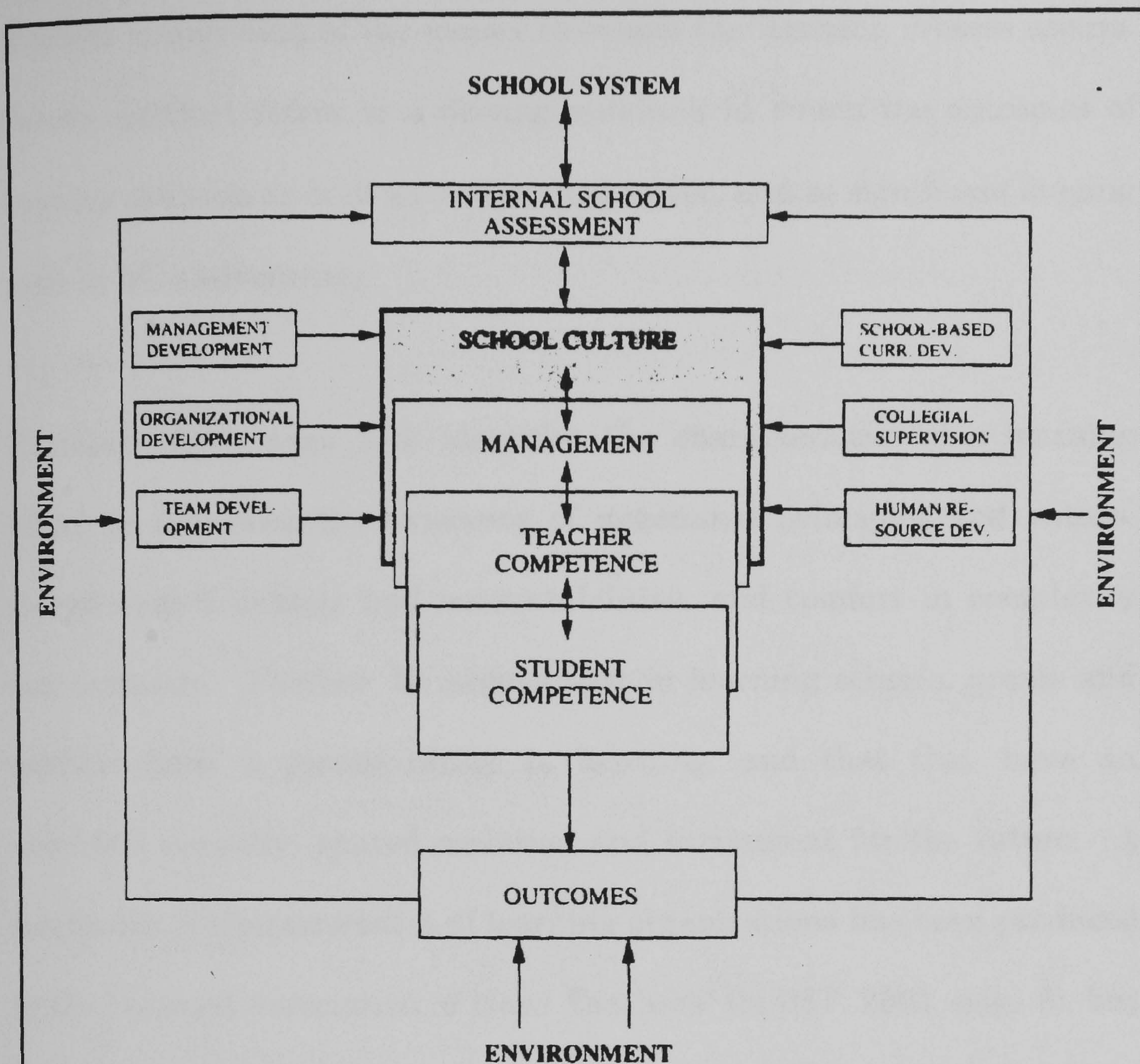
The notion of a learning organisation is often associated with learning communities, both in the actual and virtual (Preston, 2000) senses of the term. Caldwell and Spinks (1992) draw attention to the fact that a school is in fact a community of communities, in particular, a school is a community of teachers, a community of parents and a community of pupils. They argue that it is a synergy of the three that is most desirable, but emphasise that considerable nurturing and patience are required if a school is to realise the benefits of such an integration. According to Southworth (1998), schools are expected to be both self-managing and self-improving organisations, and those that are will necessarily be learning organisations as well.

Aspinwall and Pedler (1997) argue that because individual development alone does not bring about school improvement, schools have searched for

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approaches that have a greater whole school impact, and discovered the potential of becoming a learning organisation. Similarly, Wallace and Weindling (1997) suggest that the best course of action, especially in a multiple change environment, is to become a learning society, where groups as well as individuals are expected continually to engage in lifelong learning experiences. Aspinwall (1998, page 53) goes as far as to identify six levels or perspectives from which we might view education: the world; the country; the town; the school; the class and oneself. These and other references clearly suggest that schools should become learning organisations, if they wish to survive and even improve.

Senge et al (2001, page 6) assert that all schools are unique, and therefore require their own particular combination of disciplines and approaches. Similarly, Bacharach and Mundell (1995) consider a number of definitions of learning organisations, before concluding that competing perspectives prevent the adoption of any single definition. However, they acknowledge that organisational learning, learning which relies on the combined experiences, perspectives and capabilities of members of the organisation, occurs when information is gathered and used to generate appropriate responses to challenges. Harris and Russ (1994) also emphasis the importance of adults wanting to learn about, and continuously improve their work. Dalin et al's (1993) diagrammatic representation of a school as a learning organisation illustrates some of the inherent complexity (Figure 6.2).



(Dalin et al, 1993, page 21)

Figure 6.2: The School as a Learning Organisation

According to Whitaker (1998), a learning school is one which sees beyond the limited transactions between teachers and pupils, and sees learning as the focus of the organisational and individual contexts. He uses (page 178) the '4P development chain' to characterise a learning organisation: purpose; policy; practice and product. In his model, purpose refers to forging deep understandings about what we do and why we do things, and policy to the clear articulation of ambitious but realistic intentions and commitments to specific actions. Practice makes reference to the deep curiosity inherent in teachers' and pupils' lives, underlying the

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constant questioning of the means by which the learning process occurs. Finally, product refers to a driving ambition in which the outcomes of learning are seen as both an end in themselves, and as significant staging posts in life's adventure.

Whitaker (1998, page 179) identifies the characteristics of a learning school as including the existence of negotiated principles and values, shared responsibilities and accountabilities, and comfort in complexity and confusion. Further, he argues that in learning schools, pupils and teachers have a predisposition to learning, and that they have an unbridled curiosity, shared ambition and excitement for the future. A similar list of characteristics of learning organisations has been produced by the National Association of Head Teachers³ (NAHT, 2001, page 6), but their emphasis is on treating teachers as professionals, promoting collaboration for improvement, and promoting high-quality staff development. Stevenson (2001) observes that the potential contribution of organisational learning to improving the quality of teaching and learning is promising, but elusive.

Senge (1999) offers a more detailed description of learning organisations when he suggests that five component technologies, or disciplines, converge to form them. He argues that learning organisations are characterised by systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models,

³ The National Association of Head Teachers (NAHT) is one of two professional associations specifically designed to support headteachers (and other school leaders), the other being SHA.

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building shared vision, and team learning. Senge (1999) defines systems thinking as seeing wholes, as a body of knowledge and a conceptual framework that enables us to see the big picture clearly, and to see how successfully to implement change (which is regarded as a normal part of a learning process). Boyle and Clarke (1998) add that systems thinking involves perceiving change as a process, and not an event, in an attempt to understand the system as a whole. In terms of personal mastery, Senge (1999) suggests that people who possess it continually clarify and deepen their personal vision, regularly focus their energies, and ultimately realise the results that matter most to them.

Mental models are described as the ingrained assumptions, generalisations and mental images that influence how we understand the world, and therefore what actions we take in it. Senge (1999) supports the assertion that continuous adaptation and growth depends on institutional learning, the process whereby teams change their shared mental models through group planning (which constitutes group learning). Similarly, building a shared vision is concerned with unearthing shared pictures of the future that encourage commitment rather than compliance. It is about binding people around a genuine vision, common identity and sense of destiny. Finally, team learning refers to entering into dialogue, suspending assumptions and thinking together, to creating a situation where the abilities of the team are greater than the sum of the abilities of the team members.

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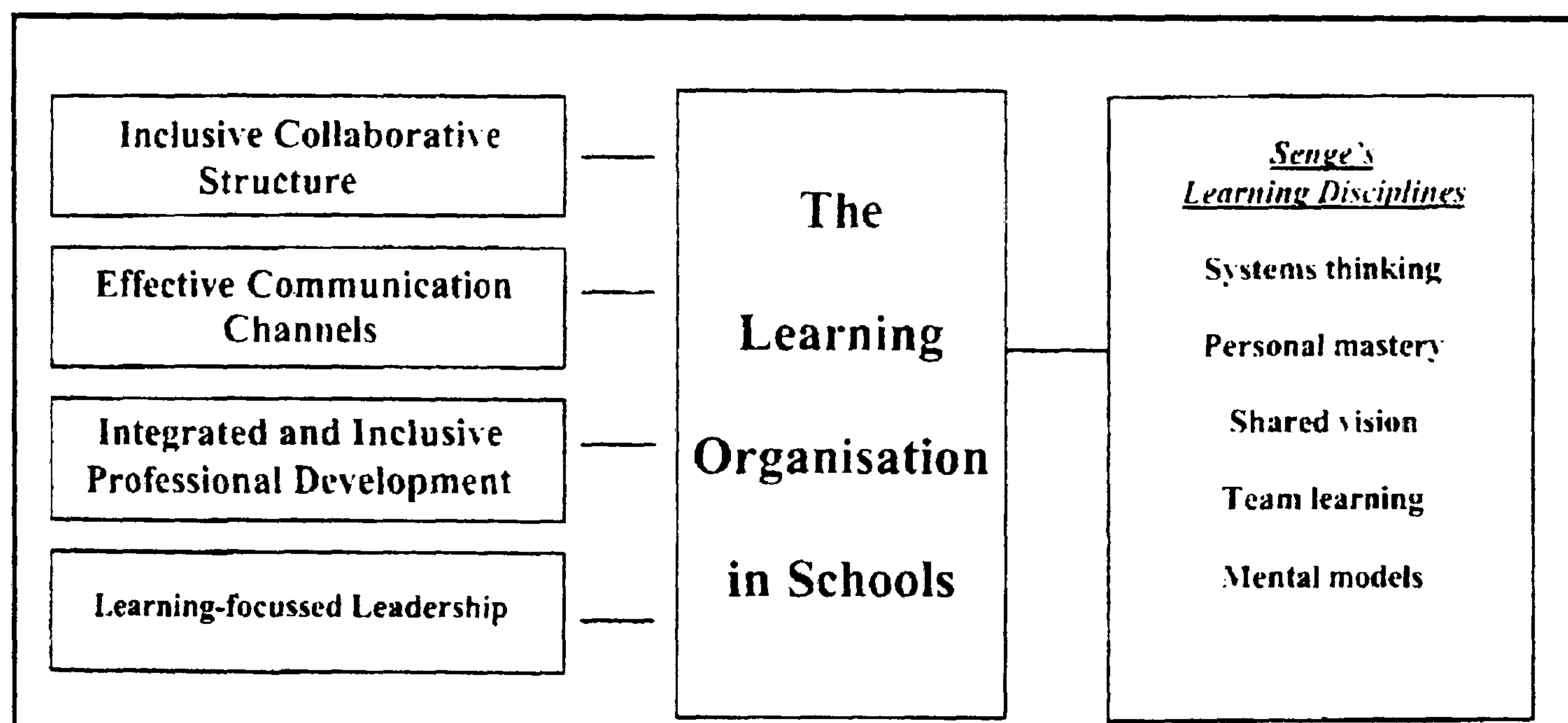
Senge (1999) compares the five disciplines to an ensemble, as although each discipline was developed separately, each one is critical to the effectiveness of the others. Each discipline provides a vital input to the process of building an organisation that can truly learn, an organisation with enhanced capacities to realise its aspirations. Senge's (1999) five learning (or leadership) disciplines are individual in that they are about how people think, what they want, and how they interact and learn. They are organisation based in that they require leaders to be designers, stewards and teachers, but not controllers. Sharman (1997) specifically describes a great leader as someone with the goal of getting people to think more highly of themselves, rather than of the leader.

Duffy (1998) reflects on the striking and consistent nature of the evidence that suggests effective leadership is embodied in designing, stewardship and teaching, although Gronn (1996) reports a lack of agreement as to whether significant changes in organisational behaviour can be attributed directly to leaders. However, Barth (1985) states that the most important characteristic of school leaders is that they are learners, and argues that if leaders grow, their schools will grow. He maintains that modelling professional learning, reflecting on practice and sharing and articulating specialist knowledge (by asking colleagues to do as the leader does as well as what he or she says), the school leader is actively involved in meaning making, and the development of a community of learners. In common with Sir Michael Bichard, the DfEE's top official, quoted in

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Revell (2000), and Rigby (2000), Barth (1985) is equally clear that such behaviours can be developed in leaders, and therefore that leaders are not born, they learn the skills they need to inspire and direct.

Recent work undertaken by Johnston and Caldwell (2001) specifically attempts to determine the extent to which Senge's (1999) five disciplines are apparent in school management. They conclude that the five disciplines are helpful in conceptualising progress in school development, and identify four dimensions which both relate to Senge's (1999) model and capture the essence of success within the (Australian) schools in their study (Figure 6.3).



(Johnston and Caldwell, 2001, page 99)

Figure 6.3: The Learning Organisation in Schools

The importance of leadership is again evident in Johnston and Caldwell's (2001) analysis, but this time leadership focused specifically on learning rather than generic leadership, and taking fourth place after

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collaborative structure, communication channels, and professional development.

Work in the United Kingdom (NAHT, 2001) is generally supportive of Johnston and Caldwell's (2001) conclusions, and the similar conclusions of West-Burnham and O'Sullivan (1998). Learning, as both a focus and an activity, is unavoidably embodied in all levels of school life, from the individual, through the group, to the organisation, and is a necessity if school improvement processes are to be successful.

6.3.2 School Improvement Processes

The task of defining school improvement has similar attendant problems to those associated with defining school effectiveness. Velzen et al (1985), also quoted in Chapman (1999, page 20), define school improvement as a systematic, sustained effort aimed at change in learning conditions, and other related internal conditions, in one or more schools. Hopkins et al (1994) address the inherent duality of the concept, when they suggest that school improvement is both a strategy for change, and a strategy for creating the conditions within a school that sustains the teaching and learning processes. They argue that it is a school improvement strategy that links the priorities within a school to what happens on the ground, and emphasise that a school needs to create the internal conditions that are favourable for change if change is in fact to take place. Regarding school improvement as a process that focuses simultaneously on

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maximising pupils' learning outcomes or raising pupils' achievements, and enhancing a school's capacity to manage (and ultimately craft) change, are common features of most recent definitions.

Stoll and Fink (1996) state that the impetus to embark on a school improvement process can come from outside the institution, either generally through a national initiative, or specifically following an inspection, or from within the institution, as a result of a self-review. They suggest that, in practice, schools that are successful at school improvement tend to adapt or subvert national initiatives to support their own missions, rather than change their own priorities. Hopkins and Lagerweij (1996, page 77) argue that, despite the application of a number of different self-review programmes, the self-review strategy itself was limited in its effectiveness, and therefore it has been succeeded by the development planning mega-strategy (see Section 6.3.3).

Self-review and development planning have much in common, but development planning tends to make use of evaluation throughout the process, rather than just at one point in the cycle. Bush (1996, page 144) formally examines the relationship between school autonomy (and therefore self-management and self-review) and school improvement in some detail, and concludes that the relationship is at best unclear. Self-review and development planning clearly have a part to play in the school improvement process, but as part of a broader strategy.

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Again as with school effectiveness research, school improvement research outcomes can be presented as lists of principles⁴, but with learning rather than leadership as their primary focus. Hopkins (1994) concludes that it is when the majority of these principles are applied simultaneously that school improvement takes place, as their significance lies in their synergism. More recently, (Hopkins, 1999), six propositions are used to express the findings of school improvement research (Figure 6.4).

Proposition One: Without a clear focus on the internal conditions of the school, improvement efforts will quickly become marginalised.

Proposition Two: School improvement will not occur unless clear decisions are made about development and maintenance.

Proposition Three: Successful school improvement efforts adapt external change for internal purpose.

Proposition Four: School improvement will remain a marginal activity unless it impacts across all levels of the school.

Proposition Five: Data about a school's performance provides energy and direction for change.

Proposition Six: Successful school improvement efforts engender a language about teaching.

Coda: The ultimate achievement of school improvement is a transformation in the culture of the school.

(Hopkins, 1999, page 6)

Figure 6.4: Successful School Improvement

⁴ A focus on teaching and learning; staff development to sustain classroom practice; empowering staff, pupils and others to achieve their own and the school's purposes; actively built and shared common vision; current priorities, generated through consultation, reflect the main purposes in the school's vision; change is managed through planning; staff development focuses on teaching and curriculum issues; school improvement efforts and staff development are collaborative in nature; improvement processes are informed by monitoring, feedback, reflection of staff, pupils and others; and it is when groups of teachers adapt educational ideas in their own contexts, to meet their own professional needs, that success occurs (Hopkins, 1994, page 14).

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The lessons from research encapsulated in the propositions emphasise the human (as opposed to technological) aspects of school improvement, achieving the right sociological and psychological conditions, by taking account of culture and inter-dependence, motivation and self-determination, and therefore effective communication and reflection. School improvement is more concerned with evolution than consolidation, process than product, learning than achievement. However, despite the growing insight, whenever the 'how' question is asked regarding school improvement,

...one is immediately confronted with staggering complexity, and a bewildering array of policy options.

(Hopkins, 1995, page 50).

Stoll and Fink (1998, page 190) reason that as no two schools are the same, there may be no one best way to approach school improvement. Stoll and Myers (1998) assert that not all schools are at the same stage of readiness for change, and that this has little to do with their levels of effectiveness. Conversely, Hopkins (1995, page 73; 1996, page 45) performs an analysis, based on school effects, that suggests ineffective schools should focus on a limited number of curriculum and organisational issues and make use of external support, moderately effective schools should focus on teaching and learning and improving their capacity to effect change, and effective schools should expose themselves to new ideas. The school improvement process is a complex one, and different for different schools, whichever way of thinking is

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adopted. DfEE and OFSTED (1995), quoted in Stoll and Myers (1998, page 8) go so far as to suggest that the process is more organic than mechanical. The uniqueness of each school is an important consideration.

A practical way of breaking down the school improvement process is given by Ekholm and Trier (1987). Building on earlier work, they summarise the sub-processes of school improvement as consisting of initiation, implementation and institutionalisation. Initiation, which can take between six months and two years, is where new ideas are proposed and commitment is sought. Although typical at the beginning of an initiative, it continues to occur throughout the improvement process. Implementation involves putting the new ideas into practice, through specific procedures or a formal plan, and requires sustained attention if it is to be successful. Finally, institutionalisation refers to the ways in which changes becomes stabilised, and built-in to the normal routines of school life, and when combined with implementation, can take two years or more.

Bollen (1996) suggests a five phase model⁵, and Beeker (1989) suggests that there may be an implementation gap between policy and practice. More recently, Fullan (1992a) identifies the key features of effective implementation processes as being vision building, evolutionary planning, empowerment, interaction and staff development, monitoring

⁵ Preparation; diagnostic phase; strategic phase; developmental stage; and evaluation phase

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and restructuring. All these models imply that school improvement takes a significant amount of time. Similarly, the specialist literature states that school improvement does not offer any quick fixes (Hopkins et al, 1994; Leithwood and Steinbach, 1993; Fullan, 1991; 1982), and therefore those who are committed to improving schools should prepare themselves for the long haul (Gray et al, 1996, page 175).

An attempt to ground school improvement principles in particularly practical contexts is made by Joyce (1991). He identifies five doorways to school improvement: collegiality; the study of research findings; site-specific action research; curriculum initiatives; and the development of teaching strategies. He sees each approach providing a range of ways of getting into school improvement, and addressing a different aspect of the school's culture. A similar summary of approaches to school improvement is provided by Weindling (1999b). He identifies the most effective strategies as being target setting; increasing learning time; additional support; changes in classroom organisation; use of information technology; improved use of homework; and greater parental involvement. This analysis offers yet more examples of sub-processes within the super-process of school improvement.

Hopkins (1997) also highlights the need for practical approaches when he refers to what he calls one of the great fallacies of educational change, namely that policy directives directly impact on pupil achievement.

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Based on his experience, and reviews of the research, Hopkins (1997) argues that it is changes in the curriculum, teaching methods, grouping practices and assessment procedures that have the greatest potential to improve pupil performance. Perhaps one of his most practical conclusions is that when national reforms, the internal conditions in the school, and enhanced classroom practice are pulling in the same direction, the school has the greatest chance of enhancing pupil achievement.

As Ouston (1999) observes, school effectiveness and school improvement research, known as SESI, can be mutually supportive. However, Reynolds (1997) suggests that, with the exception of some work in North America, there is a lack of coordination between the two, mainly owing to the historical background of the participating researchers and practitioners.

Reynolds et al (1993) offer a comprehensive typographical analysis of the differences between school effectiveness and school improvement research, which can loosely be interpreted as mirroring the systems-phenomenology divide (Gray, 1982). Equating school effectiveness research and school improvement research with quantitative and qualitative methods, and with a focus on outcomes and processes respectively, may typify the two research paradigms, but the analysis is not strictly accurate. For example, Gray (1995), working within the realms of school effectiveness research, suggests that an appropriate

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classification of quality indicators for schools consists of academic progress, pupil satisfaction and pupil-teacher relationships, the latter two of which rely almost exclusively on qualitative research.

The complementary nature of school effectiveness and school improvement research, with school effectiveness research providing the rigour, and school improvement research a practical approach that incorporates soft measures, has given birth to a number of projects that combine the two perspectives. The Improving the Quality of Education for All (IQEA) project, involving both Reynolds and Hopkins, who dominate the field, is the best-known example of such a collaboration.

A distinctive IQEA feature was the use of a 'cadre', a coordinating group that linked the whole school, groups and individuals, through a school improvement effort. This strategy directly reflects the project team's findings that the three levels of the school, groups, and individuals, are mutually supportive in very effective schools. Despite this conclusion, Hopkins et al (1994) observe that a destabilisation phase, or phase of internal turbulence, must be gone through by schools who undertake a school improvement journey, and they suggests that it is this destabilisation that poses the greatest threat to successful cultural change within the school. This uncomfortable phase can often parallel a meaning making stage by individual staff, a time during which they work out what certain changes mean for them, modify their understandings

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accordingly, and begin to change their actions in terms of such as teaching styles.

From this more inclusive IQEA perspective, which acknowledges the contributions of both school effectiveness and school improvement research, Hopkins et al (1994) offer a more informed list of the most popular and most successful school intervention strategies. It includes staff development; increasing the involvement of pupils, parents and governors in the creation of school policy; inquiry and reflection to clarify and share meanings and enhance professional judgments; leadership throughout the school and creating time limited working groups; coordination; and collaborative planning which has resources specifically allocated. One constant in all these strategies is the headteacher, as it is the headteacher who must lead and manage a school during its school improvement journey.

Hall and Southworth (1997) argue that headteachers' professional leadership is being recast into the role of resident inspector, leading internal reviews that focus firmly on school outcomes, rather than exemplifying excellent classroom practice. Alternatively, Blum and Butler (1989, page 17) assert that the headteacher is in the best position to foster school improvement efforts, and Stegö et al (1987, page 64) define a headteachers' major task as an integrative function, specifically relating improvement to existing operations, even though many actions of

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school leaders are invisible to colleagues (Stegö et al, 1987, page 45). Holmes and Wynne (1989) actually make a distinction between a good leader, who achieves good things, and an effective leader, who gets results in terms of effectiveness measures. They also suggest that leadership has as much to do with the working environment as the quality of the leader, and therefore that a particular teacher, or group of teachers, can make good or effective leadership in a school impossible (Holmes and Wynne, 1989, page 68).

Given that effective communication is an essential prerequisite to school improvement, Whitaker (1998) identifies four specific communication roles through which colleagues can contribute to the vision building, or defining of the core purposes of a school (Davies and Ellison, 2001). These are 'understander' (developing multiple perspectives through trying to understand the meanings different people allocate to actions in school); 'friend' (relating to colleagues empathetically); 'mediator' (helping to solve difficulties and resolve conflict); and 'leader' (articulating shared experiences in order to identify collective needs and focus on goals and aspirations). Whitaker (1998, page 65) also refers to leadership that brings participants into active collaboration in the vision building process. Such leadership involves managing attention (linking individual activities to visions); managing meaning (helping individuals grasp the meaning of their roles in relation to whole school intentions); managing trust (showing confidence in colleagues); and managing self (accepting

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responsibility for collaboration in the creation of the school's vision and exhibiting commitment to continuous professional learning).

What is particularly interesting about Whitaker's (1998) analyses is their focus on the inner worlds of colleagues, their subjective experiences of reality, rather than their outer actions, or the quality of their performances or actions. Hopkins et al (1994) also intimate the importance of the subjective aspects of school improvement, when they refer to the importance of teachers living with ambiguity, through considering alternative view points, and celebrating success, as these activities maintain enthusiasm, and generates ownership of, and clarity about, the school's aims and values. They suggest that, within the school improvement process, a personal debate is necessary, in order to find personal meaning at an individual or personal level. Later, Hopkins (1999, page 8) argues that successful school improvement draws on teachers' own experiences (as well as theory and research) when formulating strategies, and this helps establish a rationale for any changes in the minds of those expected to bring them about.

When examining why educational reforms often fail, Fullan (1997) suggests that one factor is the assumptions by change agents that the rationality of how to work through a change process is essential, but that the emotional commitment to make that change work is irrelevant. To be successful, change agents need both the desiring to make a particular

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change work, and the skills to facilitate the process of change. They need to be open to the multiple realities of those directly involved in change, as these realities have the potential to alter the direction of the change for the better, and enable otherwise hidden implementation problems to be explored and addressed. It is essential that change agents understand and value the ideas and experiences of all those associated with change. The extent to which such so called non-rational approaches are adopted in schools is discussed further by Ouston (1998a).

The key attributes of what is known as educational, educative or pedagogical leadership in the school improvement era are identified by Bush and Coleman (2000). Through drawing on the research of influential workers in the field, (notably that of Goldring and Pasternak, 1994; Duignan and Macpherson, 1992; Fidler, 1997a; Northfield, 1992; and Sergiovanni, 1998), they argue that such leaders should provide a positive and collaborative (as opposed to collegial (Hargreaves, 1995, page 35)) teaching culture. This is achieved by encouraging, empowering and supervising classroom teachers, and stressing professional development (particularly reflection on classroom practice). Harris and Russ (1994, page 18) also suggest that a culture of collaboration, in which learning occurs at a number of levels, is the optimum setting for effective school improvement.

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Ultimately, in a school improvement context, leadership must be defined as the development of culture, which means building behavioural norms that people believe in, identify with, support personally and that give meaning to their actions. However, on a cautionary note, attention is drawn (Mortimore and Whitty, 1997) to the fact that there is a particular element of the school's culture, namely the proportion of pupils who come from disadvantaged homes, that in practice can severely retard the school improvement process. They propose that equal opportunities for pupils in schools can be blocked if positive action to address any inequalities is not taken. Hargreaves (1995, page 41) suggests that school cultures may be a cause, object or effect of school improvement, or even all three. Gray et al (1996, page 176) compare the role of school cultures with a school's capacity to improve. They emphasise the nebulous nature of the concepts, and the difficulties of operationalising them in terms of causal mechanisms, but still highlight their centrality to the school improvement process.

The notion of a school's culture, and its integral role in the school improvement process, is fundamental to any understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school. Also, despite difficulties in establishing direct causal relationships between specific actions and positive cultural changes (and therefore school improvement), plans need to be made to address a school's long term and short term needs.

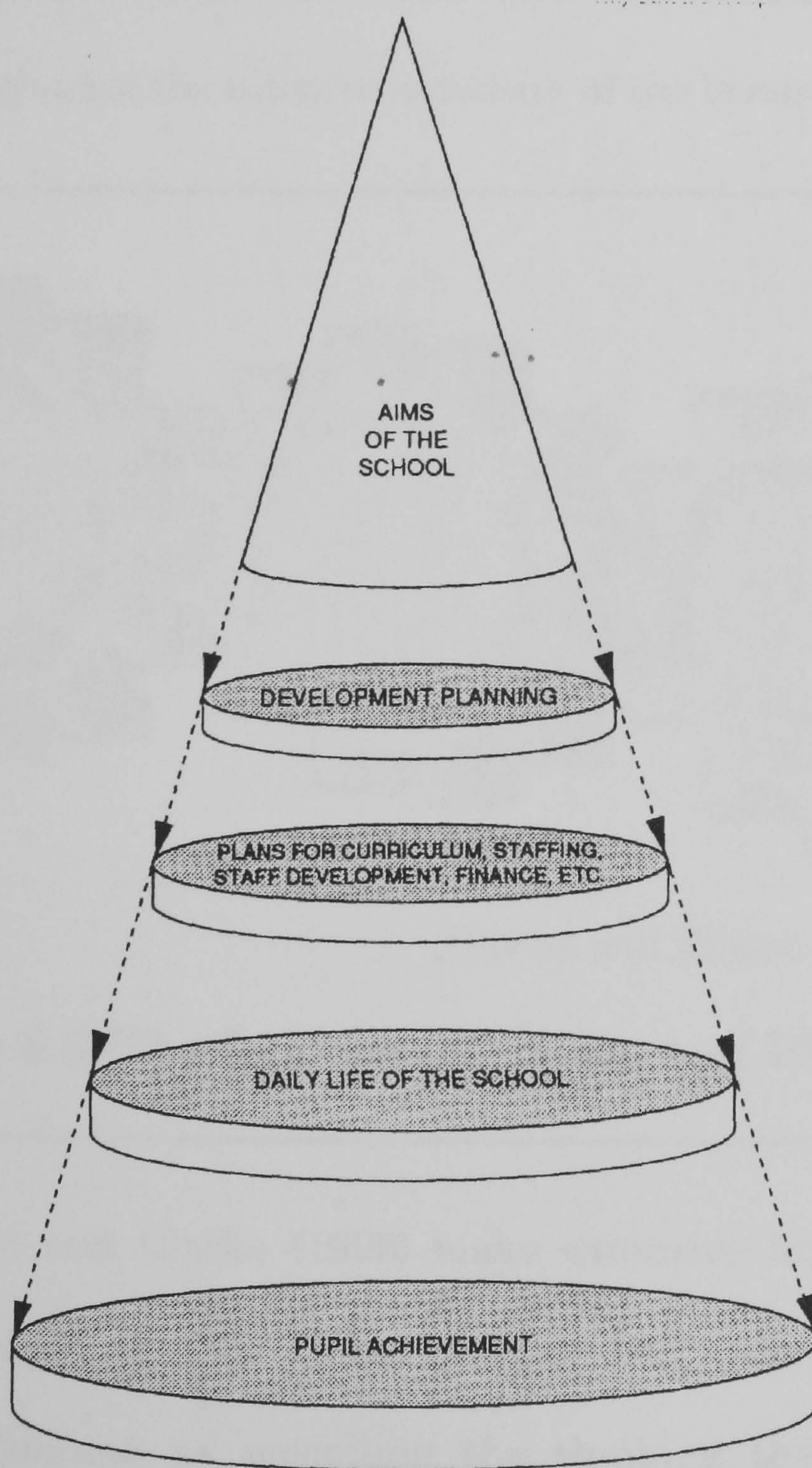
6.3.3 Development Planning

MacGilchrist et al (1995) suggest that school development planning can be used as a school improvement strategy, and Preedy (1993) that development planning is a way of putting to good use, and testing, our knowledge about school management. Consequently, development or improvement planning, as an integral part of day-to-day school management, is about ensuring maintenance as well as supporting development. Development planning is not simply a straightforward set of techniques that can be applied directly in any school, it is more a process of empowerment whereby each school finds its own approach to applying development planning principles (Hargreaves and Hopkins, 1994, page viii).

Southworth (1999, page 53) states we should acknowledge that school development, like leadership, is essentially a dynamic, subtle, varied and complicated sets of processes, and therefore we can not be sure about the causal connections between them. Fullan (2000) even warns that despite the emphasis on school-based management, success can only happen if the infrastructure is strong enough to support it. Levačić et al (1999) contrast two different but equally effective processes: deliberate and detailed strategic planning, with its emphasis on high predictability, and a synoptic and emergent strategy, that responds to emerging events. Development planning, in all its forms, does not of itself necessarily guarantee school improvement.

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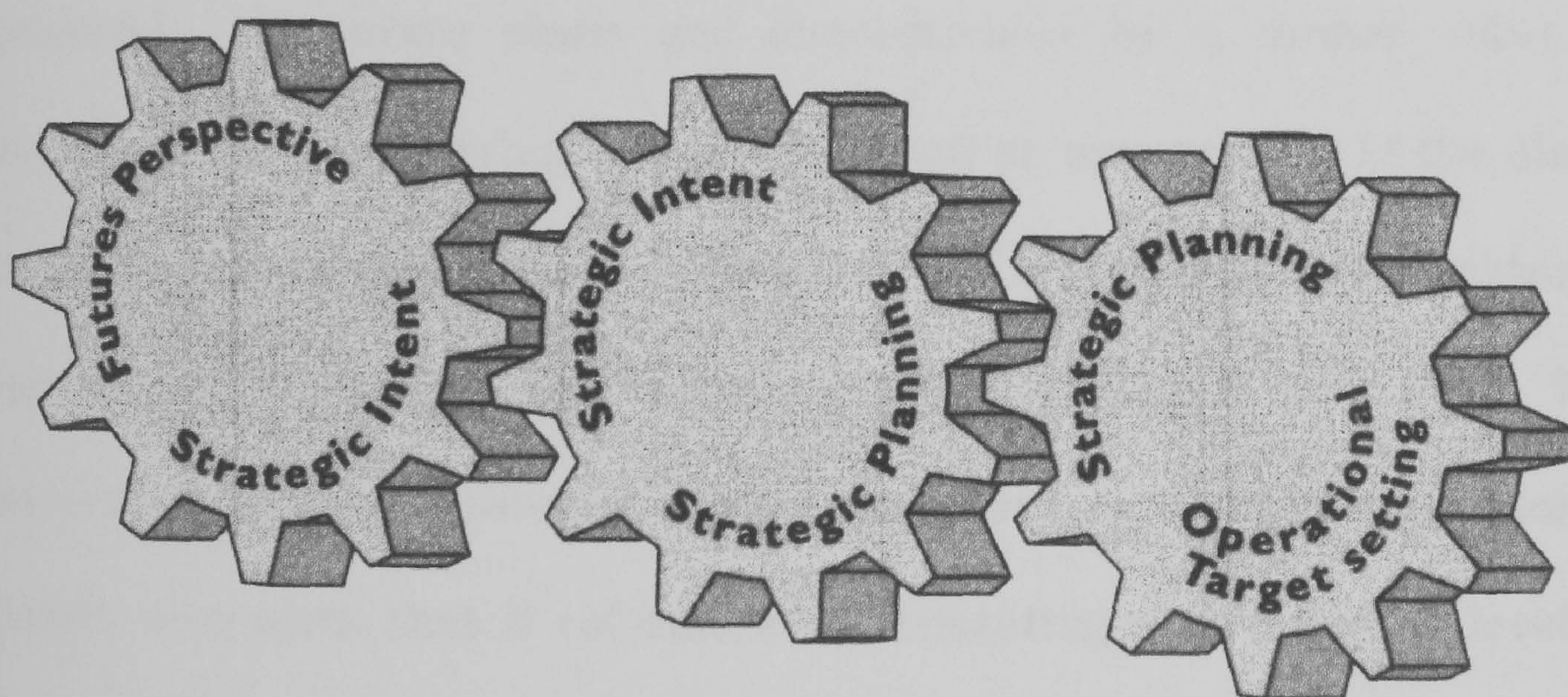
The increased emphasis on change in schools does mean that school managers now approach the planning process more deliberately, and consequently work through the audit, construction, implementation and evaluation (or as Brighouse and Woods (1999) prefer to put it, speculation and evaluation) processes more self-consciously. Ideally, planning becomes integrated into the routine activities of the school, as it focuses school aims on pupil achievement (Figure 6.5).



(Hargreaves and Hopkins, 1994, page 11)

Figure 6.5: The Development Planning Cone

To be effective, in terms of maximising pupil achievement, development planning must be directed by the aims of the school, and where appropriate give rise to a suite of other plans, (relating to the curriculum, staffing, continuous professional development (CPD), and resources), all of which impact on the daily life of the school. Davies and Ellison (1999) refer to various levels of planning. They describe these levels as futures perspective, strategic intent/strategic planning, and operational target setting (or action planning), all of which need to be addressed at the same time. They emphasise the integrated nature of the levels in Figure 6.6.



(Davies and Ellison, 1999, page 176)

Figure 6.6: The Integrated Nature of Planning

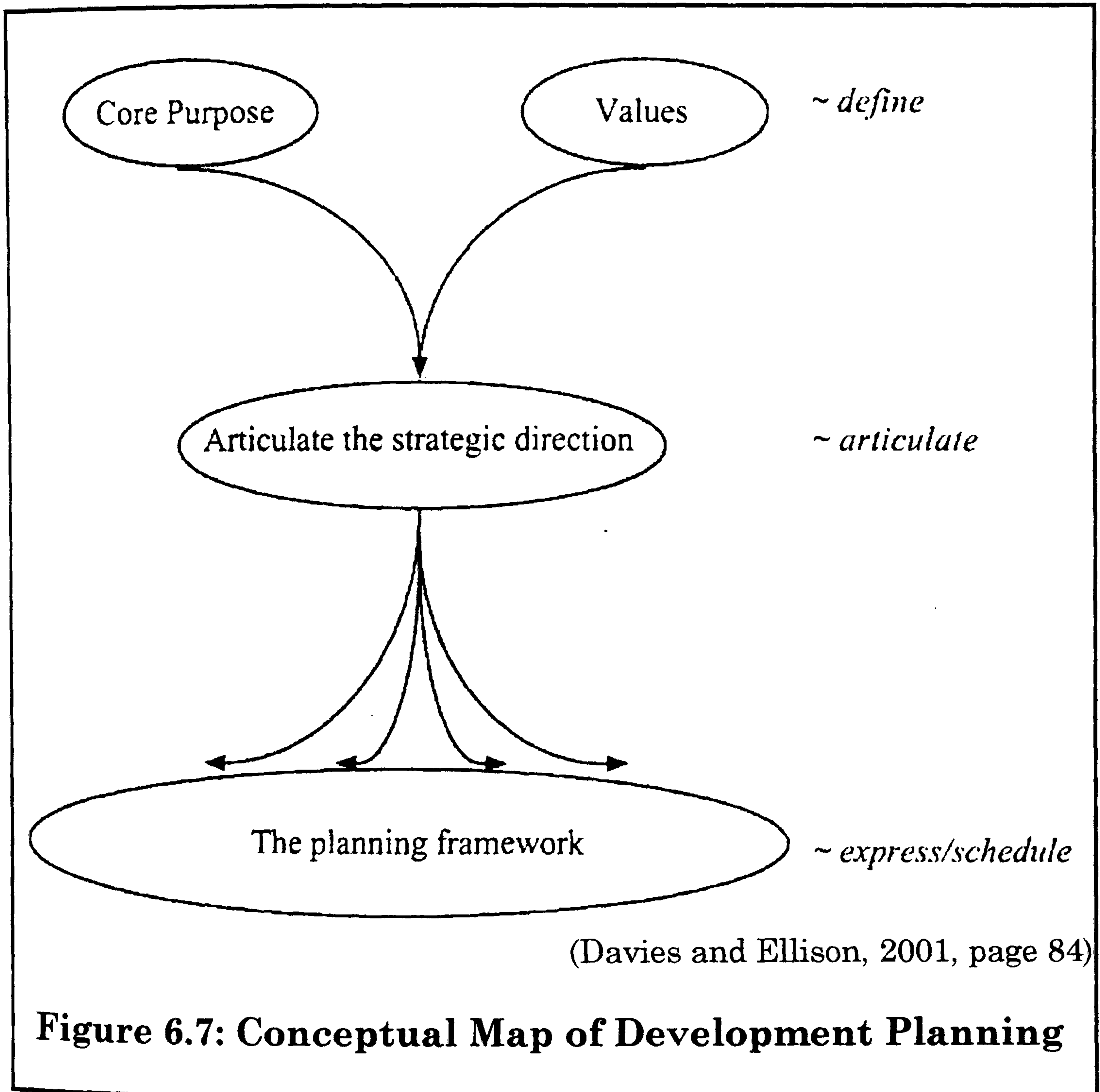
Similarly, Boyle and Clarke (1998) make extensive links between the development planning and target setting processes. They describe development planning as modelling the thinking that guides target setting, and as a means of focusing action to meet targets.

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At the extreme, Green (2000) states that unless the development plan is owned by staff and pupils, and represents a living embodiment of the school's mission, it is effectively worthless. Similarly, Handscomb (2001) warns against the danger of the school development plan and yearly planning cycle overshadowing the development planning process. He suggests that the plan itself simply helps a school manage predictable change, and reassure external agencies that the school is on the right track. MacGilchrist et al (1995) also argue that not all types of school development plans have the potential to help schools improve. Their research suggests that only what they define as corporate plans have that potential. Corporate plans are characterised by a united effort to improve; shared ownership and involvement; an appreciation of the plan's multi-purpose nature; a focus on teaching and learning; and the linking of appropriate financial resources and staff development activities. The importance of these features is also recognised by Everard and Morris (1996), who warn that if reformers are operating at a different level of thought from the people to be affected by change, the plan will fail.

Drawing on her experience as Chief Executive of HTI, Evans (2001) suggests that school leaders find it difficult to stand back from development planning (which she defines as how you can best spend the school's budget) and move to truly strategic planning, or blue skies/futures thinking (where you would like to be in five years, and how you intend to get there). In their later work, Davies and Ellison (2001)

also encourage schools to move beyond a functional or document focused approach to school development planning, to a more holistic planning process, reflecting their status as mature self-managing institutions. They offer a conceptual map (Figure 6.7) which illustrates the interconnected nature and flow of ideas between the various stages.



The development planning process can provide a school with a framework that brings together external initiatives and school priorities in a way that both exposes them to fundamental questions about the school's purpose and direction, and provides a bias for action that is focused on the classroom. Leigh (1994) draws attention to the conflicting advice

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regarding change in schools, but as Preedy (1993) asserts, where schools recognise that development planning can be a means of achieving an appropriate school culture, rather than just implementing innovations, it will improve their capacity to manage change.

However, there are potential pitfalls that schools must avoid if they are to realise these benefits (Hargreaves and Hopkins, 1994). These include treating development planning as an extra activity, underestimating the need to manage development planning, not recognising that the purpose of development planning is to create the conditions for change, and producing a development plan document at the expense of the development planning process. If schools are successful in avoiding these pitfalls, and ensure school improvement leads to more effective teaching and learning, Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991) argue that they can be regarded as true self-managing schools. They even identify a number of headteacher attributes that are likely to make a school effective in terms of development planning⁶. The perspectives headteachers take on development planning, and the extent to which they regard it as a useful or effective tool, will directly affect their understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school.

⁶ A school is likely to be effective in terms of development planning when its headteacher: inspires commitment; co-ordinates the work of the school through roles and structures; is visibly involved in planning and implementation; listens and responds positively to the ideas and complaints of others; is a skilled communicator; has the capacity to stand back; cares passionately but has the ability to appraise objectively; emphasises the quality of teaching and learning; is enthusiastic about innovation, but controls the pace of change; and keeps paperwork to a minimum (Hargreaves and Hopkins, 1994, page 20).

6.4 Conclusion

References to the need to create the conditions for change, ensuring effective teaching and learning, avoiding managing change in isolation, becoming truly self-managing, and the nature of the recommended headteacher attributes in the development planning literature, all serve to illustrate the inter-related nature of the principles associated with becoming a learning organisation, the school improvement process and development planning. When combined with the centrality of learning and meaning making in all three bodies of knowledge, the 'triangulation' of the key ideas, especially relating to capacity building, is complete.

What is accepted or taken from these developing fields of knowledge, either collectively or separately, will directly contribute to an abstracted understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school that focuses on the inter-dependence of pupil, professional and organisational learning. This abstracted understanding is curiously indirect or homoeopathic in nature, in that it is concerned as much with enabling, stimulating or initiating change through the creation of fertile, supportive or encouraging conditions for change, as with the realisation of change itself. As individuals, groups, and organisations as a whole evolve, so will their capacity to craft change, in direct proportion to their learning, and the meaning they attribute to that learning.

Chapter Seven

Results and Analysis

7.1 Overview

7.2 Primary Data: Empirical Understandings

7.2.1 Empirical Based Categories of Description

7.2.2 An Outcome Space for Empirical Understandings

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7.4 Empirical and Literature Understandings

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7.5 Conclusion

7.1 Overview

The five categories of description, or ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve the school, that have emerged through a phenomenographic analysis of the empirical data, are presented. Their format is elucidated, and the coding system that locates data segments within the collective data explained. Each category is illustrated with a number of data segments, and discussed with particular reference to its referential and structural aspects. The referential and structural aspects of all five categories are considered simultaneously, and used to determine the logical and hierarchical relationships between them, which culminates in the production of an outcome space. The validity, reliability and quality of the findings are discussed within the content of a report documenting the process followed.

The rationale for analysing literature phenomenographically is presented, prior to a discussion of the significance of applying a part of the phenomenographic approach. The process of analysis is then documented, and the resulting four categories of description, or literature based abstracted understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school, introduced. An outcome space is formed, based on a referential-structural analysis of the understandings, and the validity and reliability of the process discussed. Finally, the literature understandings are compared and contrasted with the empirical understandings, before being amalgamated into a single outcome space.

7.2 Primary Data: Empirical Understandings

7.2.1 Empirical Based Categories of Description

A phenomenographic analysis of the empirical data, as detailed in Section 7.2.3, reveals five categories of description, or empirical understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school (Figure 7.1). Each category of description is defined in terms of its focus and approach, its referential and structural aspects, its 'what' and 'how'. The dominant intentions inherent in the understanding, and the main actions through which the intentions might be pursued, (which correspond to the category's external and internal horizons respectively), add detail to the category's structural aspect.

For each category, data segments have been selected that are both representative of the category, and collectively exemplify the variation within that category (variation that does not constitute a qualitative difference). Repetition has been avoided, and where phrases could be interpreted in a manner inconsistent with a category definition, the context of the individual response has guided its interpretation. Where the context of a selected data segment is ambiguous, clarification has been given in square brackets. By exemplifying categories using data segments, comprehensive descriptions gradually emerge, descriptions that are based on direct reference to the data. However, the descriptions remains reductionist in nature, with meaning and structure intact, but with the flavours, scents, colours and other idiosyncratic nuances typical

of personalised understandings, as born by individuals, omitted (Marton and Booth, 1997, page 114).

Definition of Category A
Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on increasing knowledge. A diagnostic approach is adopted, with the intention of expanding awareness about the workings of the school, and learning from experience, through identifying what information needs to be collected, how it is to be collected, and evaluating what is collected.
Definition of Category B
Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on stimulating a more dynamic environment. An incentive based approach is adopted, with the intention of motivating teachers and pupils, and involving them in enterprising projects and experiments, through encouragement, praise and rewards.
Definition of Category C
Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision. An inclusive approach is adopted, with the intention that all members of the school community communicate sensitively, and co-operate openly, through listening to, responding to, sharing and refining ideas.
Definition of Category D
Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on expectations and quality standards. An enforcement approach is adopted, with the intention of directing activity to key responsibilities, and ensuring that they are addressed, through publicising clear success criteria, and assessing outcomes and processes.
Definition of Category E
Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on co-ordinating initiatives. A development planning approach is adopted, with the intention of ensuring that developments are prioritised, logically scheduled and mutually supportive, through producing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating an action plan.

Figure 7.1: Empirical Based Categories of Description

Each data segment is followed by a code that corresponds to its location within the research data, as expressed in Appendix Two, made up of four elements. The first element, a capital letter, indicates the respondent, 'A' to 'R', and the second, a number from '1' to '8', identifies an area for improvement specified by the respondent. The third element, a bracketed lower-case Roman numeral, from '(i)' to '(iv)', refers to a particular action designed to address a specified area for improvement, and the fourth, where present, is either an 's', which refers to a success criteria for an action, or a 'p', which describes a personal contribution required from the headteacher. For example, 'G4(ii)s' indicates that the associated data segment comes from Subject 'G', and gives the success indicator for the second action designed to respond to the fourth area for improvement. By using this coding system, the spread of the data segments exemplifying each category can more easily be seen, and each individual data segment can be traced back to its source in order to review relevant contextual information.

Definition of Category A

Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on increasing knowledge. A diagnostic approach is adopted, with the intention of expanding awareness about the workings of the school, and learning from experience, through identifying what information needs to be collected, how it is to be collected, and evaluating what is collected.

In support of this category, data segments that consider various contexts, ideas, data structures or elements of the school as potential sources of knowledge are identified. Reference is sometimes made to the processing

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or use of information (and data), which is done in a variety of ways, and for a range of purposes.

“Visit schools where boys and girls perform equally well. Introduce staff to the need to be aware of different learning styles and boys’ tendency to be less tolerant of inappropriate styles.” *A2(i) - A2(ii)*

“Use pupil/school research to understand their responses [to proposed curriculum developments].” *B2s*

“Knowing the extent of the problem.” *D1(i)s*

“Identify the components of good practice, document and share.” *D2(iii)*

“Have a clear understanding of the curriculum needs of the school via audit.” *D7p*

“Investigate the use of time at registration with a view to developing pupil learning skills.” *E6(v)*

“Clear data on performance of different groups leading to further action targets.” *F5(ii)s*

“Establish ‘Working Group’ to seek out ‘best practice’ in promoting increase in achievement of boys. Produce School Policy.” *H1(i)*

“Review time table structure to reduce movement.” *H4(ii)*

“External consultants to write reports on Science, Technology, ICT and Languages.” *I3(iii)*

“Systematically collect data from past 2/3 academic years to prove underachievement of boys.” *J2(i)*

“Ensure that whenever possible control groups are set up to provide reliable data for comparison.” *J2(iii)*

“Produce information viz value added/residuals and explain to staff. Staff understand link (and limitations of data) between scores and pupil potential.” *K5(ii) and K5s*

“Review budget of school – look for savings. Review staffing and grouping arrangements. Re-direct resources gained into classroom resources in identified areas.” *M6(i) - M6(iii)*

“Instigate a review of teaching methodologies (probably faculty-based).” *N5(i)*

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“Mini OFSTED the Design and Technology area to identify good/weak practice.” *O7(i)*

“Analyse exam results over time and especially regarding gender. Feed the findings into the work of the Curriculum Coherence group and the Behaviour Management group.” *Q3(i) - Q3(ii)*

The data extracts show that increasing knowledge, in terms of finding out more about, and deepening understandings of, a wide range of aspects of school life, is a focus within the data, and therefore ‘increasing knowledge’ constitutes the ‘what’ or referential aspect of a category of description. Similarly, the extracts suggest that this is done in order better to appreciate the status quo, as well as to inform future activity. Consequently, as both these applications can be interpreted as contributing towards a diagnostic approach to school improvement, ‘diagnostic’ defines the ‘how’ or structural aspect of the category of description. ‘The intention of expanding awareness about the workings of the school, and learning from experience’ is defined as the category’s external horizon, and ‘identifying what information needs to be collected, how it is to be collected, and evaluating what is collected’ the internal horizon.

At first sight, increasing knowledge can seem to be a partial or inactive way of understanding what needs to be done to improve the school. However, the resulting greater awareness of the school’s workings will affect the thinking, and therefore decisions and actions, of all those involved, and hence contribute directly to improving the school. It is the

fact that improvements can be expected to follow as a direct consequence of the changes in people's thinking, brought about as a result of increased knowledge, that confirms the independent existence of this way of understanding.

Definition of Category B

Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on stimulating a more dynamic environment. An incentive based approach is adopted, with the intention of motivating teachers and pupils, and involving them in enterprising projects and experiments, through encouragement, praise and rewards.

Here, elements of the data set that describe a stimulating and exciting culture, with different things happening in different areas, are selected. Data segments that show how this way of working is encouraged and rewarded are also included.

“Create a culture in which excitement in learning rates above short term progress.” *A1(iii)*

“Going into classes and telling teachers they are wonderful (especially when they are!). Enjoying the ‘fun teaching’ of really good teachers.” *A1p*

“An internal feeling among SMT that you are riding a tiger instead of coasting along in a Ford Popular.” *A5s*

“Encourage those trying and publicly praise successful. Encourage RISK TAKING.” *B6(iv)*

“Reward and motivate by outward bound, alternative experiences.” *B7(iii)*

“Reward good teaching, direct others to it. Be very visible in relation to good teaching.” *D2p*

“Good teachers supporting the others:
planning; lesson observation.” *H3(ii)*

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“It should be a clear school policy that ‘top’ teachers are rewarded either internally or when seeking external promotion.” *H3p*

“Different pilot schemes are launched by different curriculum areas.” *J2(ii)s*

“Encourage team teaching which, if properly prepared, can be a stimulating experience as well as a change from the inevitable drudgery of classroom teaching.” *L2(iv)*

“The encouragement of pilot schemes whereby a group of staff teaching certain subjects invite new curriculum policy.” *L7p*

“Encourage innovative ways to raise levels of attainment through programme of activities. Monitor and evaluate programme. Reward co-ordinator?” *O6(ii) and O6(iv)*

The focus on ‘stimulating a more dynamic environment’ defines the referential aspect of a category of description. References to encouragement, praise and rewards (and the absence of any reference to accountability) give rise to a totally positive or ‘incentive based’ approach, which forms the structural aspect. The external horizon consists of ‘the intention of motivating teachers and pupils, and involving them in enterprising projects and experiments’, while the internal horizon is concerned with the contributions ‘encouragement, praise and rewards’ make to the endeavours.

Category B reflects a high regard for professional autonomy, and sees risk-taking and experimentation as essential aspects of improving a school. Encouraging initiative, stimulating the imagination, and releasing individual potential generally, are taken to be more important than the need to co-ordinate activities across the school.

Definition of Category C

Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision. An inclusive approach, is adopted with the intention that all members of the school community communicate sensitively, and co-operate openly, through listening to, responding to, sharing and refining ideas.

Data segments that make reference to pupils, staff, governors and parents communicating, making value judgements, setting policy or formulating a vision for the school, are presented. In many cases, involvement, sharing, agreement and ownership are emphasised or implied in the data.

“Involve children in deciding what and how they should learn.”
A1(iv)

“Convene a group of concerned teachers (and local cultural/religious leaders?) to work on the spiritual commonality (and contrasts) between differing cultural traditions.” *A6(i)*

“Agree with School Council and staff a new Rewards/Discipline policy. Get agreement from parents.” *B3(i)*

“Pupils/staff/Governors to decide in partnership what they want their school to be and what they want to achieve in next 3 years.”
B4(i)

“Whole school consultation (Staff, Parents, Pupils, Governors) to agree the ‘Vision’, ‘Mission’ and ‘Aims’ of the school.” *E1(i)*

“Governors and staff conference to define vision for school and identify areas for improvement.” *F1(i)*

“Big Picture. Wide consultation and involvement. Mission Statement and new SDP in place with precise targets for all.”
I1, I1(i) and I1s

“Establish Student Council. Staff/Student Working Group – task to create expectation/codes.” *I5(i) - I5(ii)*

“Draw up a curriculum plan for the school ensuring full involvement of staff and Governors.” *J4(i)*

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“Governors, staff and pupils need to share a vision of where the school is going, with the Head providing strong leadership.” *L0*

“Group meetings with employers and other interest groups when a genuine sharing of concerns can run alongside the public relations policy mentioned earlier.” *L8(iii)*

“Identify characteristics of good teaching which are “owned” by all teachers. Shared lesson observations. Focused INSET.”
R2(ii) - R2(iv)

‘Stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision’ forms the referential aspect of a category of description. Re-establishing in this context means establish anew, as the values, policies and vision are likely to have been established before, and the processes will need to be repeated whenever the context or staff changes significantly. As all stakeholders are invited to contribute to developments throughout the school, and not just to those developments that they are directly involved with, the approach can be described as ‘inclusive’, and therefore ‘inclusive’ defines the category’s structural aspect. ‘The intention that all members of the school community communicate sensitively, and co-operate openly’, forms the external horizon, and ‘listening to, responding to, sharing and refining ideas’ the internal horizon.

This way of understanding requires engagement at a general level, and does not imply a familiarity with the detailed application of principles across every aspect of the school. The emphasis is on people rather than systems, on leadership rather than management, and the leadership style is more transformational than transactional.

Definition of Category D

Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on expectations and quality standards. An enforcement approach is adopted, with the intention of directing activity to key responsibilities, and ensuring that they are addressed, through publicising clear success criteria, and assessing outcomes and processes.

To support this category, data segments that refer to the setting of overt expectations and quality standards are identified. In many cases, indications that pressure will be applied, and action taken, to realise the expectations and standards, is also clearly evident.

“Indoctrinate pupils and fresh staff into what to do.” *B3(ii)*

“Create processes and resources for dealing with pupils and ensure they are kept to.” *B3(iii)*

“Give clear warnings as to unsatisfactory performance and take competence procedures.” *B6(iii)*

“Establish regular line management observation and appraisal.” *C3(ii)*

“Establish cycle of Quality Assurance.” *C3(iii)*

“Challenge ‘coasting’ within lessons.” *D5p*

“Ensure departments follow Senior Management’s Curriculum Strategy.” *D7p*

“An explicit set of criteria adopted by all to raise pupil and staff understanding of learning. An agreed lesson planning sheet which allows middle managers to raise the effectiveness of their department.” *G2s*

“Fresh start needed! Change rules and regulations where necessary. Launch ‘new style’ zero tolerance of those who do not comply.” *H2(i)*

“Line management sharpened via revised Roles and Responsibilities.” *I2*

“Increased consistency of Teaching and Learning measured by monitoring against criteria.” *I3s*

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“HoDs to submit plans to monitor departments performance against Department Development Plans. SoW to be submitted by agreed date and to a common format; Curriculum Deputy to report to Head.” *K1s*

“Identification of ineffective staff through observation. Implement informal capability when necessary leading to formal if no improvement.” *M1(i) - M1(ii)*

“Apply pressure – subtle or direct on departmental HoDs who are not showing value added.” *O4p*

“Celebrate good practice, embark on competency procedures where substantial weak teaching is found.” *O7(ii)*

“Clear expectations posted in all rooms, highlighted in assemblies and tutor times and made known to parents.” *P1(i)*

Here ‘expectations and quality standards’ forms the referential aspect of a category of description, and as these expectations and quality standards are enforced across the school, an ‘enforcement’ approach constitutes the category’s structural aspect. ‘The intention of directing activity to key responsibilities, and ensuring that they are addressed’ constitutes the external horizon, and ‘publicising clear success criteria, and assessing outcomes and processes’ the internal horizon.

Rules and regulations, and getting tasks done in ways that demonstrate success or improvement, are typical of this way of understanding. People are held to account in the short-term, with all the implications that this attitude has for limiting risk-taking and long term development. Judgements tend to be made in the blunt terms of success or failure, rather than by considering what can be learned from an experience. Motivation is addressed through encouraging people to move away from

an undesirable situation with little emphasis on moving towards a desirable one. The leadership style is transactional in nature, incorporating direct accountability through line management.

Definition of Category E

Understanding what needs to be done to improve the school as focusing on co-ordinating initiatives. A development planning approach is adopted, with the intention of ensuring that developments are prioritised, logically scheduled and mutually supportive, through producing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating an action plan.

There are many references in the following data segments to including changes within a plan, or linking developments in some way. In many cases, these draw attention to a formal school improvement or development planning process.

“Evaluate progress.” *A4(ii)s*

“Having a School Development Plan that says things you could never have thought of.” *A5s*

“Review all practices and set changes within SDP and SD [Staff Development]. Create clear time-table and ‘train’ governors.”
B2(ii) - B2(iii)

“Blend into SDP and then get HoDs and HoYs to create SIMPLE costed plans with time limits against these.” *B4(ii)*

“Create SD [Staff Development] plan based on needs of curriculum.” *C2(i)*

“Make SD [Staff Development] focus of SDP.” *C2(ii)*

“Include OFSTED Action Plan Key Issues as priorities.” *E1(iii)*

“Draft financial policy to reflect the needs of the curriculum.”
E7(iii)

“Link to School Development Plan and follow through in departments and year teams.” *F1(iv)*

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“SMT to re-establish the aims of the school and agree co-ordinated policies for implementation.” *H6(iii)*

“New SMT and HoD job descriptions. Linked to SDP and targets/objectives.” *I2(i) - I2(ii)*

“Ensure that each HoD does a SWOT analysis on their department based on the OFSTED report and then draw up a department development plan.” *J0*

“Department Development Plans required to reflect [School] Development Plan.” *K3*

“Action plans submitted by staff which supports school improvements – these to be monitored by HoD and SMT link.” *K8s*

“Set up a process for development planning which involves the whole school. Determine the school’s vision, principles, values, objectives etc. Produce a new Development/Improvement Plan for the next 3 years. All staff and governors feel involved. All staff and governors understand where the school is, where it is going, how it is going to get there and when it will get there. All staff and governors understand their role and responsibilities in implementing the plan successfully.” *N1(i) - N1(iii) and N1s*

“Head needs to be seen as making this [teaching methodology] a priority for the school (in Development Plan and on the ground).” *N5p*

“Implementation of changes. Phased implementation.” *Q5(iii) and Q5(iii)s*

“A coherent and forward looking SDP “owned” by all the various constituents in the school.” *R1s*

A focus on ‘co-ordinating initiatives’ forms the referential aspect of a category of description, and as this tends to be accomplished by working through a development planning process, a ‘development planning’ approach defines the structural aspect of this category of description.

“The intention of ensuring that developments are prioritised, logically scheduled and mutually supportive’ forms the external horizon, and

‘producing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating an action plan’ the internal horizon.

In this way of understanding what needs to be done to improve the school, a long-term perspective is adopted, and therefore short-term threats and opportunities are considered against a wider context. Management (of systems) rather than leadership (of people) predominates, although as long as the prioritisation stage of the development planning process is successful, effectiveness as well as efficiency can be expected.

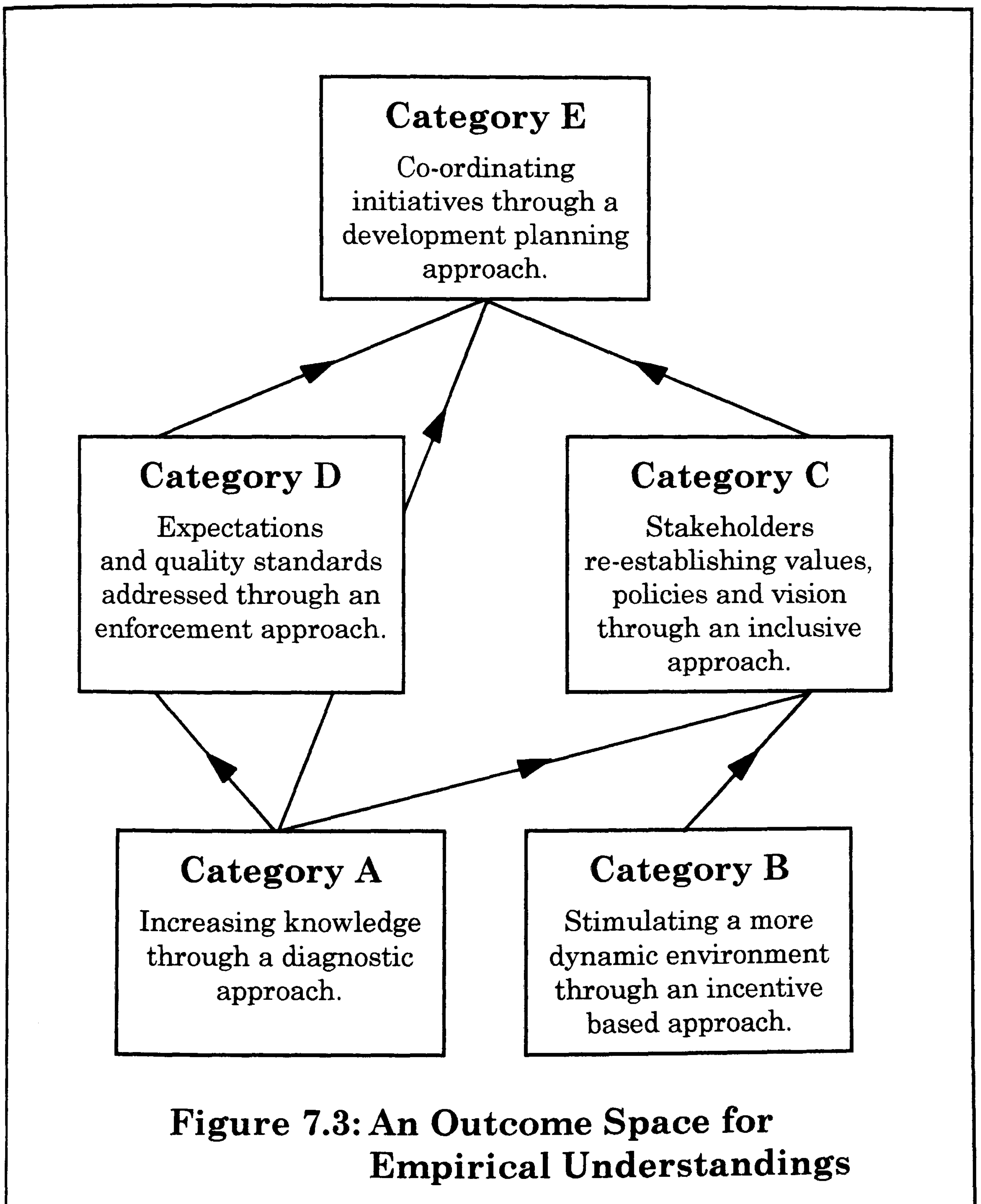
7.2.2 An Outcome Space for Empirical Understandings

The way in which referential and structural aspects are related to form categories of description, or put alternatively, the way in which the categories of description can be analysed into their referential and structural aspects, is shown in Figure 7.2. The referential aspects are arranged horizontally broadly according to the level of detail (about what needs to be done to improve the school) implied within that way of understanding. Reducing the categories to their simplest form can provide a useful summary, and also simplifies the identification of the logical and hierarchical relationships between the categories (which is essential for the production of an outcome space).

REFERENTIAL ASPECT																															
<u>What is being focused on?</u>																															
STRUCTURAL ASPECT	REFERENTIAL ASPECT																														
<u>How is the focus being addressed?</u>	<u>What is being focused on?</u>																														
Through a diagnostic approach	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="text-align: center; width: 20%;">Increasing Knowledge</td> <td style="text-align: center; width: 20%;">Stimulating a More Dynamic Environment</td> <td style="text-align: center; width: 20%;">Stakeholders Re-establishing Values, Policies and Vision</td> <td style="text-align: center; width: 20%;">Expectations and Quality Standards</td> <td style="text-align: center; width: 20%;">Co-ordinating Initiatives</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">A</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td style="text-align: center;">B</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td style="text-align: center;">C</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td style="text-align: center;">D</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td style="text-align: center;">E</td> </tr> </table>	Increasing Knowledge	Stimulating a More Dynamic Environment	Stakeholders Re-establishing Values, Policies and Vision	Expectations and Quality Standards	Co-ordinating Initiatives	A						B						C						D						E
Increasing Knowledge	Stimulating a More Dynamic Environment	Stakeholders Re-establishing Values, Policies and Vision	Expectations and Quality Standards	Co-ordinating Initiatives																											
A																															
	B																														
		C																													
			D																												
				E																											
Through an incentive based approach																															
Through an inclusive approach																															
Through an enforcement approach																															
Through a development planning approach																															

Figure 7.2: Referential and Structural Aspects of the Empirical Categories of Description

The logical relationships that exist between the categories are illustrated graphically by the outcome space in Figure 7.3. The further into the alphabet a category label, the more detailed the description. Categories C and D are positioned as they are in the diagram, rather than Category D following Category C when reading from left to right, to avoid the lines which indicate hierarchical relationships crossing over each other.



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Category B does not encompass Category A, as increasing knowledge through a diagnostic approach does not directly contribute to stimulating a more dynamic environment through an incentive based approach. Similarly Category A does not encompass Category B, as stimulating a more dynamic environment through an incentive based approach does not, of itself, contribute to increasing knowledge through a diagnostic approach. Consequently, Categories A and B are established as 'lower' categories within this research.

Examining the logical relationship between Categories C and B suggests that Category C is a 'higher' category, as stimulating a more dynamic environment through an incentive based approach can contribute to stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision through an inclusive approach. However, as stakeholders can re-establish values, policies and vision without reference to stimulating a more dynamic environment, and stimulating a more dynamic environment does not necessarily feed into stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision, this hierarchical relationship is exclusive in nature. Data segments *A1(iii)*, *H3p* and *L7p*, included under Section 7.2.1, following the definition of Category B, illustrate this proposition.

Category C is a 'higher' category than Category A because increasing knowledge through a diagnostic approach can also contribute to stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision through an

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inclusive approach. Here again, stakeholders can re-establish values, policies and vision without reference to increasing knowledge, and increasing knowledge does not necessarily feed into stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision. Consequently, this hierarchical relationship is also exclusive in nature. Data segment *H1(i)*, included in Section 7.2.1, following the definition of Category A, serves to illustrate this hierarchical relationship.

Some values emerge from experience, therefore perhaps shared values emerge from shared experience. Consequently, it is reasonable to assume that interactions with 'the content' of knowledge and 'the process' of stimulating a more dynamic learning environment, will make positive contributions to the development of values.

Category D is not a 'higher' category than Category C, as they each reflect a different approach to leadership, transactional and transformational respectively. While it might be argued that transformational leadership is more desirable than transactional leadership, this is from a moral or principled standpoint, and not in terms of a more detailed understanding of what needs to be done to improve the school, and consequently is not reflected in this analysis. This is not to argue that the two ways of understanding are incompatible, rather that applying both of them in the same overall context requires careful planning.

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Continuing the analysis and considering Category D's relationship to Category B, Category D is not hierarchically related to Category B as the incentive based approach of Category B would be incompatible with Category D's enforcement of expectations and quality standards. In contrast, Category D is a 'higher' category than Category A, as it is conceivable that the need to increase knowledge through a diagnostic approach contributes directly to enforcing expectations and quality standards. This hierarchical relationship is exclusive, as enforcing expectations and quality standards can be done independently of increasing knowledge through a diagnostic approach, and increasing knowledge through a diagnostic approach does not necessarily feed into enforcing expectations and quality standards. Data segment *O7(ii)*, included under Section 7.2.1, following the definition of Category D, illustrates this relationship.

Category E is a 'higher' category (in terms of detail regarding what needs to be done to improve the school) than Category D, as the expectations and quality standards being enforced can be co-ordinated through a development planning approach. Data segment *K1s*, included in Section 7.2.1, following the definition of Category D, illustrates this hierarchical relationship.

Stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision through an inclusive approach can contribute to co-ordinating initiatives through a

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development planning approach, indicating the existence of a hierarchical relationship between Category E and Category C. There are a number of data segments that illustrate this relationship, particularly *B4(i)*, *F1(i)* and *I1(s)* in Section 7.2.1, following the definition of Category C.

Category E is not hierarchically related to Category B, as Category B's unstructured approach (at least in terms of predictable outcomes) would be in contradiction with the necessary structure required for Category E. However, increasing knowledge through a diagnostic approach can logically contribute to co-ordinating initiatives through a development planning approach, indicating that a hierarchical relationship does exist between Category E and Category A. Data segments illustrating this relationship are *F5(ii)s*, *M6(iii)* and *Q3(ii)* which are included in Section 7.2.1, following the definition of Category A.

Category E's hierarchical relationships are all exclusive, as the same arguments that were applied to Category D's relationship to Category A can be applied in each of the above cases, namely that the 'lower' categories can contribute, but they are not logically bound to. The power of Category E is in its specificity in relation to what needs to be done to improve the school. Its position as head of the hierarchy does not in any way imply that the management concepts embedded within the way of understanding are somehow more important than, for example the leadership concepts embedded in Category C.

7.2.3 Validity and Reliability of Empirical Understandings

Throughout this research effort, the importance of validity has been recognised. However, it is an 'interpretative validity' that is seen as appropriate, a reformulated validity that recognises the fact that different researchers at different times might well come up with different interpretations (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, page 497). To be held accountable to interpretative validity, a true, accurate and clear account of the 'research journey' is required, an account which is presented in enough detail for readers symbolically to 'interact' with crucial elements of the research process. What follows is an attempt to produce such an account, complete with references to problems, mistakes, issues, and surprises.

Having received responses from 18 subjects, and noting that some responses were more readable than others (in terms of both handwriting and recording ideas in note form), the first task was to word-process each response in a common format (Appendix Two). As the process of accurately transferring formatted data between software packages can often be time consuming and less than a hundred per cent reliable, it was important to decide how information technology was going to support the analysis process before entering any data. Although there are a number of specialist packages available to help with qualitative data analysis, such as Nudist and Atlas, a standard word-processor (Microsoft Word) was selected for a number of reasons.

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First, using the 'Tables' capability of Word, it was possible to keep the computerised versions of the submissions looking very much like the originals, in terms of page layout. This could be significant when comparing how one element of a subject's response relates to another element, especially as some subjects responded in note form and included references such as 'see above'. Second, data held in Word can easily be transferred to Word's sister program, Excel, a spreadsheet package, which would enable data segments to be placed in (and moved about within) the electronic equivalent of a very large table.

Third, Word and Excel handle colour well, which was deemed important as the ability to use colour to help compare and contrast data segments during the analysis was identified as a high priority. Fourth, and finally, familiarity with both programs meant that the appropriate functionality of specialised software could be matched (and in the case of easy tabular manipulation, exceeded). Using Word and Excel supported the analytical process at least as effectively as the potential use of specialist software.

Having computerised the data, a familiarity with it was beginning to emerge, although during the transcription process, the focus was mainly on accurately reproducing text, and ensuring abbreviations were correctly interpreted. The next step was to start analysing the data from a phenomenographic perspective.

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The principles of 'bracketing', and applying a 'second-order perspective', were acknowledged and respected throughout the process. The boundaries of the research, how headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve the school, were clearly specified, but within that framework, an attempt was made to remain as open to variation (and potential variation) as possible.

Having read the data many times, there emerged a feeling that it did contain several different ways of looking at, or understanding, both the situation, and various phenomena within the situation. A few short excerpts concerning the overall quality of the school, (arguably, a relatively objective attribute, at least in terms of OFSTED's criteria¹), serve to illustrate the existence of significant variation in subjects' ways of understanding at least this aspect of the school.

At one extreme, Subject A's comment that 'It is obviously a pretty good school...', backed up by Subject O's judgement, 'This is a good school with potential for much improvement...', suggests the school is doing well. However, Subject G's assertion that '...taking this school on would be a challenge', mirrored by Subject I's judgement 'Lucky (perhaps because '94) not to hit serious weaknesses...', imply a more modest record of success for the school.

¹ OFSTED inspectors apply an inspection framework that incorporates quality

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Clearly, significant variation existed in subjects' understandings of the situation, a positive indication that the research effort could be fruitful. However, as yet, the researcher had not detected significant variation relating to the research question 'How do headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve the school?'. A re-reading of the data, with the intention of identifying key areas across subjects' submissions, was called for.

Seventeen inter-linked themes emerged (including teaching, learning, curriculum development, management, resources and ICT and monitoring) which offered a possible approach to further analysis. With the benefit of hindsight, it is possible to describe these results as the first of five phases of category evolution, as illustrated in Figure 7.4. These phases divide the continuous evolutionary process into five stages that provide snapshots at key turning points in the development of the five categories of description given in Section 7.2.1. However, it soon became apparent that, even collectively, these themes shed little light on the research question. What was needed was the uncovering of the principles and conceptions that lie behind the themes, conceptions that manifest themselves in contexts such as teaching, learning and curriculum development.

The phenomenon had to be hunted in a more abstract form, or at a more generalised level. A sharper focus was needed, and even though the

Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4	Phase 5
Teaching Learning Assessment	1 Strategic Approach	E Futures Approach	E Applying the school's values compliantly	E Co-ordinating initiatives...
Value Added Attainment Pupil Behaviour	2a Trouble shooting Approach	-	-	-
Attendance and Punctuality	2b Investigative Approach	A Investigative Approach	A Analysing Information	A Increasing knowledge...
Site Issues Curriculum Development	3 Inspirational Approach	B Inspirational Approach	B Encouraging Novel Initiatives	B Stimulating a more dynamic environment...
Leadership Management	4a Supportive Involvement Approach	C(i) Supportive Involvement Approach	C Involving Stakeholders Interactively	C Stakeholders re-establishing values...
Monitoring Evaluation Staffing	4b Task Driven Approach	C(ii) Task Driven Approach	D Applying Expectations Judiciously	D Expectations and quality standards...
Planning and Policy	5 Prescriptive Approach	D Prescriptive Approach	-	-
Resources and ICT	6 (1, 4a and 4b) Structured Motivational Approach	-	-	-
SMSC (Social Moral Spiritual Cultural) and External Relations	7 (1, 2b, 3, 4a and 4b) Integrated Approach	-	-	-

Figure 7.4: Evolution of Empirical Categories

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situation and the phenomenon are necessarily and 'inextricably intertwined' (Marton and Booth, 1997, page 82), a focus that distinguished between them, that delineated the phenomenon from the situation, was required. Such a focus was adopted.

With this sharper focus, the data was read and re-read, and phrases that seemed to capture essential characteristics, or significant meaning regarding potential ways of understanding, were recorded. It became apparent that variation did exist in what subjects directed their attention to, specifically the motivating force or purpose behind their suggested improvement interventions. On some occasions, reference was made to the procedures relating to, and values embodied within, the School Development Plan (Category 1), and on other occasions, to the necessity to respond to weaknesses identified by the OFSTED inspection team (Category 2).

The notion of there being different motivations or specific purposes behind actions was used as a perspective through which to re-read the data, directing attention both within individual transcripts, and over the collective data as a whole. As a consequence, it was possible to use the commonality found regarding a school development planning focus, or 'strategic approach', to firm up Category 1, and the similarities and differences found with regard to the necessity to respond to OFSTED's

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criticisms to subdivide an initial Category 2 into 2a, a 'trouble shooting approach', and 2b, an 'investigative approach' (Phase 2 in Figure 7.4).

On re-reading the data as outlined, it became apparent that further variation was present. Through analysis, it emerged that the pool of meaning contained a way of understanding which saw the school as an exciting and stimulating environment that inspired individuals. This was another alternative motivating force for improvement, and hence Category 3, an 'inspirational approach', emerged.

Still further examination of the data, from the same perspective, gave rise to Categories 4a, a 'supportive involvement approach', and 4b, a 'task driven approach'. These two categories have in common that they apply a rational framework to the distribution of tasks and responsibilities. However, they differ in that 4a comes at this from the belief that staff have valuable capabilities that can be developed, and therefore emphasises the involvement of, and support for, staff, and in contrast, 4b's emphasis is on tasks that need to be completed to a minimum quality standard.

Even with the addition of Categories 3, 4a and 4b, variation in terms of the motivating force or purpose behind actions was not fully described until Category 5 emerged. This emphasised the way the headteacher's personal leadership and management provides essential guidance for

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improvement interventions and was labelled 'a prescriptive approach'. The development of a Category 6, which combined Categories 1, 4a and 4b, and a Category 7, which combined Categories 1, 2b, 3, 4a and 4b, was briefly considered (and has been included under Phase 2 in Figure 7.4 for completeness), but these were soon rejected as they added nothing to the analysis, and therefore went against the principle of parsimony.

With a total of seven discrete categories in existence, the transcripts were again scrutinised extensively in an attempt to ensure that no perceived meaning had been left un-described, and that the resulting categories of description did justice to the ways in which subjects are capable of conceiving the given phenomenon. To reach such a level of relative surety, further, more detailed analysis was needed, specifically the formal identification of the structural and referential aspects of each category of description. The names of the categories only served to indicate in the broadest terms what general ideas the categories referred to. In fact, the category names have been highly problematic throughout the analysis, in so far as they could accurately represent the categories in a meaningful linguistic form, and were ultimately dropped in favour of brief summaries of what each category stood for.

To perform the next level of analysis, the links between the seven distinct categories and the data set needed to be more explicit. This was achieved by identifying each data segment that could possibly contribute to a

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category, and producing a one or two page list of data segments, per category, that broadly illustrated it. Although the interest is in the collective data (especially as individual conceptions are far from stable, and in many cases, individuals only show the capability of possessing conception fragments), this did enable each category to be defined in more detail. Using these fuller definitions, a first attempt was made to break down each category into its referential and structural aspects, as shown in Figure 7.5. This analysis implies that it is unnecessary to subdivide Category 2 into 2a and 2b, as these always appear in the same cell. Alternative labels for the remaining six categories (Phase 3 in Figure 7.4), based on letters that reflect a first attempt at producing an outcome space (Figure 7.6), have been included in italics.

As can be seen from Figure 7.5, an attempt was made to disaggregate the referential aspect into focus and determining values, and the structural aspect into structure and motivation. This did not prove to be fruitful in itself, but the inability to determine the categories' referential and structural aspects did highlight the inadequacy of the descriptions. With the intention of describing the referential and structural aspects of categories in mind, an iterative process of refining the definitions of the categories, through testing out definitions against the original data, (to confirm they expressed the meanings perceived within that data), and where necessary, recursively modifying definitions, was applied until the categories summarised under Phase 4 of Figure 7.4 emerged.

		REFERENTIAL ASPECT – What is being focused on and the source of values?					
Focus	Information Relating to Identified Issues	Individuals Within an Enterprising Culture	Involved & Committed School Community	Completion of Specified Tasks	Headteacher's Direct Personal Involvement	School's Mission & Aims	
Determining Values	Ofsted's & the School's Values	Individuals' Values	Ofsted's & the School's Values	Ofsted's & the School's Values	Headteacher's Values	School's Values	
STRUCTURAL ASPECT – How is the focus handled?							
Structure	Motivation						
	Verification & Clarification						
	Inspiration	3 B	4a C(i)		5 D		
	Involvement & Support	3 B	4a C(i)		5 D		
	Accountability			4b C(ii)	5 D		
Professional Autonomy		3 B	4a C(i)				
Roles & Responsibilities			4a C(i)	4b C(ii)			
Tasks				4b C(ii)			
Headteacher's Understanding					5 D		
SDP	2a - 2b A					1 E	

Figure 7.5: Referential and Structural Analysis of Empirical Categories (Phase 2)

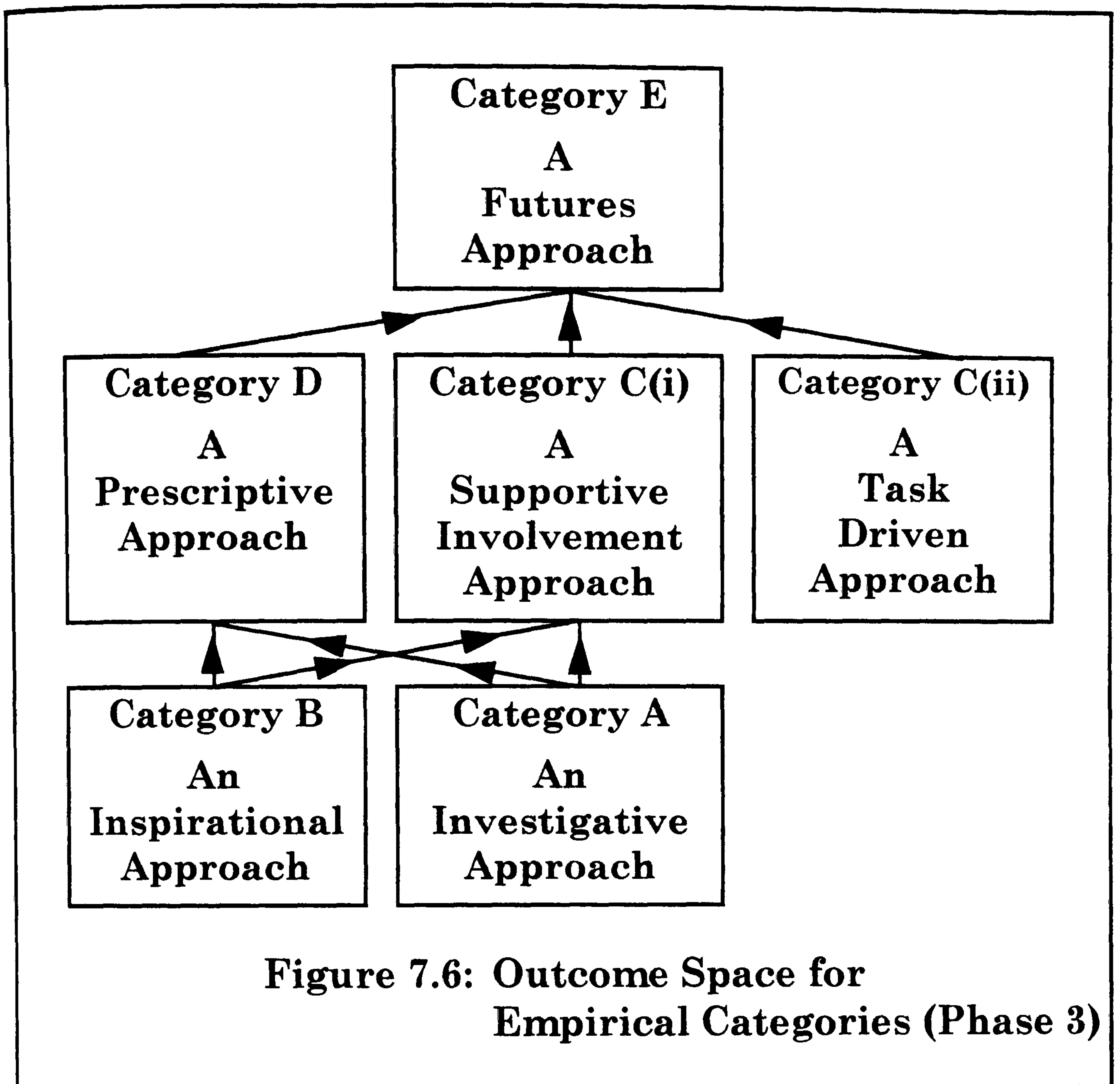
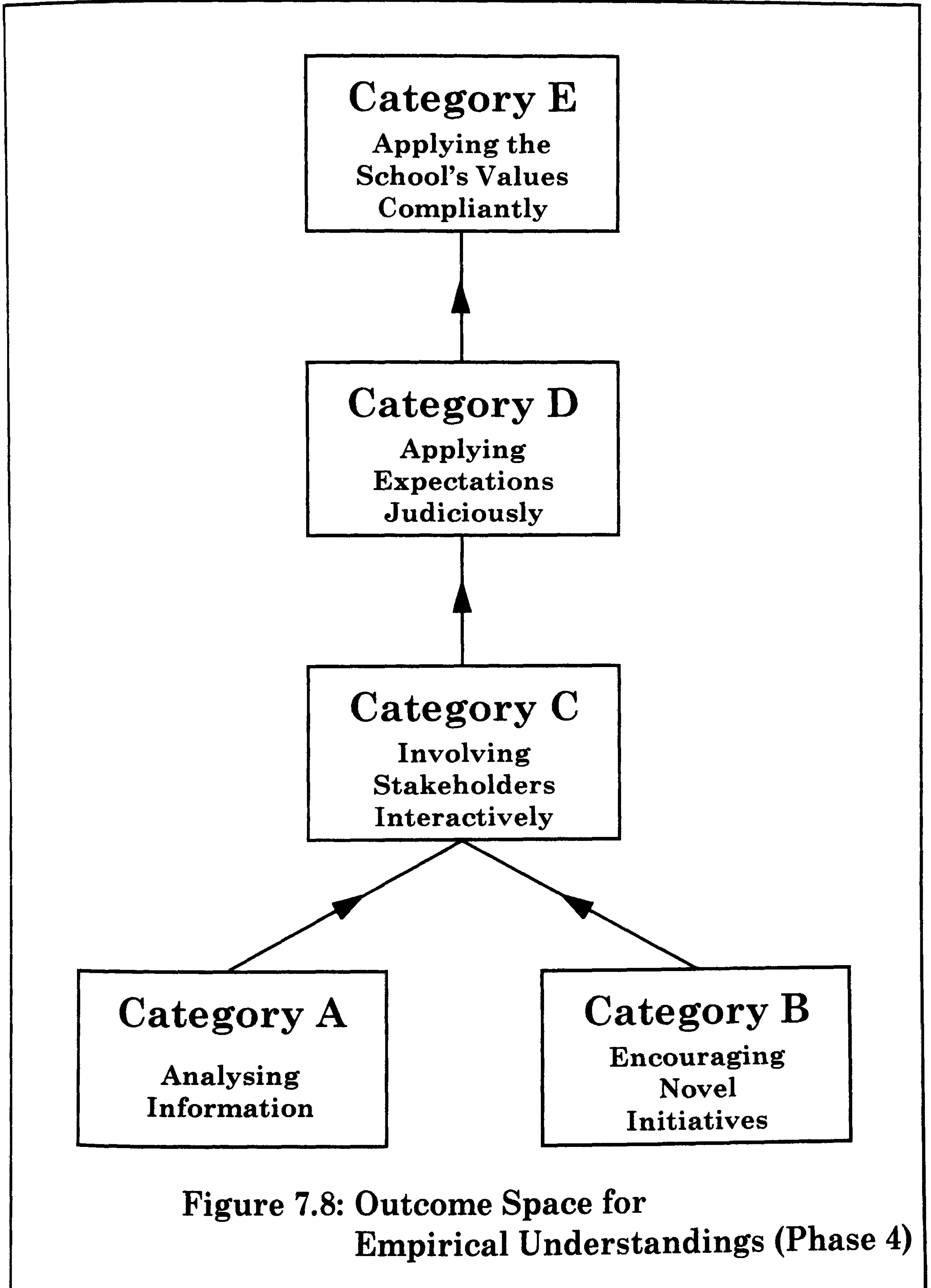


Figure 7.7 shows the referential-structural analysis of the categories on which the Phase 4 category names were based. The analysis includes the potential referential-structural make up of a prescriptive approach (as described under Phase 3) for completeness. However, this category was eliminated as all supporting data segments were responses to the prompt 'Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above'. To an extent, this question imposed the researcher's framework on the data, which runs contrary to the principles that underlie the phenomenographic approach.

		REFERENTIAL ASPECT: What is being focused on?					
		Information	Novel Initiatives	Involvement of Stakeholders	Expectations	Headteacher's Unique Contributions	School's Values
STRUCTURAL ASPECT: How is the focus approached?							
Analytically		A					
Encouragingly			B				
Interactively				C			
Judiciously					D		
<i>Prescriptively</i>						No Longer Required	
Compliantly							E

Figure 7.7: Referential-Structural Analysis of Empirical Categories (Phase 4)

Carefully considering how each individual way of understanding might contribute to each other way of understanding resulted in a second attempt at an outcome space, as illustrated in Figure 7.8.



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Unfortunately, even these categories did not accurately represent all the data, as to some extent, they focused on outward expressions rather than inward intents. Getting behind the obvious, moving from a surface to a deep interpretation, from the specific action or tactic to the intention or strategy, was the real challenge.

Carefully considering dimensions, such as the inter-active to directive, or gradual evolution to instantly stated, played some part in the discovery process. Eventually, trying to identify referential and structural aspects, combined with real perseverance, paid off as crucial insights emerged. These included the separating out of the vision and values from the school development plan, and the realisation that what was originally described as information seeking could more accurately be seen as increasing knowledge. After continually oscillating between the categories and the data until no more modifications of the definitions were judged necessary, the final categories of description, Phase 5 in Figure 7.4, came into existence.

However, in line with the tenets of phenomenography, the set of categories are not regarded as exhaustive. Similarly, in accordance with the concept of interpretive validity, it is accepted that different interpretations may emerge from different researchers at different times, or even the same researcher at another time. What is argued is that the complex of categories of description represents a reasonable

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characterisation of possible ways of experiencing the phenomenon, given the data available (Marton and Booth, 1997, page 136), and the researcher's current understanding. Hence it is argued that what is presented is a valid interpretation of the data.

When considering the notion of reliability, the fact that data segments can be identified consistently as supporting the existence of a particular category of description, and the fact that subjects' responses can also be analysed consistently in terms of the five categories, lend some support to the assertion that the findings are internally consistent and reliable.

Marton and Booth (1997) specify three criteria against which to judge the quality of a set of categories of description. These are:

1. that each category tells us something distinct;
2. that each category stands in a logical relationship to each other category; and
3. that the system should be parsimonious.

(Marton and Booth, 1997, page 125)

The referential-structural analysis applied in Section 7.2.2, and illustrated in Figure 7.2, demonstrates that each category has, within this complex, a unique 'what' and 'how'. Consequently, each category describes something distinct, made up, in this case, of a unique referential and structural aspect, and therefore collectively, the set of categories is parsimonious. Section 7.4 describes the logical (and exclusively hierarchical) relationships between the categories, and provides the rationale for those relationships. In summary, these

research findings meet Marton and Booth's (1997) success criteria for categories of description. Given the validity arguments applied to the research process in Sections 2.4 and 2.5 of Chapter 2, and applied under Section 7.2.3 of this chapter, it is argued that the outcomes of this research should be accepted as valid.

7.3 Secondary Data: Literature Understandings

7.3.1 Phenomenographic Analysis of the Literature

Chapter Three documents a preliminary critical analysis of the literature, undertaken as an element of a more comprehensive phenomenographic analysis, which results in the categorisation of the literature into 'leadership', 'schools as organisations' and 'learning in schools'. Chapters Four, Five and Six respectively each adopt one of these headings, review the associated literature, and further analyse it phenomenographically in order to discover at least one literature based understanding of what needs to be done to improve a school. Here, the process of phenomenographically analysing the literature is completed, by reflecting on the process and practicalities, prior to considering the complex of categories, and their validity and reliability.

Applying a phenomenographic analysis to the literature associated (in the broadest sense) with school improvement is a worthwhile endeavour, as in common with historical research, in qualitative research developments can come as much from contesting interpretations, as from definitive

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findings (Entwistle, 1997). Bowden (1996) contrasts applying aspects of phenomenographic research, including phenomenographic analysis, to such as historical records, with the application of the complete phenomenographic approach. A similar distinction is made within this study, between the phenomenographic analysis of literature as described here, and the application of the complete phenomenographic approach as documented in Chapter Two and Section 7.2.

In practical terms, it is not possible (or necessarily desirable) to specify the exact approach adopted in a phenomenographic analysis, in terms of the application of a simple set of rules (Marton, 1986; Prosser, 1994; 2000; Ashworth and Lucas, 2000). However, by broadly invoking Bowden's (1994b; 2000b) four stages of planning, data collection, analysis and interpretation, against his suggested background of constantly considering the focus, validity and reliability of the research, it is hoped that enough detail can be described to facilitate validation.

The planning stage of the process consisted of identifying the fields of literature that could potentially contribute to the research, given its widest possible interpretation. At this point, there were no preconceived ideas of the content, number or even format of the understandings sought. Data collection involved becoming familiar with each identified field, one by one, through detailed literature reviews. However, as Giorgi (1999) points out, in phenomenography (and therefore when relevant elements of

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the phenomenographic approach are adopted), data collection and analysis cannot be separated. Consequently, as familiarity with the literature was being established, pertinent and interesting ways of addressing and interpreting school improvement began to emerge, and following recursive evaluations and resulting dissolutions, modifications and mergers, as expected (Marton and Booth, 1997), the final categories gradually came into sharper focus.

As with the phenomenographic analysis of the empirical understandings, trying to identify the referential and structural aspects (and external and internal horizons) of the categories, by interacting with the text, and posing appropriate questions, proved helpful. Specific questions included what does the meaning relate to?; what makes the approach distinctive?; what is the main purpose or intent?; and what role or function does each element play? The referential and structural aspects, and the external horizons, tended to emerge first and with enduring clarity, but the internal horizons, often made up of recognised bodies of knowledge, needed describing, explaining, exemplifying and ultimately justifying, through detailed reference to the literature as data source.

Perhaps the most surprising feature of the combined data collection, analysis and interpretation process was the number of times that the framework for the literature as a whole had to be restructured. Initially, the 'labels' from the various contributing elements formed the structure,

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for example school improvement research, school effectiveness research, and education(al) management theory, but in accordance with Prosser's (1994; 2000) 'willingness to modify thinking' principle, this pattern was progressively modified. The structure finally adopted, as described in Chapter Three, reflects the complex of the literature based categories of description.

7.3.2 Literature Based Categories of Description

The categories of description, or literature understandings, are given in Figure 7.9. If Walsh's (1994, 2000) 'construction towards discovery' distinction regarding phenomenographic analysis is employed, at first sight, it could be argued that the understandings are more at the construction extreme of the construction-discovery continuum, and are therefore in some way less valid as they rely predominantly on the views of supposed experts in the field.

However, in this case the opinions of the experts are the data, and therefore the possibility of contamination from traditional ways of thinking from outside the research arena argument simply does not apply. Both the literature based and empirical based complexes of understandings have undergone similar levels of scrutiny, and are therefore equally valid, in terms of their potential usefulness to researchers and practitioners in the field.

A Leadership Based Abstracted Understanding

Understanding what needs to be done to improve a school as focusing on leadership. An adaptive approach is adopted, with the intention of giving meaning to practical, context specific actions within an overall leadership configuration, through selecting specific leadership objectives, adopting particular images of leadership, and contextualising leadership across a solitary-shared continuum.

An Excellence Based Abstracted Understanding

Understanding what needs to be done to improve a school as focusing on idealised good practice. A reflective-professional approach is adopted, with the intention of personalising mental schemas and behaviour patterns for a particular school environment, through contemplating models of good practice, appreciating the holistic nature of headship, and evaluating alternative interpretations of headteachers' contributions to successful schools.

An Organisation Based Abstracted Understanding

Understanding what needs to be done to improve a school as focusing on the organisation. An interpretive approach is adopted, with the intention of formulating a specific improvement strategy that addresses the perceived needs of a particular school, through utilising a range of organisation theories, and employing various working definitions and characteristics of effectiveness.

An Active Learning Based Abstracted Understanding

Understanding what needs to be done to improve a school as focusing on the inter-dependence of pupil, professional and organisational learning. An evolutionary approach is adopted, with the intention of continually increasing the school's capacity to craft change, and bringing a unifying purpose to the school's improvement interventions, through assimilating learning organisation principles, school improvement processes, and development planning activities.

Figure 7.9: Literature Understandings

There are a number of similarities and differences between the literature understandings and the empirical understandings. As the literature understandings evolved, it became apparent that with very little

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restructuring of the language (which did not compromise the meaning of the understandings), they could be expressed in a very similar format to the empirical understandings. The slight differences in the formats are that the literature understandings are overtly labelled to fit into the flow of the literature chapters, and reference is made to 'a' school rather than 'the' school to more closely relate to the format of the research question. Otherwise, the structure of the understandings, in terms of their referential and structural aspects, and their external and internal horizons, is the same, which significantly facilitates comparisons (especially if these elements of the understandings are colour coded).

Unlike the empirical understandings, which are simply labelled 'Category A' to 'Category E' (as no elegant short descriptors that accurately reflected the referential or structural aspects of the categories could be found), as implied previously, the literature understandings incorporate a loose reference to the field of knowledge on which they are predominantly based into their titles. In addition, and notwithstanding Marton and Booth's (1997) assertion that any conception or understanding is an abstraction at the collective level, the titles also include the term 'abstracted'. This emphasis on the abstracted nature of the understandings is intended to highlight the fact that these understandings subsume a range of other understandings (and complexes of understandings), which may themselves also subsume further understandings, making them not only particularly abstract, but also of

high order hierarchically. An effective way to see how the literature understandings relate logically and hierarchically to each other is to perform a referential-structural analysis, prior to constructing an outcome space.

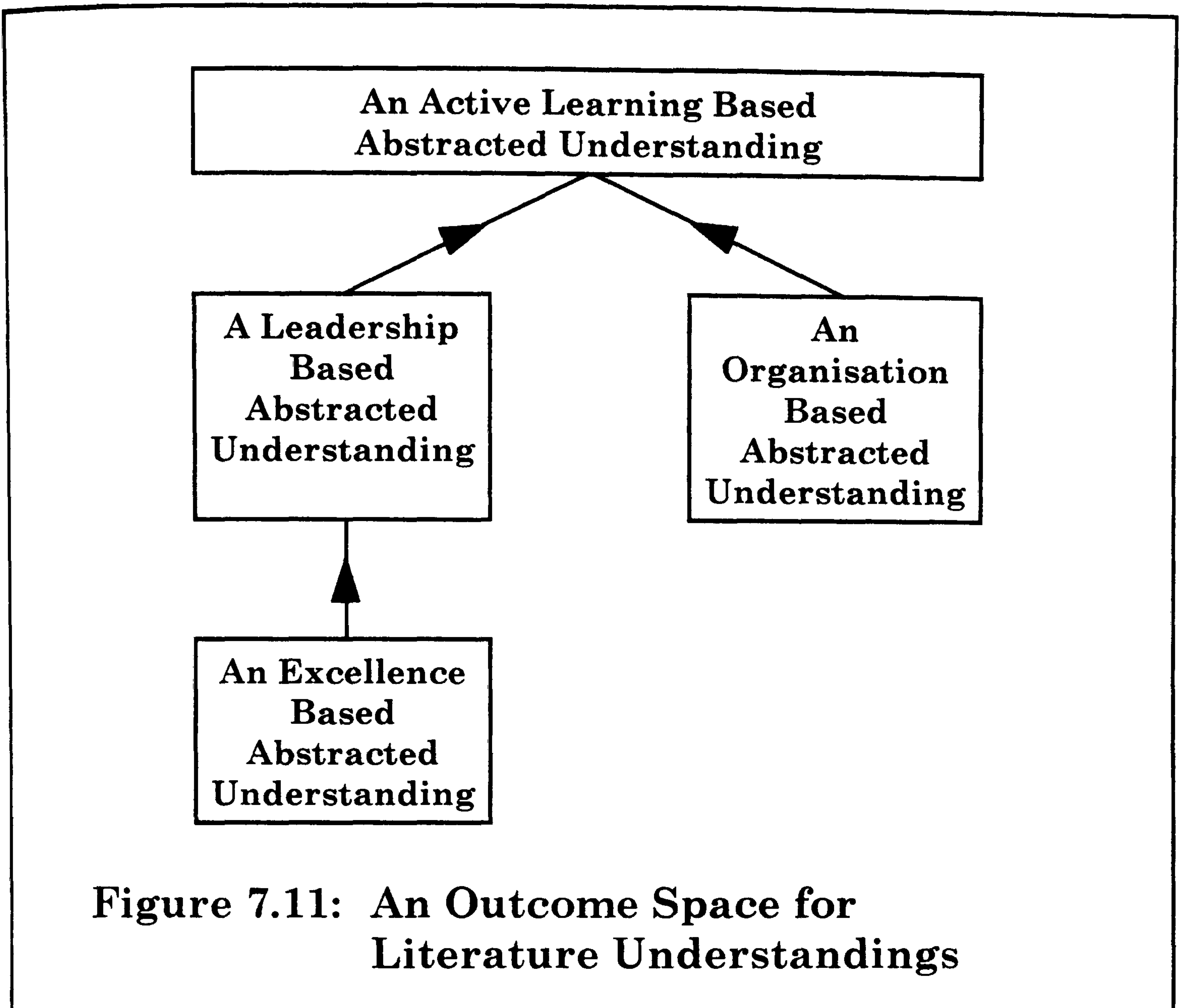
7.3.3 An Outcome Space for Literature Understandings

Figure 7.10 shows how the literature understandings can be analysed into their referential and structural aspects. Figure 7.11 is a graphical representation of the logical and hierarchical relationships between the understandings in the form of an outcome space. The left column of the outcome space reflects a subjective, individual or micro focus, and the right column an objective, organisation or macro focus.

A leadership based abstracted understanding (LBAU) is inclusively hierarchically related to an excellence based abstracted understanding (EBAU). The logic is that reflecting on idealised good practice (which constitutes both the structural and referential aspects of EBAU) necessarily contributes to LBAU, although the nature of that contribution may vary. Examining the external horizons of both understandings suggests that EBAU is concerned with personalising behaviour, whereas LBAU attributes meaning to behaviour, for both the leader and followers, making it a much more powerful understanding in terms of improving a school.

REFERENTIAL ASPECT	
<u>What</u> is being focused on?	
STRUCTURAL ASPECT	The Inter-dependence of Pupil, Professional and Organisational Learning
<u>How</u> is the focus being addressed?	The Organisation
Through a reflective-professional approach	Leadership
Through an adaptive approach	Idealised Good Practice
Through an interpretive approach	An Excellence Based Abstracted Understanding
Through an evolutionary approach	A Leadership Based Abstracted Understanding
	An Organisation Based Abstracted Understanding
	An Active Learning Based Abstracted Understanding

Figure 7.10 Referential and Structural Aspects of the Literature Understandings



In some ways, an organisation based abstracted understanding (OBAU) can be seen as having some features in common with LBAU, as both draw upon similar types of mental activities. Although adaption can imply a more active or creative activity than interpretation, as something may be changed or even added, it could be argued that it would be more accurate to consider both processes as relatively extreme examples of a single process such as translation (see Figure 7.12 for a modified referential-structural analysis).

However, after further consideration, there are significant differences between the understandings. With OBAU, coordination and alignment

REFERENTIAL ASPECT	
<u>What</u> is being focused on?	
STRUCTURAL ASPECT	
<u>How</u> is the focus being addressed?	The Inter-dependence of Pupil, Professional and Organisational Learning
Through a reflective-professional approach	The Organisation
Through a translational approach	Leadership
Through an evolutionary approach	Idealised Good Practice
	<i>An Excellence Based Abstracted Understanding</i>
	<i>A Leadership Based Abstracted Understanding</i>
	<i>An Organisation Based Abstracted Understanding</i>
	<i>An Active Learning Based Abstracted Understanding</i>

Figure 7.12 Modified Referential-Structural Analysis of Literature Understandings

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towards a common goal or purpose is achieved through adherence to a specific plan, rather than possibly unsystematically attributing meanings to the actions of individuals, meanings that describe individuals' actions as examples of achieving shared priorities. In addition, LBAU (and therefore EBAU) and OBAU reflect an individual and subjective focus, and an organisational and objective focus, respectively. Consequently, it is inconceivable that either understanding could subsume the other, and therefore there can be no hierarchical relationship between OBAU and either LBAU or EBAU.

An active learning based abstracted understanding (ALBAU) inevitably incorporates the learning resulting from adopting leadership objectives, images of leadership and contextualising leadership across a solitary-shared continuum, and the learning resulting from interpreting organisational theories and definitions of effectiveness, both of which can directly enhance pupil learning. Conversely, pupil learning, as the fundamental purpose, function and therefore *raison d'être* of a school, brings into existence (and meaning to) the notion of a school as an organisation, and leadership within that organisation.

The mental processes of adaption and interpretation inherent in LBAU and OBAU necessarily form part of ALBAU's evolutionary approach. Bringing meaning to actions and formulating an improvement strategy, the external horizons of LBAU and OBAU respectively, cannot avoid

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increasing a school's capacity to craft change and bringing a unifying purpose to a school's improvement interventions, the external horizon of ALBAU. In conclusion, as adapting leadership activities, and interpreting conceptions of organisations and their effectiveness, directly contribute to the evolution of pupil, professional and organisation learning, an inclusive hierarchical relation between LBAU, OBAU and ALBAU, with ALBAU at the apex, is established.

The LBAU and OBAU, with their adaption of leadership principles and interpretation of an organisation and its effectiveness, both imply a theoretical end point, a static notion. However, ALBAU implies constant evolution, a dynamic notion, a difference akin to an organisation having a purpose as opposed to a vision. It is this commitment to an evolutionary (on continually modifying) approach, which regards learning (and therefore change) as not only a constant, but as an essential element of improvement (itself an expression of change), that markedly distinguishes ALBAU from all the other understandings.

7.3.4 Validity and reliability of Literature Understandings

The principles of validity and reliability, and how they relate to phenomenography, were discussed in Chapter Two, and applied to the empirical research in the Section 7.2.3. As far as has been possible, given that only part of the phenomenographic approach has been applied to the literature, the same principles have been applied here, with particular

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reference to Bowden's (1994b; 2000b) recommendation of constantly considering the focus, validity and reliability of the research. Similarly, as the categories are distinct, logically related and parsimonious, they meet Marton and Booth's (1997) quality standards.

Francis's (1993, 1996) emphasis on the need for researchers to bracket their own ideas when conducting research has been respected. In line with Sandberg's (1997) thinking, as the researcher is aware of his interpretations, they have become a strength rather than a weakness regarding reliability. Ashworth and Lucas's (2000) reference to achieving empathy with the understandings has also been taken on board.

Again, reference is made to Trigwell's (2/1/01, private communication) advice concerning the production of a good paper trail, and clarifying the extent to which the understandings are logically constituted. Concerning the former, the process followed has been outlined in Sections 7.3.1, 7.3.2 and 7.3.3, and concerning the latter, the logical constitution of the understandings has been analysed in some detail within the respective literature chapters (an activity equivalent to referring back to the data in empirical research), and revisited during the construction of an outcome space. In addition, the hierarchical relationships defined between the understandings reflect all three of Marton and Booth's (1997) conditions of increased complexity, inclusion and being specific.

Every effort has been made to make the process as transparent as possible, and to allow readers of the research to shadow the researcher's thinking throughout that process. In conclusion, and in accordance with Marton and Booth's (1997) approach to validity, it is argued that the findings are valid in relation to the data, in that they represent a reasonable characterisation of possible ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school.

7.4 Empirical and Literature Understandings

7.4.1 Comparing Empirical and Literature Understandings

As two complexes of understandings relating to what needs to be done to improve a school have been produced independently, one based on empirical research involving headteachers, and the other on a phenomenographic analysis of literature, it seems appropriate to compare and contrast them.

The most direct means of comparing the two complexes of understandings has been adopted, specifically taking an understanding from one complex and comparing it with each understanding in the second complex. To facilitate this procedure, the literature complex has been selected as the base data, owing to its arguably more abstract or general nature, and therefore each of the empirical understandings is compared, in turn, with each of the literature understandings. It must be emphasised that selecting the literature complex as the base data in no way precludes its

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understandings from being subsumed by empirical understandings. It simply means that, as base data, all comments are made in terms of how the literature understandings relate to the empirical understandings.

A summary of the logical and hierarchical relationships between the two complexes is given in Figure 7.13. To increase the expressive power of the diagram, where an understanding or category label is given, it is followed by the referential and structural aspects of the understanding.

When Category A is compared to EBAU, EBAU, with its focus on idealised good practice, is clearly concerned with very different subject matter to Category A, subject matter that is more person orientated. Similarly, when Category A is compared to LBAU, LBAU is also more person orientated, and therefore there is no hierarchical relationship between Category A and either EBAU or LBAU. Conversely, both EBAU and LBAU, with their referential aspects of idealised good practice and leadership, could potentially contribute to increasing knowledge. However, as their intentions are to personalise mental schema and give meaning to actions, which are both more proactive than expanding awareness, no hierarchical relationship is perceived here either.

Comparing Category A with OBAU, they have very different referential aspects, one process based and the other object based. A focus on the organisation could help increase knowledge, but again an

Literature Understandings				
	EBAU Idealised good practice Reflective professional	LBAU Leadership Adaptive	OBAU The organisation Interpretive	ALBAU Inter-dependent learning Evolutionary
Empirical Understandings				
Category A Increasing knowledge Diagnostic	More Person Orientated			
Category B Stimulating a more dynamic environment Incentive based	Orientated More Towards Rationality Than Motivation			
Category C Stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision Inclusive	More Exclusive	SUBSUMES INCLUSIVELY	Object Based	SUBSUMES INCLUSIVELY
Category D Expectations and quality standards Enforcement	More Individual Responsibility Focused	SUBSUMES INCLUSIVELY	Organisation Rather Than Person Orientated	SUBSUMES NON-INCLUSIVELY
Category E Co-ordinating initiatives Development planning	More Person Orientated			
			SUBSUMES INCLUSIVELY	SUBSUMES INCLUSIVELY

Figure 7.13 Comparison of Literature Understandings and Empirical Understandings

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interpretive approach can be more inductive, creative or proactive than a diagnostic approach. It follows that no hierarchical relationship is deduced between these categories. When Category A is compared to ALBAU, increasing knowledge can be seen as unavoidably forming part of inter-dependent learning, and a diagnostic approach as unavoidably forming a stage in an evolutionary approach, but the converse is not true in either case. Consequently, ALBAU inclusively subsumes Category A.

When Category B is compared to EBAU, LBAU and OBAU, its focus on stimulating a more dynamic environment, especially when combined with an incentive based approach, seems to be as concerned with motivation (and possibly emotion) as rationality, a quality not overtly apparent in the foci of the other three understandings. Such differences in focus and approach result in no hierarchical relationship between these understandings being defined.

Comparing Category B with ALBAU reveals that stimulating a more dynamic environment through an incentive based approach can contribute towards inter-dependent learning addressed through an evolutionary approach, but this is not necessarily the case. Consequently, ALBAU subsumes Category B in a non-inclusive manner. It is noted that inter-dependent learning addressed through an evolutionary approach can make a contribution to stimulating a more dynamic environment through an incentive based approach. However, this latter category is

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judged to be a less complex, inclusive, specific and significant understanding (in terms of what needs to be done to improve a school) than the former category, and therefore ALBAU is still defined as subsuming Category B.

Comparing Category C with EBAU, Category C's emphasis on two-way communication and particularly inclusion conflicts with EBAU's commitment to personalising good (rather than all) practice. Although focusing on idealised good practice in a reflective-professional approach can make a contribution to stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision in an inclusive approach, this latter category is determined to be a less inclusive, specific and significant understanding than the former category. Consequently, no hierarchical relationship is defined between Category C and EBAU.

However, when Category C is compared with LBAU, stakeholders re-establishing values policies and vision can be seen as unavoidably forming part of leadership. Similarly, communicating, the external horizon of Category C can be seen as unavoidably contributing to giving meaning, the external horizon of LBAU, which requires that LBAU inclusively subsumes Category C. The fact that LBAU subsumes Category C, but EBAU does not, exemplifies the fact that there are qualitative differences between LBAU and EBAU.

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When Category C is compared with OBAU, we have very different foci, Category C being process based, and OBAU being object based. Consequently, no hierarchical relationship exists between these categories. Comparing Category C with ALBAU, it becomes apparent that re-establishing values, policies and vision in an inclusive way unavoidably contributes to inter-dependent learning approached in an evolutionary way, a much more overarching concept. As communication also plays a key role in increasing the school's capacity, and bringing a unifying purpose to the school's improvement interventions, ALBAU is defined as inclusively subsuming Category C.

Comparing Category D with EBAU highlights that while a focus on expectations and quality standards can contribute to idealised good practice, and conversely focusing on idealised good practice can contribute to expectations and quality standards, an enforcing approach is clearly incompatible with a reflective-professional approach. When the respective external horizons of the two understandings are compared, the incompatibility is even more explicit. As a result, no hierarchical relationship is defined between Category D and EBAU.

Comparing Category D with LBAU suggests a very different relationship. Focusing on expectation and quality standards is an unavoidable part of leadership, and an enforcing approach can only be adopted from a position of authority. Even Category D's external horizon of directing

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activity supports LBAU's external horizon of giving meaning to practical, context specific actions. Consequently, LBAU is defined as inclusively subsuming Category D (although given the specific leadership style implied, Category D is not representative of the whole of LBAU).

When Category D is compared with OBAU, again two markedly different foci are evident, one person orientated and one organisation orientated. As the approaches are also unrelated, no hierarchical connection is defined. Comparing Category D with ALBAU highlights the fact that expectations and quality standards can contribute to inter-dependent learning (especially as the expectations and standards relate to members of the organisation), and an enforcing approach can form part of an evolutionary approach, but this is not necessarily the case in either instance. Similarly, elements of Category D's and ALBAU's external horizons, directing activity to key responsibilities and bringing a unifying purpose to the school's improvement interventions respectively, can also be mutually supportive, but again they are not necessarily so (as pupils and staff would need to know why they were doing certain activities). Consequently, an non-inclusive hierarchical relationship between Category D and ALBAU, with ALBAU subsuming Category D, is defined.

Finally, Category E is considered. Category E is concerned with co-ordinating activities whereas EBAU and LBAU are concerned with people and their behaviour. Category E is concerned with management

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and EBAU and LBAU are concerned with leadership, and therefore Category E has a different focus to either EBAU and LBAU. Category E, with its development planning approach, is extremely detailed and specific in terms of what must be done to improve a school, much more so than EBAU's and LBAU's reflective-professional and adaptive approaches. EBAU's focus on good practice, and LBAU's focus on leadership, could contribute to Category E's focus on co-ordinating activities, but only if that good practice and leadership fit in with the grand plan. As a consequence of these comparisons, no hierarchical relationship between Category E and either EBAU or LBAU is defined.

When Category E is compared with OBAU, co-ordinating initiatives unavoidably forms part of the organisation and its practices. Similarly, a development planning approach to ensuring developments are prioritised and scheduled unavoidably forms part of an interpretive approach to formulating an improvement strategy that addresses the perceived needs of a particular school. As OBAU is generally a more complex and inclusive (though not necessarily more specific) understanding than Category E, OBAU is defined as inclusively subsuming Category E.

Comparing Category E with ALBAU highlights the fact that using a development planning approach to co-ordinating initiatives (which includes an emphasis on evaluation) unavoidably forms part of using an evolutionary approach to inter-dependent learning, increasing the

school's capacity to craft change, and bringing a unified purpose to the school's improvement interventions. Consequently, ALBAU is defined as subsuming Category E in a totally inclusively manner.

7.4.2 An Outcome Space for All Understandings

As an outcome space has been produced for both literature understandings and empirical understandings, and as the relationships between all the individual understandings have now been established, Figure 7.14 attempts to express all the relationships graphically.

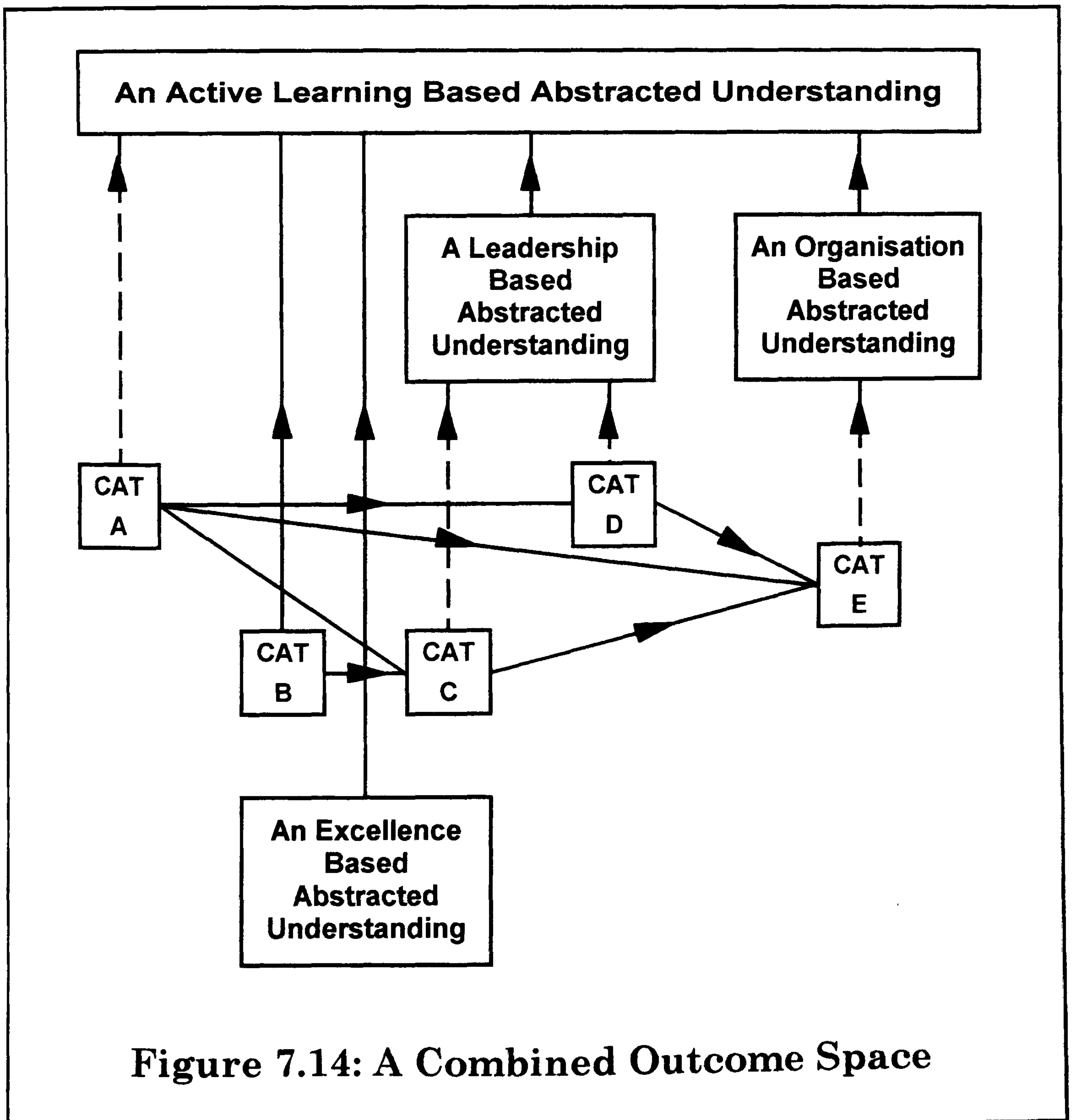


Figure 7.14: A Combined Outcome Space

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The literature understandings are labelled in full, and the empirical understandings have the word 'category' shortened to the first three letters followed by a capital letter indicating the particular category. Although a rather fine distinction, inclusive hierarchical relationships are shown by a dashed line, and non-inclusive hierarchical relationships by a solid line.

7.5 Conclusion

Using a phenomenographic approach, five empirical understandings of what needs to be done to improve the school have been defined, and the logical and hierarchical relationships between them mapped in an outcome space. Similarly, based on a phenomenographic analysis of appropriate literature, four literature understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school have been discovered, and the logical and hierarchical relationships between them illustrated in an outcome space.

Both complexes of understandings have been combined, and the relationships between all the individual understandings discussed and expressed in a single, unifying, outcome space. The two complexes of understandings, their separate outcome spaces and their combined outcome space, represent the main research findings of this thesis.

Chapter Eight

Discussion and Conclusion

8.1 Overview

8.2 Addressing the Gap in the Research

8.3 Applications of Understandings

8.4 Conclusion

8.1 Overview

The appropriate nature of research into headteachers improving schools, and the location of this research within education management literature are discussed. The main findings of the research, in terms of empirical understandings, literature understandings, and outcome spaces, are outlined and elucidated, and some potential applications proposed. What might practically be involved in some of these applications, and how they might relate to other applications of knowledge, is also examined. Finally, the personal lesson learned from the research journey, and its implications for the researcher's headship, are considered.

8.2 Addressing the Gap in the Research

Ribbins and Marland (1994) argue that to answer questions about the role of headteachers, new methods of research are needed. Specifically, they argue for a situated perspective (made up of views and actions of headteachers); a contextualised perspective (where the views of headteachers' significant others create the context); and a contextualised perspective in action (an exploration of what headteachers say in the context of what they do). In determining how headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school through the use of a simulation, this research addresses elements of Ribbins and Marland's (1994) situated and contextualised perspectives, and applications of this

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research could potentially contribute to their contextualised perspective in action.

This research also responds in part to Ribbins's (1996) call for headteachers to become both the subject of and a full partner within research, as part of Gronn's (1996) new world order of research that emphasises biographical investigations. Innes-Brown (1993), in his subjective theorists' critique of the positivistic perspective, summarises a key axiom of the positivistic approach as the inability to separate meaning from action, as values and facts are inseparable. In response, this research reflects a move from knowing about headship from the outside, to knowing about headship from the inside, specifically to explore the meaning of headteachers' behaviours. It also supports Preedy's (1993) hopes to persuade heads and teachers to think about themselves, and their work in the schools, as this can be empowering, and has the potential to positively transform the school culture.

A headteacher's first responsibility is to maximise pupil learning in a school, through effective and efficient practice. Velde and Wood (2001, page 242) see understanding work as the basis for the development of the required competence, where understanding is a meaning-making process. They argue that work should be meaningful at both personal and collective levels. This study reflects the suggestion that headteacher

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competence is dependent on meanings attributed to tasks, and ultimately understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school.

As Marton (2001, page ix) stresses, we cannot act except in relation to how we see a situation, and therefore as we reach something relating to a knowledge-based mode of production, competence is becoming more about being able to see what a situation demands, and acting accordingly. Ghaye (2001, page 181) argues that an empowered workforce works confidently and competently, where competence is a function of the tension between the meaning we attribute to our tasks, and the way our workplace liberates or constrains us. He emphasised that such empowerment comes through reflection of one kind or another, and that through reflective practice, we are empowered to act in ways that are seen as competent.

Sandberg (2001, page 12) progresses from seeing the notion of competency as an attribute-based phenomenon, to a phenomenon made up of our specific understandings of our work. He argues that these understandings (which are relational in nature) form and organise what we know and can do into distinctive ways of performing our tasks. Further, he suggests that our understandings of work determine both what competences we develop, and how we develop them, which tends to be a circular rather than linear process (Sandberg, 2001, page 15). Sandberg (2001, page 24) argues for using understandings of work as the

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point of departure for developing competence. This research provides understandings relating specifically to headteachers' primary responsibility and area of work, improving their schools, which could form the basis of further study into the development of headteacher competence, directly in line with Sandberg's argument.

Although education management and associated areas of study lack a readily accepted concept map, the potential of theory, as a tool to enhance the quality of thinking of those working in the field, is difficult to dispute. Many areas of literature contribute to the development of relevant theory, but none explicitly address how headteachers in particular understand what needs to be done to improve a school. Phenomenographic analyses undertaken within this study reveal five empirical based and four literature based understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. Furthermore, the logical and hierarchical relationships between the understandings, both in their respective sub-categories of four and five, and as a combined complex of nine, have been defined.

When Hoyle (1982, page 91) considers theories of organisations, he refers to their relative nature (of their being a product of their place and time), their partial nature (in that adopting one perspective necessarily excludes at least some others owing to the impossibility of possessing a total perspective), and their normative nature (all perspectives are infused with values). Reflection on the current research suggests that these

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attributes could apply equally well to headteachers' understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school.

The focus of this research is different to that of Hoyle's (1982) work, in that it is concerned with understanding headteachers' understandings, and according to Day (1999), cited in Velde (2001, page 199), this is a necessity if we are to have any hope of understanding competence in schools. Understanding understandings is a difficult undertaking, as while we can only be conscious of one understanding at any one time, individuals have the capability to understand a phenomenon in any number of different ways. Even when understandings have been identified, they can only be generalised and applied to other populations to the extent that the subjects involved in the generation of the understandings are representative of those other populations (Marton and Booth, 1997, page 124).

8.3 Applications of Understandings

Empirical research with secondary school headteachers revealed five understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school. These consist of a diagnostic approach to increasing knowledge; an incentive based approach to stimulating a more dynamic environment; an inclusive approach to stakeholders re-establishing values, policies and vision; an enforcement approach to expectations and quality standards; and a development planning approach to co-ordinating initiatives. Although

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the understandings emerged initially as a consequence of asking subjects to focus on a particular (simulated) school, the school simply formed the context, the situation in which the phenomenon of interest is situated, and therefore the equivalence of 'the school' and 'a school' in the definitions of the understandings is rational, and fully justified.

A phenomenographic analysis of the literature produced four generalised, framework or abstracted understandings: an excellence based understanding that focuses on what constitutes an excellent headteacher; a leadership based understanding that focuses on the processes of leadership; an organisation based understanding that focuses on the school as an organisation; and an active learning based understanding that focuses on the inter-dependence of pupil, professional and organisational learning. These literature based understandings have the potential to be more wide ranging and comprehensive than the empirical understandings, depending on the positions adopted across their contingent dimensions.

The specified understandings can be treated as forming three complexes: an empirical complex; a literature complex; and a combined complex (as all understandings are of what needs to be done to improve a school). The combined complex will be the most complete (as it necessarily contains the most desirable understanding, and all known other understandings), but whether the increased complication compared with the empirical or

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literature complexes is matched by increased effectiveness and usefulness is a matter for further research.

The understandings, as elements of an empirical complex, a literature complex and a combined complex, are not intended to be applied as a way of typing headteachers, as this would be to ignore fundamental phenomenographic principles. What they do offer is a framework with which to examine ways of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school, for personal reflection (and therefore learning and professional development), and for the sharing of ideas (with the help of common points of reference, and a shared vocabulary). In practical terms, anyone applying a complex of understandings (either solitarily or with others) will need to embrace a multi-faceted approach to knowledge, and appreciate the often subjective nature of organisational reality, either of which could require significant conceptual change, or even the adoption of a different ontology. Comparisons can be made between the application of a complex of understandings and the application of organisation theory. Both are made up of components that contain elements of truth, or truth from a given perspective, that can resonate with researchers and practitioners (knowledge workers), and both struggle to attain integration and completion, as all such descriptions are essentially provisional. A more comprehensive, more detailed, more powerful and therefore more desirable understanding or theory can always emerge in the future.

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Similarly, comparisons can also be made between the use of a complex of understandings and a Belbin analysis. Desirable understandings could be experienced by different members of a school community, or members of the community could consciously elect to adopt particular understandings that they judge to be helpful as part of a school improvement process. Essentially, the application of a complex of understandings could be divided into three phases: adopting the various ways of experiencing or understanding what needs to be done to improve a school; examining the range of implications (at both an individual and systems level) of the various understandings; and determining the most appropriate or effective understanding in a given context.

As part of this research, logical and hierarchical relationships have been defined between the empirical understandings, with a development planning approach to co-ordinating initiatives emerging as the most inclusive (and therefore most desirable) of the empirical understandings. Further, the outcome space presented in Figure 7.3 suggests that there are potentially two different ways that a development planning approach to co-ordinating initiatives can incorporate some of the other understandings. First, improve a school by co-ordinating initiatives through a development planning approach that enforces expectations and quality standards that are based on detailed knowledge of the school. Second, improve a school by co-ordinating initiatives through a development planning approach that includes stakeholders re-

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establishing values, policies and vision within a dynamic environment supported by a sound knowledge base.

The cultural and structural differences between two schools whose headteachers adopted the different interpretations would necessarily be enormous, despite the fact that the same overall understanding would be employed. However, it is logically possible that a development planning approach to co-ordinating initiatives can incorporate elements of all the other understandings, but not necessarily in the same circumstances or at the same time.

The logical and hierarchical relationships between the literature understandings and all the understandings have also been defined (Sections 7.3 and 7.4 respectively), with an active learning based abstracted understanding emerging as the most inclusive and therefore most desirable of the understandings in both cases. Within the literature complex, an active learning based understanding can incorporate a leadership based and an excellence based abstracted understanding, an organisation based understanding, or even all three. The permutations of understandings that can contribute to an active learning based abstracted understanding within the combined complex are rather numerous. However, it is important to remember that the most desirable understanding in a complex is not always employed, and therefore that other, less complete understandings, can be employed equally often.

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The lower understandings may be partial and inadequate in themselves, but they are potentially able to make powerful contributions to the school improvement process in certain circumstances – a notion akin to leaders applying different leadership styles in different circumstances (situational leadership). The matching of an appropriate understanding to a given set of circumstances would be essential for the success of such an approach, and this would require familiarity with the various understandings, and an appreciation of the key implications of adopting each of them. In the application of organisation theory, the selection of an appropriate lens can be guided by posing carefully chosen questions (Bolman and Deal, 1997), so perhaps further research could provide similar guidance for the application of different understandings.

There is clearly potential for applying the discovered understandings and outcome spaces (or variation) to the initial training, continuous professional development, and appointment of headteachers (and other school leaders), as headteachers' understandings directly affect school improvement. Applying the findings of this phenomenographic study to these situations is consistent with Trigwell's (1994) assertion that:

...it would not be a misuse of the results [of a phenomenographic study] to use the relations between conceptions to develop a mechanism to facilitate conceptual change.

(Trigwell, 1994, page 71)

Booth (1997, page 146) suggests specifically that by becoming aware of variation in ways of experiencing or understanding a phenomenon, we

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become open to the possibility of change, and Dall'Alba (1994) argues that as we understand different ways of understanding something, we are more able to develop understandings in ourselves and others. However, on a cautionary note, Boulton-Lewis et al (2001, page 48) warn not to expect too much too quickly, owing to the period of disequilibrium, conceptual conflict and reconstruction necessary to achieve substantial change.

Although the understandings and outcome spaces, as discovered and defined within this research, are now available, further detailed work would need to be done to develop Trigwell's (1997) mechanism before the potential of these findings can be maximised. Belbin (1981) developed his questionnaire, Senge et al (2001) their fifth discipline resource pack for becoming a learning organisation, NCSL (2001) their leadership development framework, and the application of understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school to the continuous professional development of school leaders would need an equivalent tool.

To complement the application of the understandings discovered in the current research to some other populations, another potentially useful extension of this study would be the development of an instrument to determine if an individual can demonstrate the capability of understanding what needs to be done to improve a school in a given way, at a particular point in time. With such an instrument, it would be

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possible to test hypotheses concerning the distribution of capabilities to understanding what needs to be done to improve a school (be it only on a snap-shot basis) amongst populations such as expert practitioners, theorists, headteachers working in similar schools (in terms of phase, size and socio-economic group), and school leaders working in the same school. This would open up all kinds of interesting investigations, including the detailed implications of baring certain understandings, more overt links between understandings and effectiveness, and the significance of fostering different combinations of capabilities to understanding in certain ways within a leadership group.

8.4 Conclusion

This thesis makes a number of contributions towards new knowledge. In terms of method, a simulation exercise has been used to generate research data, and elements of the phenomenographic approach have been applied to a body of literature, both of which represent possible developments in the field. In terms of content, five empirical understandings, four literature understandings, and three outcome spaces which describe the logical and hierarchical relationships between the understandings have been described.

Having revealed an outcome space, collective mind, or collective anatomy of awareness for what needs to be done to improve a school, which is the path of phenomenography, phenomenography points away from itself

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when considering the bearing of understandings by individuals (Marton and Booth, 1997, page 136). Consequently, the findings from this research, which emerged from adopting a phenomenographic approach, need to be considered within the field of education management.

From a personal point of view, undertaking a significant research journey has proved to be demanding emotionally, in terms of tenacity, resilience, and generally maintaining motivation over a number of years, as well as intellectually. The unavoidable iterative (as opposed to linear) nature of research, and the fact that it can always be improved, also have emotional as well as the expected intellectual implications. However, the intellectual excitement that occurs when a study begins to come together, or when valuable insights emerge, is second to none.

Coming from a mathematical background, the researcher did not anticipate such a swing from an objective (or positivistic) to a subjective attitude to reality. Consciously re-framing situations, relentlessly seeking meanings, and adopting a more questioning and more analytical attitude generally, can in part be attributed to a swing towards more subjective interpretations of reality. A more subjective approach has also enabled the researcher to become more tolerant of conflicting perspectives, and focus on the implications of holding a particular viewpoint, rather than purely on its inherent validity or truth. In summary, the researcher now possesses a much more developed theory of

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knowledge, and view of reality, as well as the knowledge that both will constantly evolve over time.

As a practising secondary school headteacher, this study has provided the researcher with an extensive and valued theoretical background to everyday practice. In some circumstances, reference is consciously made to theory, while in others, appealing responses to situations seem to present themselves, as (it is believed) a consequence of internalising theory. Different perspectives are often adopted, and time is spent specifically trying to understand the perspectives of others, as it helps explain their behaviour. The focus has moved from right and wrong more to questions regarding the appropriateness and helpfulness of a perspective, and to whether it might provide helpful insights into a situation. Even emotion is accepted as having a role to play.

Although not documented in this thesis, phenomenography's focus on learning has enabled the researcher to develop his own educational leadership, and modify his personal educational philosophy regarding what really matters in schools. Taking on the phenomenographic notion of a researcher/learner (Marton and Booth, 1997) has been particularly influential, both in terms of the researcher's view of himself, and in valuing different types of research in schools.

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Appendix One

The Research Pack

Standard Letter

**Methodology Sheet:
What is Phenomenography?**

Instructions Sheet

**Response Sheet:
Activity Two**

**Response Sheets:
Activity Three**

Sample Information Sheet

Simulated OFSTED Report

24 Lavender Close
Attleborough
Norfolk NR17 2PZ

Tel (01953) 456807

**Standard letter to
potential research
participants on which
personalised letters
were based.**

Mr A Subject
Headteacher
Some School
Local Area
City AB1 2CD

1 June 1999

Dear Mr Subject

Headteachers' understandings of what needs to be done to improve a school

Professor Steve Hodgkinson, in his capacity as my research supervisor, suggested that I contacted colleagues who work in the same geographical area as myself and informed them of my above mentioned doctoral research. It is my hope that you will be willing to be involved in a small element of the project as described below.

Your role in the research would be to read through an edited Ofsted report, come up with a short piece of directed prose (maximum 150 words) and outline a school improvement programme based on the limited information available to you. Although there are no specific 'time limits' for the activities, colleagues who took part in the pilot study spent around one hour scanning through the report and making notes, fifteen minutes working on the piece of prose and anything from an hour drafting out a possible way forward for the school. Colleagues who participate in the research will not be identified in the thesis. For your information, I enclose a brief explanation of the methodology to be employed in the research.

It is very important to me to have enough data from headteacher such as yourself on which to base my research. I have enclosed a research pack in the hope that you will be able to help out, but please just drop it in the bin if this is not going to be possible. If you are able to participate, I would be grateful if you would contact me on 01953 456807 to indicate which of the time periods, Monday 14 June 1999 to Monday 12 July 1999 or Monday 12 July 1999 to Monday 9 August 1999, would be most convenient for you. The identification of a four week period in which to complete the research is intended to ensure that this is a manageable task from your point of view, and one which has a predetermined end date. If you have any questions concerning your involvement in the study, please do not hesitate to contact me either on the above telephone number. Thank you for taking the time to consider this request. I very much hope you will be able to support our investigations.

Yours sincerely

G S Wilson

What is Phenomenography?

Phenomenography is a research approach that tries to identify a number of different ways of conceiving or understanding a given phenomenon.

It is particularly concerned with the variations in the ways people understand a phenomenon (what it refers to as 'qualitative differences') and how these variations might relate to one another.

For example, if you were asked to draw a cube, you might understand by the request that you should produce something similar to Figure 1, 2 or 3, depending on whether you approached the task from an artistic, mathematical or technological point of view.

As you can see, none of the responses is intrinsically 'better' than the others, and the fact that an individual produces one response certainly does not mean that he or she could not produce the other two. **In phenomenography, it is the different ways of understanding a phenomenon that is of interest, and not the particular response of any one individual.**

In order to capture and map the different ways of understanding a phenomenon, it is necessary to work with individual participants, through interviews, or in this case a simulation exercise, to generate a collective 'pool of meaning'. It is this collective pool of meaning that is analysed and used to 'discover' different ways of understanding a phenomenon. The pool of meaning is also used to identify any logical or hierarchical relationships between the resulting conceptions.

In the example above, a simple phenomenographical analysis may result in the following distinct conceptions:

Artistic Cube	Mathematical Cube	Technological Cube
shading foreshortening	straight edges symbolic depth	straight edges oblique face

An Artistic Cube

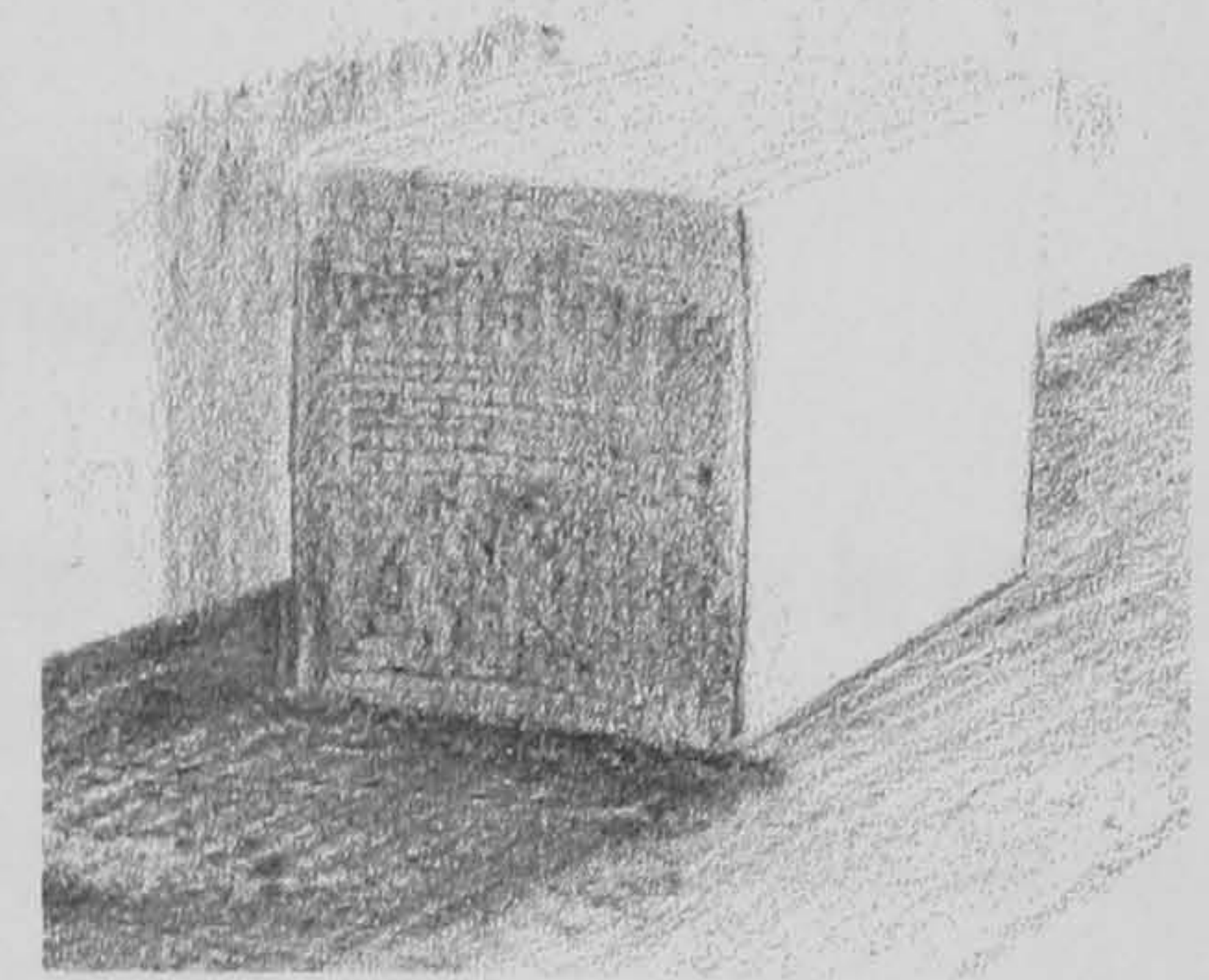


Figure 1

A Mathematical Cube

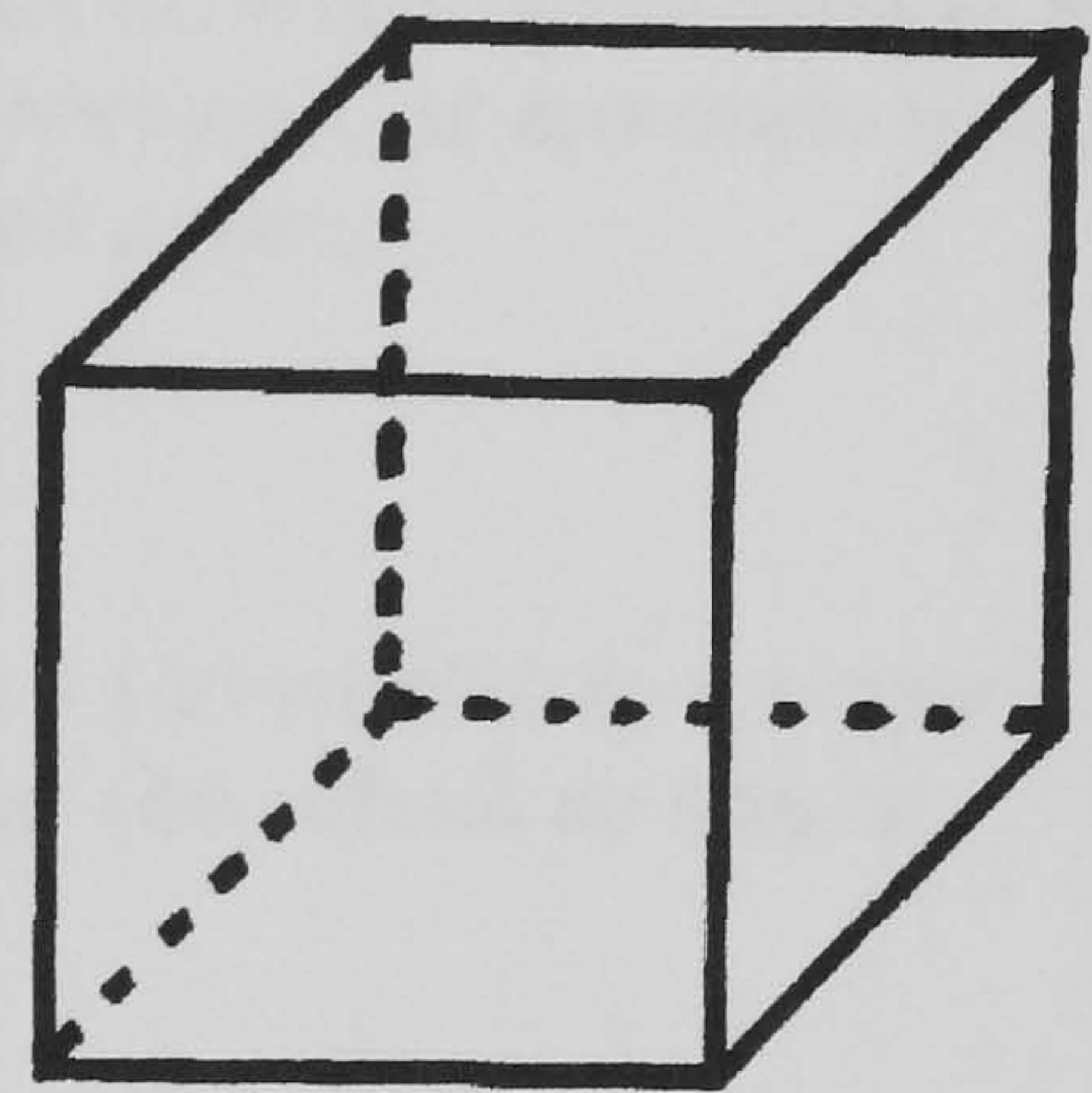


Figure 2

A Technological Cube

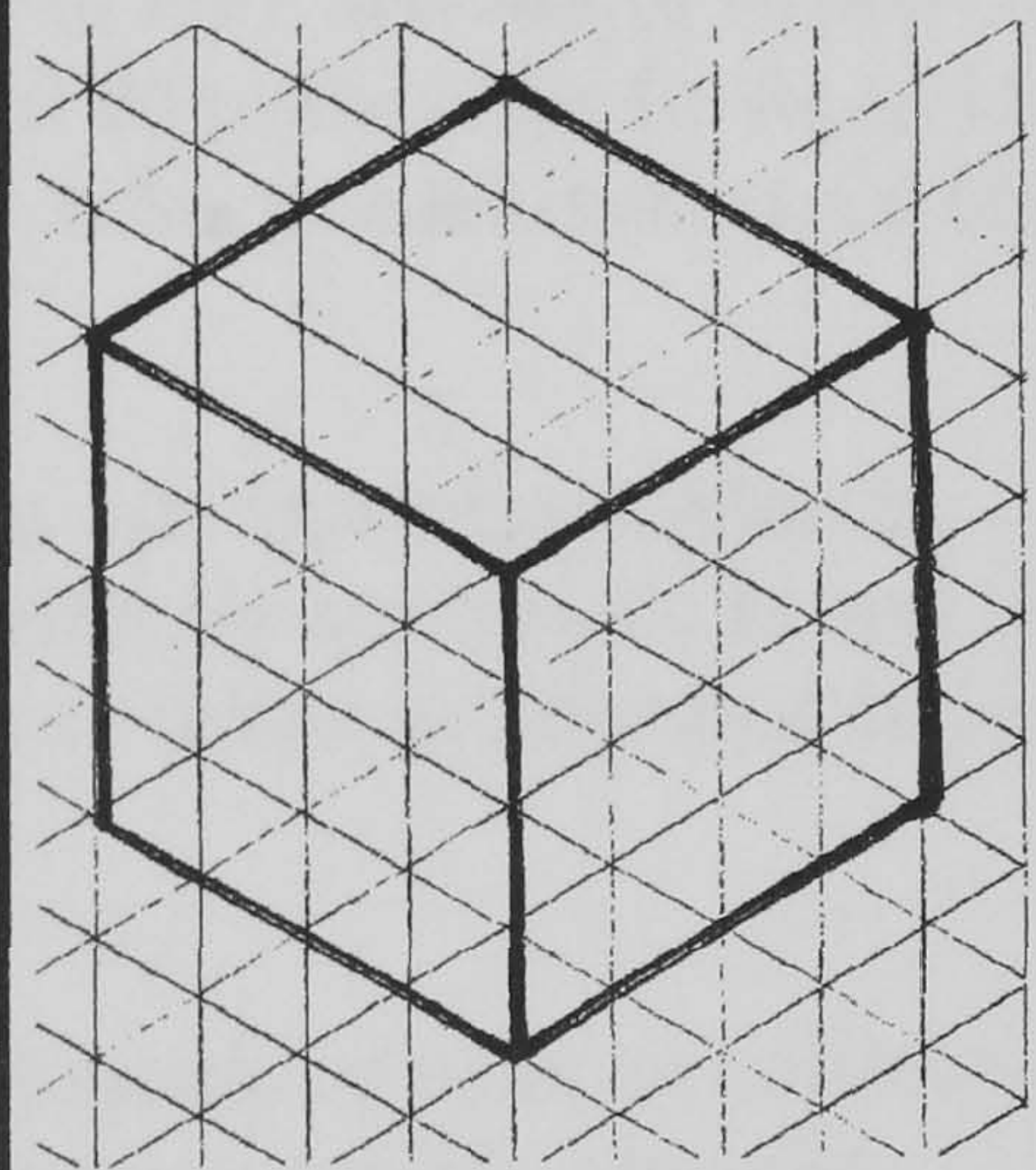


Figure 3

School Improvement at Baker School

Instructions to Participants

Many thanks for giving up your time to support this research into how headteachers understand what needs to be done to improve a school.

I hope that the summary sheet on phenomenography emphasises that it is the **collective data** that is used to generate the different conceptions, and that even when an individual employs a given conception, it is fully appreciated that he or she may well employ a different conception in different circumstances.

Activity One

The first task is to read through the edited Ofsted Report on what is referred to as "Baker School". Please feel free to highlight particular sections, or annotate it with personal reflections, as the enclosed copy will not be used again.

Activity Two

Activity two involves writing a short piece of prose (up to 150 words) to a trusted colleague who has asked for your unguarded thoughts on the school as she is thinking of applying for the headship.

Activity Three

This activity involves identifying up to eight areas for improvement in the school.

For each area you identify, you are asked to suggest up to four actions to enable it to take place and to indicate what the headteacher could do personally to support it. Space is also provided for success indicators which may refer to each action, or the area for improvement as a whole, or both.

Finally, you are asked to suggest the order in which you feel the improvements should be tackled by allocating them a number. It is perfectly acceptable to use the same number more than once to indicate that two or more areas are deemed to be of equal importance or urgency.

Feel free to adapt any documentation to your individual needs or even to substitute a format of your own. Hand written and typed responses are equally valuable. There is a 'helpline' available on 01953 456807 (home) which you are most welcome to use at any time during the research. Please return all responses (but not the printed Ofsted report) and the "Sample Information Sheet" using the SAE provided. Once again, many thanks for your invaluable contribution.

Baker School: Activity Two

Respondent: SAMPLE

In no more than 150 words, draft a short piece of prose to a trusted colleague who has asked for your unguarded thoughts on the school as she is thinking of applying for the headship.

Baker School: Activity Three

Respondent: SAMPLE

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
<p>Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.</p>		

Baker School: Activity Three

Respondent: SAMPLE

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
<p>Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.</p>		

Baker School: Activity Three

Respondent: SAMPLE

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.		

Baker School: Activity Three

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
<p>Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.</p>		

Baker School: Activity Three

Respondent: SAMPLE

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
<p>Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.</p>		

Baker School: Activity Three

Respondent: SAMPLE

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
<p>Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.</p>		

Baker School: Activity Three

Respondent: SAMPLE

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
<p>Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.</p>		

Baker School: Activity Three

Respondent: *SAMPLE*

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
<p>Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.</p>		

Baker School: Activity Three

Respondent: SAMPLE

Area for Improvement	Action(s)	Success Indicator(s)
	(i)	
	(ii)	
	(iii)	
	(iv)	
Ways by which the headteacher could personally support the improvement that are not documented above.		

Sample Information Sheet

Name

School Name

(if appropriate)

Gender

- Male Female

Experience of Headship

- Up to (and including) five years Between five and ten years Ten or more years
- One school Two schools More than two schools

Experience of Working Outside Secondary Schools

- None Up to (and including) five years More than five years
- One position Two positions More than two positions

Name of School - Baker

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INTRODUCTION

BASIC INFORMATION ABOUT THE SCHOOL

1. Type of school: Comprehensive
Type of control: County
Age range of pupils: 11 to 18
Pupils on roll: 1371
Gender of pupils: Mixed
School Address: In a large city

2. The school was established in 1985 by the amalgamation of an 11-16 and an 11-19 school on adjacent sites on the outskirts of the city. The school attracts the full ability range and pupils come from a wide variety of ethnic backgrounds. Over half the pupils come from homes where English is not the first language. The proportion of pupils who have free school meals is just above the national average. The number of pupils with statements of special educational needs is average for shire counties.

3. SCHOOL DATA AND INDICATORS

Number of pupils in each year group

		Boys	Girls	Total
Year	7	122	99	221
Year	8	127	102	229
Year	9	105	115	220
Year	10	122	101	223
Year	11	109	116	225
Year	12	78	91	169
Year	13	40	44	84
School	Total	703	668	1371

Special Educational Needs

Number of pupils having statements of special educational needs	27
---	----

Free school meals

Number of pupils eligible for free school meals	247
---	-----

Teachers and classes

Full-time equivalent teachers	79.5
Pupil:teacher ratio	17.2:1
Percentage class contact	78.3

Teaching time per week

	Hours	Minutes
Key Stage 3	24	25
Key Stage 4	24	25
Sixth form	24	25

Pupil Attendance (percentage)

ANNUAL REPORT TO PARENTS THIRD WEEK IN THE TERM BEFORE THE INSPECTION

Number of exclusions in the last 12 months

		Fixed Period		PERMANENT		Number from ethnic minorities	
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Year	7	7	3	-	-	2	1
Year	8	20	2	-	-	6	1
Year	9	30	16	1	-	7	13
Year	10	32	6	2	-	9	4
Year	11	27	8	1	-	7	4
Year	12						
Year	13						
Totals		116	35	4		31	23

National Curriculum Assessments

Key Stage 3

The school was asked to provide inspectors with the results of National Curriculum Key Stage 3 assessments attained by Year 9 pupils in Summer 1994, but elected not to do so. It is therefore not possible to

Appendix One: The Research Pack

evaluate these results or to use them to help draw conclusions about the standards of work in the school.

Key Stage 4

Public examination results: GCSE SCHOOL RESULTS

GCSE EXAMINATION RESULTS	1994			1993		
	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All
Number of pupils in Year 11	107	109	216	111	89	200
Percentages of pupils Entered for 5+ GCSEs	85.05	93.58	89.35	85.59	91.01	88.00
Achieving 5+ grades A - C	35.51	57.80	46.76	28.83	38.20	33.00
Achieving 5+ A - G	83.18	89.91	86.57	80.18	89.89	84.50
Entered for 1+ GCSEs	90.65	97.25	93.98	95.50	95.51	95.50
Achieving 1+ grades A - G	88.79	95.41	92.13	93.69	95.51	94.50
Entered for all 3 subjects EN, MA and SC	85.05	93.58	89.35	xxx	xxx	xxx
Achieving grades A -C	21.50	38.53	30.09	xxx	xxx	xxx
Achieving grades A -G in all of EN, MA and SC	78.50	88.07	83.33	xxx	xxx	xxx

Other qualifications taken by Year 11 pupils

Type of award	Awarding body	Level	Vocational area	Entries	Results
Certificates	City and Guilds	Foundation	FPFS	40	40 passes

Sixth Form examination Results

A-LEVEL AND A/S EXAMINATION RESULTS	SCHOOL RESULTS 1994			SCHOOL RESULTS 1993		
	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All
Number of pupils entered for	0	3	3	3	4	7

Appendix One: The Research Pack

A-LEVEL AND A/S EXAMINATION RESULTS	SCHOOL RESULTS 1994			SCHOOL RESULTS 1993		
	fewer than 2 A levels					
Average points score of pupils entered for fewer than 2 A levels	0	8.67	8.67	-	-	4.7
Number of pupils entered for 2 or more A levels	31	33	64	27	25	52
Average points score of pupils entered for 2 or more A levels	9.2	15.2	12.3	15.6	16.6	16.1
Number of pupils who were on the final year of a vocational course			52			60
Percentage of entry achieving qualifications			86.5			87

Scoring is 10, 8, 6, 4 and 2 for A level grades A to E and 5, 4, 3, 2 for A/S grades A to E respectively.

Pupils routes on leaving the school

	Further Education/ School	Employment	Training	Other
Year 11	73	3	3	21
Year 12	83	7	10	-
	Further education	Higher education	Training	Other
Year 13	6	81	-	13

Percentage of year group

Financial Information

INCOME (£)	Last full financial year	Current year to date
	1993/94	1994//95
Balance in brought forward	79,179	95,144
Transitional grant - -Recurrent income: e.g. school budget share, annual maintenance grant (AMG), fees	2,526,773	2,626,197
Specific grants, or special purpose grants for curriculum / staff development	23,530	15,536
Other special purpose grants - - TVEI funding - -Other income managed by the school; lettings,	30,987	18,395

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INCOME (£)	Last full financial year	Current year to date
sales, donations, funds raised		
TOTAL	2,636,939	2,755,272
EXPENDITURE	Last full financial year	Budget allocation for current year
Teaching staff	1,925,678	1,484,000
Other staff	228,570	182,064
Educational resources	135,319	122,491
Premises costs	185,082	126,968
Curriculum and staff development	23,530	7,325
Other costs	67,146	46,131
TOTAL	2,541,795	1,968,979
Total expenditure per pupil (£)	1909	-
Expenditure per pupil on educational resources (£)	70.37	

RECORD OF THE EVIDENCE BASE FOR THE INSPECTION

1. The team consisted of twelve inspectors. During the week the team inspected over two hundred lessons, and observed over 30 assemblies and registration periods as well as a range of extra curricular activities. Most teachers were seen teaching at least once and many several times. More than 40 planned discussions were held with members of staff, as well as with the chair of the governing body, four governors, and members of the non-teaching staff. Inspectors looked at the written work of many pupils, and all the available work of a representative sample of six pupils from each year group was inspected. Planned discussions were held with these pupils and informal discussions with many more. The documentation provided by the school was analysed both before and during the inspection. The team considered responses from 260 parents to a questionnaire about their opinions of the school. The Registered Inspector held a meeting attended by parents in the week before the inspection.

MAIN FINDINGS

2. In general, the school as a whole provides a satisfactory quality of education for its pupils. However, there is some inefficiency and underachievement.

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3. Standards are generally appropriate for pupils ages and for courses in the sixth form and are also generally sound in relation to pupils abilities. Pupils with special educational needs often achieve good standards in relation to their abilities. GCSE results are somewhat above the national average but there is significant underachievement by boys in a number of subjects. This year s A level results are below the national average, although in 1993 they were above. Standards in the sixth form are sound and are sometimes good in relation to students abilities with students achieving good standards in the GNVQ programme, mathematics and in other areas.

4. Standards of English are in line with national expectations in Key Stage 4 but are below in Key Stage 3, where there is some underexpectation. Basic reading skills are established throughout the school but higher order reading skills require development. Standards in mathematics are sound in most aspects of the subject but are below average in number. Across the school the ability to use number in everyday contexts is below average. In science, standards are around national expectations but there is underachievement, particularly by the more able pupils. Standards are good in home economics and sound in textiles, but in design and technology they are poor. There is sound achievement in IT lessons, but standards are unsatisfactory across the school. Standards in modern foreign languages are sound but there is underachievement among older pupils. In history they are sound and there is some good achievement in relation to ability. In geography and physical education they are sound but there is underexpectation, particularly amongst older pupils. Standards in art are good and pupils are developing a wide range of skills. In music, standards are generally sound, as they are in religious education, but here they are limited by inadequate provision in Key Stage 4 and in the sixth form. Pupils are articulate speakers, but their skills of listening, argument and counter-argument need development.

5. In most lessons the quality of learning is sound and in the sixth form it is good. Pupils attitudes to their learning and their overall progress are variable. They are at their best where there is good planning by the teacher, and are poorest where there is evidence of ineffective classroom management. Pupils learning skills need further development as they progress through the school.

6. Good quality teaching was often observed to be linked to the existence of good relationships between teachers and pupils. In most lessons the quality of teaching is sound and is characterised by good subject knowledge on the part of the teacher as well as by good relations with the pupils. However, the effectiveness of lesson planning and the match of task to pupils learning needs are variable in quality. In a number of lessons achievement is limited by poor behaviour, itself a consequence of low expectations and poor organisation by the teacher.

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7. The curriculum is generally broad but decisions are often ad hoc and need to be informed by policy. The arrangements for reporting to parents on pupils' achievements do not meet statutory requirements. The quality of marking and homework require attention. Attendance and punctuality are unsatisfactory. The time allocated for registration is not used effectively and this undermines efforts to establish a good start to the day.

8. The school is sensitive to the different cultures represented in its community, but though it celebrates and draws upon its multicultural nature in assemblies and in religious education, this practice does not extend sufficiently to the curriculum. The school has made an effort to promote pupils moral development through its code of conduct but this has not led to consistent expectations of good behaviour in all classes. Efforts are made to support pupils social development through such endeavours as the pupils council. Religious education contributes to pupils spiritual development, but neither for this nor for social development is there sufficient support across the curriculum. The provision for corporate worship does not meet statutory requirements.

9. Day-to-day administration is sound and there are good systems of financial control. The school administrator plays a valuable role within the senior management team. The leadership of the school is open and approachable and there is a harmonious atmosphere in the school. However, expectations of senior and middle management are not clear, particularly in respect to the monitoring and evaluation of the quality of the curriculum. The value for money achieved is mostly satisfactory, but much time is wasted in lessons which do not start on time and in registration periods. Moreover, the deployment of staff is sometimes inefficient. The school operates on two sites but the management of movement between the two sites and the consequent staffing arrangements are unsatisfactory. Lines of communication are not clearly enough established, and strategic planning needs strengthening.

STANDARDS AND QUALITY

STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT

1. Standards of achievement are generally appropriate for pupils ages, and for their sixth form courses, and are mostly sound in relation to their abilities. Although there is little variation overall between Key Stages, standards are highest in Year 7 and weakest in Key Stage 4 and in Year 8. GCSE results are somewhat above the national average but there is significant underachievement by boys in a number of subjects. This year s A level results are below the national average, although in 1993 they were above. Standards in the sixth form are sound and are sometimes good in relation to students abilities, with students achieving good standards in the GNVQ programme and in mathematics and other

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areas. Pupils with special educational needs often achieve good standards in relation to their ability.

2. Standards of English are at national expectations in Key Stage 4 but are below in Key Stage 3, where there is some underexpectation. Here a greater degree of rigour is required and more attention is needed to ensure pupils involvement and concentration. Basic reading skills are established throughout the school but higher order reading skills require development. Pupils are articulate speakers but their skills of listening, argument, and counter-argument need development.

3. Standards in mathematics are sound in most aspects of the subject but in number they are below average. Across the school the ability to use number in everyday contexts is below average. Standards in science are at or above the national expectation but there is underachievement, particularly by the more able pupils. Standards are sometimes affected by a poor quality of learning resulting from a lack of active involvement by pupils and low concentration. In home economics standards are good but no more than sound in textiles, where more high technology is needed. In design and technology standards are poor and pupils need access to a wider range of materials and greater encouragement in design. There is satisfactory achievement in IT lessons, but standards in information technology are unsatisfactory across the school as a whole. Standards in modern foreign languages are sound but there is underachievement among older pupils, who need to develop more knowledge and confidence through a more lively diet of lessons. In history standards are sound and there is some good achievement in relation to ability. In geography and physical education they are sound but there is underexpectation, particularly amongst older pupils. Standards in art are good and pupils are developing a wide range of skills. In music, standards are generally sound. In religious education they are also sound but limited by inadequate provision in Key Stage 4 and in the sixth form.

4. The school commissioned an analysis of the value added by the school for its last 11 to 16 cohort. This analysis indicated that the school did well by most pupils but that there was some underachievement, notably by boys whose first language is English. This analysis has not been used to inform departmental development plans in a systematic manner. It needs to be extended so that governors and senior management are provided with useful information about the relative performance of departments and teachers, and the overall contribution of the school to pupils' achievement. No recent analysis has been made of A level performance in relation to pupils performance at GCSE, and this is a serious omission.

QUALITY OF LEARNING

5. The quality of learning is sound or better in three quarters of lessons, with over a third of them good or better. The proportion of good lessons is higher in Key Stage 3 than in Key Stage 4. Learning is good in both the sixth form and Year 7, where most lessons are satisfactory or better and close to a half of lessons are good.

6. A number of very good lessons were observed in the sixth form but elsewhere in the school these are rare. While the majority of lessons are sound or better nearly three out of ten lessons have some shortcomings. Poor quality of learning is often linked to the quality of the teaching, lack of self-discipline on the part of the pupils, and a limited range of opportunities offered to them.

7. Pupils attitudes to their work in both key stages is variable. In good lessons, they are highly motivated and enthusiastic but in less satisfactory lessons they work slowly, with little motivation, and there is much wasted time. Sixth form students are generally well-motivated and their attitudes are satisfactory.

8. Pupils overall progress in learning is variable in both key stages but sound in the sixth form. Where good progress is made, pupils respond well to challenge. Conversely, where little progress is made, pupils show no interest in the topic, and there is sometimes low level disruption resulting from inappropriate tasks which cause poor motivation.

9. Pupils learning skills are sound throughout the school, but in both key stages pupils rely too heavily on the teachers rather than developing independent learning. In the good lessons, pupils are able to take responsibility for their own learning, through independent study and research, and are able to co-operate well with each other. Where pupils competence as learners is poor, they are provided with no variety of learning opportunity and are unable to develop independent study skills.

10. In the good lessons, pupils take pride in their work, respond to challenge, and are confident and articulate. They are able to debate with the teacher and with one other, are able to ask pertinent questions, are prepared to seek help, and show the ability to work independently and think for themselves. In unsatisfactory lessons, there is often disruptive behaviour affecting the learning of the majority of the class. Few opportunities are provided for pupils to reflect on what they have been taught, their interest is not stimulated, and there is insufficient opportunity for individual research.

11. The school should develop the pupils competence as learners.

12. This will improve pupils' learning and therefore raise standards.

THE EFFICIENCY OF THE SCHOOL

13. The current school development plan has been prepared by the senior management team and approved by the governors. Departmental plans should be directly linked to the school development plan but this is not always the case. Basic departmental needs are allocated through a formula with additional funds distributed on a bidding system, although not all departments made bids last year. Large expenditures, such as the recent purchase of computers, are discussed by governors but there is no formal policy for monitoring or evaluating expenditure.

14. Historical staffing with protected salaries is currently costing £10,000 a year and will continue to be a factor for a further five years.

15. Day -to- day financial control is satisfactory and the school has carried out the recommendations of the recent auditor s report. In terms of standards achieved in relation to budgets the school is providing satisfactory value for money but there are major areas where better value for money could be provided, for example in the deployment and use of staff and in improved curriculum planning for the sixth form, where there are some very light programmes of study.

16. More attention needs to be paid to all investment, including the deployment of staff, to ensure that it results in pupils acquiring and improving skills across the curriculum in order to raise standards. Not all departments have a clear understanding of financial management and in a number of cases heads of department need further development in medium- and long-term management. The school development plan needs to be more clearly aligned to achievement within and across departments, and the governors and senior management team should develop quality assurance procedures linked with job descriptions.

PUPILS PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT AND BEHAVIOUR

Pupils Spiritual, Moral, Social and Cultural Development

17. The school has not developed an agreed approach to the ways in which these aspects should be addressed consistently through the subjects of the curriculum and the general life of the school. A policy to co-ordinate and monitor the school s contribution would enhance the quality of provision. The spiritual dimension of life does not feature prominently in the school, although there is a strong commitment to clear principles, which are expressed in the widely-displayed statement of conduct expected of pupils. The school s contribution to spiritual development appears to come mainly from this commitment to the worth of the individual as a whole. Unfortunately, this ideal is not matched by opportunities for reflection and the study and celebration of human

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achievement either through the day-to-day life of the school or through the general curriculum, with the exception of RE, English and history, where good practice was observed. Assemblies and registrations seen during the inspection do not comply with legislation on collective worship. The reason given is that logistically the school does not have the accommodation to provide daily acts of worship for all pupils. There are plans, however, to encourage wider thinking as to how the situation may be remedied. Opportunities for individual worship are made available during the day on a voluntary basis.

18. Moral development is more effectively promoted. It is a feature of short talks in assemblies and by way of the personal and social programme (PSE), which takes cross-curricular themes as a framework, helping pupils to consider social and moral issues. The PSE programme is taught through form tutors and varies in the quality of its delivery from good to poor. Limited opportunities exist both in PSE and across the curriculum for pupils to explore ideas and issues through expressing views and listening to others opinions in discussion. Moral issues are most helpfully addressed in RE, English, history, drama and science, where good work was observed on the problem of pollution and the individual s responsibility for resources.

19. Relationships among staff are good, and are variable between staff and pupils. Sixth form students assist orderly conduct outside lesson times and operate a reading scheme to help younger pupils; while upper school representatives sit on the school's council. This facility should be extended to the lower school , effectively resulting in a collective responsibility for the whole school community. Social development was seen to be working successfully in science, geography, modern foreign languages and religious education , where good group work was observed. A useful initiative undertaken by the school is the provision for Year 7 pupils, who are placed with specific teachers for much of their timetable to ease the transition from the primary school. Both the school and parents alike value the security this affords the pupils.

20. School policy for equality of opportunity addresses the issue of ethnic and cultural diversity in a well -considered way and although less emphasis is placed on cultural values overall, multi-cultural education is strong. Cultural harmony exists between all groups, and religious leaders are actively involved in lessons and assemblies. Good practice further occurs in IT, mathematics, drama , modern foreign languages and religious education , which regularly organises visits to various religious places of interest. Cultural and personal interests are also promoted through extra-curricular activities, although the provision is limited and is mainly concentrated on sport, music and drama productions. There is some well thought out provision in music for a number of senior students. The school also supports several charities, and much of this work could be extended to provide a culturally rich learning experience.

Behaviour and Discipline

21. Pupils are generally friendly and have good relations with staff, but self-discipline is not fully developed. There are examples of good behaviour but there is some disruption in classrooms, associated with inappropriate tasks and inconsistent expectations on the part of teachers. Poor behaviour was sometimes observed in and around corridors.

22. There is a series of sanctions, including report cards and weekly detentions, and pupils are rewarded with merit marks and certificates. Last year there were 151 fixed period exclusions and four permanent exclusions. A Code of Conduct displayed in class rooms was developed by staff and briefly discussed with pupils. A planned review will involve parents.

23. A policy on bullying is in the early stages of development and will be discussed with parents and pupils. Confidential boxes for the use of pupils are in the two libraries, but one is not used while the other is not emptied on a regular basis.

24. The school should review its behaviour and discipline policy to ensure consistency; encourage self discipline; provide strategies to assist teachers in controlling behaviour; and create an atmosphere conducive to learning in order to improve the quality of education provided.

Attendance

25. Attendance in the third week of last term was 92 per cent. It was best in Year 12 where 96 per cent of pupils attended but in Year 11 it fell to 86 per cent. Authorised absence stood at 6.6 per cent, unauthorised at 1.4 per cent. Figures reported to parents for 1993/94 show an unsatisfactory annual attendance of 89.9 per cent, with 8.5 per cent authorised absence and 1.6 per cent unauthorised.

26. There is also regular lateness at the start of the school day and lessons are frequently delayed, sometimes by up to ten minutes, often because pupils do not move between the two sites with any sense of urgency.

27. Registers are marked correctly at the start of each school session in Years 7-11 and in addition class registers are kept, but there is inconsistency between the two sites in checking the lesson registers against the tutor group registrations. Formal sixth form registers, however, are not taken at the start of every session. Students are expected to sign in but do not always do so and the signing-in sheets are not checked daily, a system which does not comply with statutory regulations.

28. Attendance rates are affected by hard-core absentees, particularly in Year 11, but there are cases of persistent absence across the years. Any absence condoned by parents is recorded as authorised; for example, a number of parents in all years take their children on holiday for between four and ten weeks rather than the permitted two weeks.

29. The school works closely and effectively with the school welfare officer and has taken some steps to improve attendance. It should now ensure that it meets statutory requirements for all pupils and that parents have a clear understanding of what is an acceptable reason for absence. The movement of pupils between lessons should be revised, and new strategies devised to improve attendance and punctuality in a manner which will gain the support of the whole school community.

SUBJECTS OF THE CURRICULUM

English

30. There is a marked difference between the key stages. At Key Stage 3, in just under half the lessons the standard of achievement is below the national average, whereas at Key Stage 4 the majority of lessons are at the national average or above. In the sixth form, all the lessons are at the national expectations or above. Recent examination results in English Language and Literature are below the national average in both GCSE and A level. In relation to the ability of the pupils, achievement is satisfactory or better in about two thirds of the lessons at Key Stage 3, and in all lessons at Key Stage 4, with many lower and middle ability pupils achieving above their ability, particularly in year 11.

31. Although standards of reading are reasonably sound, there does not appear to be a widespread reading-for-pleasure culture, and the department should be supported in its efforts to encourage wider reading in all its forms if higher order reading skills are to be developed. Pupils keep reading logs, but they should be encouraged to talk and write about books, use the library more as independent readers, and be allowed to take class readers home, thus developing a more responsible attitude towards books. All pupils in year 7 or 8 undertake a Shakespeare project as an introduction to studying Shakespeare, and some groups go on to study full plays, but there is evidence that the reading and the study of poetry is somewhat neglected by some teachers.

32. Overall, the quality of writing is sound and there is evidence of some good creative and imaginative writing at all levels and at both key stages. There are some problems of accuracy and presentation, particularly with middle and lower ability groups at Key Stage 3; both spelling and punctuation need addressing more systematically if pupils of all abilities are to improve the quality of their work.

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33. Oral skills are quite good. Pupils are given the opportunities to discuss their work and do so with increasing confidence. Pupils of all ability can articulate their opinions quite well; however, all pupils would benefit from a more systematic approach to the teaching of higher order talking and listening skills, including those relating to discussion and debate, especially those pupils who may wish to study literature post 16.

34. In two thirds of the lessons, the quality of learning is sound or better. Pupils' learning skills are developing, but the department might consider ways in which these study skills can be enhanced. There is a tendency for some pupils to be too dependent upon the teachers and not take enough responsibility for their own learning. In those lessons where the quality of learning is less than satisfactory, there is a great deal of off task behaviour and often little is achieved. Pupils are often talking or inattentive when the teacher is giving instructions. Teachers need to develop strategies to counter such behaviour.

35. The quality of teaching is variable, with the best teaching seen at Key Stage 4 and in the sixth form. Where teaching is sound or better, relationships with pupils are good and are used productively to enhance pupil performance. Teachers are generally supportive, encouraging, and give individual attention as far as possible; lesson planning is sound, and in some cases very good, with activities chosen which exercise all the skills. Tasks set are interesting, often imaginative, and offer a range of writing opportunities. For the most part the work is suitable challenging, particularly at Key Stage 4, where most pupils are being appropriately stretched. Where teaching is unsatisfactory, teacher expectations are too low either in terms of acceptable behaviour or of demanding tasks, and there is a general lack of rigour. Some less able pupils at Key Stage 3 are not being given the same opportunities for creative and imaginative writing as other pupils. Structured materials at the input stage would enable them to demonstrate achievement.

36. The assessment policy is still to be developed, but the foundations have already been laid, the important features have been identified, and the recording mechanisms are starting to be used. Pupils work is marked regularly, but the quality of the teacher comments is variable. Most comments are supportive and encouraging but do not always highlight precisely how pupils can improve their work. Pupils are not generally made aware of learning objectives and assessment objectives, and there is little target-setting. Procedures for monitoring individual pupil performance should be developed as part of the assessment policy.

37. The requirements of the National Curriculum are being fulfilled, and the newly developed schemes of work ensure consistent coverage. Content is mainly appropriate to pupils needs, interests, and abilities; however, in general, pupils are underachieving, particularly the boys and particularly in literature, and whilst this reflects the national trend, the

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department should consider ways in which they might address this issue. The curriculum is enriched by a variety of extra-curricular activities and visits.

38. The department generally caters for the needs of pupils with learning difficulties, in collaboration with the support service. Some excellent teaching of statemented pupils in Year 11 was observed.

39. The department is well managed and organised. The new head of department has recognised its strengths and weaknesses and has already taken steps to address the relevant issues. There is the need, however, for regular departmental meetings of a reasonable length in order to advance the work of the department and to allow for the dissemination of the good practice which exists. The head of department should also devise procedures for monitoring standards in the classroom.

40. Although the resources in the department are just about adequate, there are some areas that need building up, notably lower school drama texts. Some older text books require replacing as a matter of some urgency, and other sets need enhancing. At present the lack of numbers often means that books cannot be taken home by pupils, which hampers the work that can be accomplished and affects standards. The lack of easy accessibility to the IT suites in the school impedes further development of IT skills in English.

41. Accommodation is not very satisfactory. The English classrooms are dispersed over a wide area within each building, so it is difficult to create an English identity as teachers do not always have base rooms in which they can display pupils work. The school should give some thought to the possibility of a suite of rooms in both buildings to allow for an easily identifiable English department, in which the ethos of language and literature can be encouraged.

Drama

42. Drama is taught as a separate subject to all groups at Key Stage 3 and as an option at Key Stage 4. There is an A level Theatre Studies group in the sixth form. The quality of teaching and learning is sound or better, and pupils achieve standards that are often above what might be expected in relation to their abilities. Examination results are good, with boys and girls alike achieving above the national average at GCSE.

Mathematics

43. At both key stages the majority of pupils achieve standards that meet or exceed national expectations, but a significant minority achieve below them. In Key Stage 3 in particular, poor numeracy impedes pupil progress even though other areas of mathematics are at a satisfactory standard. In relation to ability, most pupils at Key Stage 4 are achieving

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appropriate standards, but at Key Stage 3 a substantial minority of the pupils are achieving standards below their capabilities. At sixth form level, standards of achievement of A-level students are high in relation to course requirements and are good in relation to their capabilities. Sixth form students follow both mathematics and further mathematics courses with sound results.

44. Results in GCSE are consistently above the national averages for comprehensive schools and are well represented at the highest grades. In the sixth form some students re-taking GCSE are achieving standards that are high for their abilities.

45. Pupils attitudes to the subject are mostly positive, but the quality of learning is variable. At Key Stage 3 in most classes the quality of learning is sound but in some classes there are shortcomings in important areas. At Key Stage 4 the quality of learning is mostly sound or better. In the sixth form the quality of learning is at least sound and mostly shows good features, with no major shortcomings.

46. Most pupils are articulate and respond well when questioned about their work. They work well both individually and co-operatively and the most able can apply what they have learned to unfamiliar situations, sometimes displaying considerable maturity when expressing in writing and generalising the patterns they have discovered. In the best lessons at both key stages pupils have a secure grasp of earlier learning, respond well to challenge, and are able to carry out much everyday mathematics mentally. Most written work is well presented and able pupils produce work of high, and sometimes exceptional, quality.

47. The curriculum at both key stages is well planned to meet the requirements of the National Curriculum but there is need for the department to make more use of real data and to give greater emphasis to multicultural mathematics and the cross-curricular themes. The department makes good efforts to ensure that work from the Using and Applying attainment target permeates work in the other attainment targets. Calculators are used sensibly, but pupils make insufficient use of microcomputers in mathematics.

48. A comprehensive scheme is employed for assessing pupils' achievements. Pupils records contain sufficient entries of their coursework, tests, and other work to demonstrate their achievements over the five attainment targets, and in this they exceed minimum statutory requirements. However, reporting to parents is sometimes not sufficiently informative and does not comply with statutory requirements at the end of either key stage. Whilst both able and less able pupils are well catered for at Key Stage 4, the programme for these pupils at Key Stage 3 should be reviewed to take into account individual needs and progress.

49. The quality of teaching is variable but mostly has good features and no major shortcomings. Some outstanding A-level teaching was seen. In most lessons teaching is well planned and appropriate to pupils abilities, the expectations are high and the pace challenging, leading to a good pupil response. Marking of pupils' work and the homework set are, however, of variable quality. In the best examples pupils work is marked regularly and contains informative comment when appropriate. The ethos for learning on both sites is variable, but mostly good throughout the department.

50. Much of the departmental documentation is of very high quality. The department is very well organised and is well led on curriculum and administrative matters. Monitoring and support in the department is in its infancy and is seriously constrained by the widely dispersed rooms and the relatively high contact ratio of the head of department and second in charge. Responsibilities are delegated wisely and carried out willingly and efficiently. Members of the department try hard to work as a team and respond well to curriculum developments.

Science

51. In the majority of lessons most pupils are at or above the national expectation for their age and there is a good proportion of lessons in which many achieve beyond national expectations. In a substantial minority of lessons a significant proportion of pupils are underachieving, and this is more pronounced at Key Stage 4 than at Key Stage 3. In relation to pupils abilities the proportion of underachievement is lower but still substantial at both key stages. Pupils with special needs are achieving satisfactorily, but in the main those of good ability are achieving standards no higher than sound.

52. In lessons where standards are not as high as might be expected, pupils knowledge of the science topics is weak, they are unable to use technical terms with confidence, and their understanding is not secure. Written work is very well presented and carefully done by some pupils, but overall standards are variable. Numerical skills are regularly in use and standards are sound. A significant proportion of middle and lower ability pupils may be underachieving in science as a consequence of poor skills in reading and writing. Pupils are rarely given the opportunity to demonstrate their skills with information technology within science.

53. In advanced level examinations, the highest grades (A/B) are achieved by some pupils in all three science subjects, and most pupils achieve a grade of success. The number of pupils choosing to study A level science has increased significantly in the last two years. Standards in GCSE examinations have improved each year for the three years to the present, and in 1994 were at the level of the national average. No information is available on standards at the end of Key Stage 3.

54. In the majority of lessons, where the quality of learning is sound or better, the pupils make good progress in knowledge and understanding. In most lessons pupils are keen to do experiments, and they respond readily to practical tasks when given the opportunity. In a good proportion of lessons all pupils are purposeful and serious minded in their approach to learning. However, there is a significant proportion of lessons in which some pupils are noisily disruptive, disrespectful to their teachers and apparently uninterested in learning. Progress in learning is limited in a larger proportion of lessons by slow pace and unchallenging tasks.

55. The science teachers are well qualified and have a good range of experience. Lessons are well prepared and pupils are well provided with materials to support learning. All the teachers work hard, show great patience and perseverance, and have good knowledge of their subjects. In the majority of lessons the quality of teaching is sound or better, and in a good proportion of them the teachers set a challenging pace, have high expectations of the pupils, and take time to ensure effective reinforcement of learning. In a large minority of lessons the quality of teaching is less than satisfactory. In these lessons there is a variety of unsatisfactory features which in some degree limit the effectiveness of the teaching. Acceptance of poor pupil behaviour and inadequate classroom control is one such feature. Another is the over-use of low level tasks such as copying from books or from the blackboard on to worksheets, note taking, and dictation, which serve to occupy pupils rather than teach them. There is too little reinforcement of the learning objectives of lessons to ensure that what is written is also known and understood. In some of these lessons the pupils are allowed to set the pace, and time is used inefficiently. In order to improve the standards and quality of education in science the teachers should revise their strategies in these areas to improve the quality of pupils learning. In many classes, across all age ranges, there is not sufficient insistence that homework is handed in on time. Moreover, lessons suffer from late starts, with the loss of five minutes a regular experience, and the loss of ten minutes not unknown.

56. There is a departmental policy for marking and assessment which is effective to the extent that marking of pupils work is generally frequent, up to date, and includes good measures of praise and encouragement. Teachers records of pupils progress are detailed and well maintained. However, there is little coherence in standards and practice. The department does not meet National Curriculum requirements in the use of attainment levels and the collection of samples of pupils work which exemplify attainment at each level. As a consequence, the department is unable to monitor effectively its performance in raising standards.

57. The department provides a wide range of courses for which schemes of work are in place. An impressive range of materials and

lesson plans to support learning is competently organised to give effect to well-planned schemes for science teaching in Key Stages 3 and 4. On the other hand, the organisation of investigations in Key Stage 3 is unsatisfactory. The National Curriculum requires investigations to be an integral part of courses in Years 7, 8 and 9, and steps are now being taken to implement this requirement. Pupils are not being given opportunities to choose ways of using computers to collect, store, retrieve, and present scientific information. This is a major gap in curriculum provision.

58. Science technicians give good service in support of teachers and pupils. Apparatus and equipment is well ordered, efficiently deployed and used effectively, though text book provision is inadequate. The quality of accommodation is variable; four new laboratories are well equipped, but one demountable has passed the end of its useful life for science teaching. Generally, laboratories are overused, and this inhibits proper maintenance.

59. The science managers hold regular meetings which are fully minuted, with points for action clearly noted, and development planning is in place. The complex operation of organising a large number of teaching groups with teaching modules and teaching staff is well administered. There are, however, a number of serious matters which should be addressed by science managers to improve the efficiency of science teaching. These are as follows:-

60. steps should be taken to even out the wide variation in class sizes, which at present range from only four pupils to as many as 29 in the sixth form and include groups of well over 30 in years 10 and 11.

61. the deployment of teaching staff and the allocation of text books should be reviewed to correct the situation which at present gives too great a share to separate science groups in years 10 and 11 at the expense of other groups.

62. the proportion of teaching by senior managers should be increased at Key Stage 3.

63. there should be a review of priorities which have led to over-use of laboratories, the timetabling of science lessons outside the school day, and excessively high teaching loads for some members of staff.

64. schemes of work should be revised to ensure that National Curriculum requirements are more fully implemented in respect of levels of attainment at Key Stage 3, collection of samples of pupils' work as examples, investigations at Key Stage 3, and opportunities for using computers in science.

65. steps should be taken to ensure that regulations for the safe storage of dangerous substances are fully met and to rationalise generally the storage of chemicals.

66. procedures should be instituted for the effective monitoring and review of standards and of the quality of learning and teaching.

67. It will be necessary for the department to work closely with senior management to resolve some of these problems.

Technology

Design Technology

68. At Key Stage 3, in just under a half of lessons, the majority of pupils achieve at least the national expectation, but in over half of lessons many are below. In half of lessons pupils achieve appropriately, with some attaining levels that are high for their abilities, but in some, many pupils are underachieving. In some lessons, pupils demonstrate appropriate understanding and skills as outlined in the Programmes of Study. They can measure and mix ingredients, knead dough and use a limited range of hand and machine tools, are able to retain and apply their knowledge, and work safely and hygienically. However, where achievement is low, pupils fail to identify needs through appropriate research and by generating designs when they are given tasks to accomplish. This happens when the project assignments have not been located firmly in a context, and there are occasions when pupils settle for design solutions that are trivial.

69. At Key Stage 4, in three quarters of lessons seen, most pupils achieve beyond the national expectation, but in the other quarter many achieve below it. In relation to ability, pupils achieve appropriately in three quarters of the lessons, with many achieving high levels; in a quarter of lessons, however, a significant minority underachieve. When suitably motivated, pupils demonstrate that they understand, retain, and apply knowledge and skills of design and technology, appreciating the need for quality outcomes in fashion design and manufacture, and are well able to discuss their work. They show some proficiency in investigating, designing, making and evaluating. When working in wood, the pupils use hand and machine tools responsibly and accomplish practical work which is sometimes of high quality in relation to their abilities, but the planning and graphical work does not reach the high standards achieved elsewhere. In the sixth form, the substantial majority of pupils achieve the course requirements and at levels that are appropriate for their abilities. Pupils are developing at an advanced level some proficiency in investigating, particularly in home economics, and in designing and making, which challenge and extend them in relation to their abilities.

70. At Key Stage 3, the quality of learning is variable, ranging from sound to poor; in about half the lessons there are shortcomings in important areas, significantly so in a quarter. Where learning is sound, pupils are quick to respond and participate fully, using and extending their knowledge, understanding and skills in a limited range of materials. Relationships are good, with pupils co-operating fully with each other. Where there are shortcomings, there is little scope for problem-solving, insufficient extension of knowledge and understanding, and mere repetition of skills, together with some disruptive behaviour which goes unchallenged by the teacher. Furthermore, pupils are too heavily dependent on inputs from teachers. The pace of work is slow and any learning objectives in the planning are not made explicit to pupils; homework, if set, is undemanding and lacks structure.

71. At Key Stage 4, in three quarters of the lessons the quality of learning is sound, but a quarter manifest many shortcomings. Pupils use an increasing range of relatively simple techniques, processes and resources with confidence. They are prepared to persevere in the organising, planning and making of their products, their work is well presented, and they tend to work independently. They ask questions to clarify their understanding and freely discuss their work with their peers. Relationships are sound. Where learning has shortcomings, there is insufficient coverage of the National Curriculum attainment targets and some unsafe practice with sharp edged tools, coupled with a lack of concentration on the task. In the sixth form, the quality of learning has good features, resulting in a heightened appreciation of the necessary skills and requirements for designing with accuracy and to an effective design. The skills necessary to work as a team are being suitably developed.

72. At Key Stage 3, in half of the lessons seen, teaching is sound or better, but in half there are shortcomings. When teaching is well organised, and practical skills are carefully taught, opportunities are provided for pupils to observe the skilled use of resources and to learn to handle them independently. Teachers show by their planning and teaching that they have a clear command of their subject and there is adequate consideration of health and safety matters. Opportunities are provided for pupils to discuss and analyse their work. Where there are shortcomings, teachers lack leadership and spend time almost exclusively in one-to-one discussion, out of earshot of the remaining pupils, or serve in the capacity of technician, cutting materials for pupils. Pupils behaviour or inactivity goes unchallenged. There is little variation in the match of lesson planning to pupils abilities, and too much time is spent on calling the register and packing away in what are relatively short one-hour lessons.

73. At Key Stage 4, half the lessons are sound. Teachers work briskly and create suitable opportunities for pupils to work individually, apply

their technological knowledge, discuss and analyse their work, particularly with other pupils, justify the ideas and approaches they have used, and propose improvements. Where there are shortcomings, the teacher adopts the role of technician too much and fails to insist on pupils following the necessary safety procedures for tying back long hair when using machines. There is insufficient attention given to discussion and analysis during the lessons. In the sixth form, teaching has some good features, sets high expectations, and conveys a strong sense of enthusiasm and interest in pupils work.

74. Approaches to assessment and recording are under review in the light of the changes to the National Curriculum, but the present system in operation meets existing requirements. However, reports to parents do not indicate how pupils are progressing and achieving in National Curriculum terms.

75. There is a complicated division of departmental management. A head of art, design and technology oversees the curriculum area as a whole, within which there is a head of home economics and a co-ordinator for technology who is also the head of physics. The lower school site is led by the deputy head of department who teaches art and graphics. Design and technology is taught through a number of separate elements: resistant materials, electronics, graphics, food and textiles. Graphics and textiles are taught strongly from Key Stage 3 alongside food studies. The multi-materials approach is very light, with an excessive emphasis on the realisation of designs in wood rather than in other materials. At Key Stage 4, and in the sixth form, there is significant evidence of gender-stereotyping in the composition of pupils in some, but not all, classes and in previous years examination entries.

76. All rooms have some provision for display. A limited range of pupils work, mostly of graphics, is displayed in most rooms. Within the department and around the school there are some three-dimensional products on display which serve as stimulus material. There is an adequate range of machines and appliances in each technology room, though some machines are dated and there are only limited resources for working in plastics. Heat treatment facilities have been upgraded with air extraction in recent years but are under used. There is a noticeable lack of IT available for use in the technology rooms, though some limited use of audio-visual resources was seen during the inspection.

77. The standard of accommodation varies but is generally sound and good in home economics and in some graphic rooms and workshops. Workshops tend to be equipped for single material activities and this produces a restriction on the National Curriculum. On each site, there is an appropriate range of rooms.

Information Technology

78. Information technology at Key Stage 3 is taught discretely for one lesson a week in timetabled half-year modules within a technology carousel, but there are insufficient measures in place to ensure that all pupils have a similar and consistent experience. Achievement in relation to pupils ages and abilities is appropriate for the majority of pupils and meets the national expectation. In Year 7, pupils are mastering word processing skills to write a newspaper and are loading and saving files, while those in Year 8 are using desktop publishing to set up the screen and to change layouts, picture and text frames. The planning for Year 9 shows an intention to undertake appropriate activities with spreadsheets from the National Curriculum strand Modelling, using Multiplan and Excel, together with measurement and control using screen images such as LOGO. All the National Curriculum strands are covered during the key stage, though measurement and control receives only limited coverage, particularly in applications in practical situations.

79. At Key Stage 4, all pupils follow either a GCSE information systems course, for two periods each week, or an information technology certificate course for one period. The time allocation, of 8% and 4% respectively, is limited. However, the substantial majority of pupils in discrete lessons achieve the national expectations, with many achieving beyond level 7. Almost all pupils are achieving a standard which is appropriate for their abilities or, in the case of some, high for their abilities. There were no GCSE examination results in 1994, all Year 11 pupils having followed the Leicestershire certificated scheme. In the sixth form, the substantial majority of pupils following A level computing or a GNVQ business education course achieve at least the standard expected, with many achieving beyond it. Almost all these pupils are achieving appropriately for their abilities. Advanced level examination results for Year 13 in 1994 show that two out of the four boys entered achieved pass grade C and the others grade D.

80. The quality of learning is sound at Key Stage 3 and sound or better at Key Stage 4. At Key Stage 3, pupils respond well to the challenge of the tasks and are able to acquire, apply and extend their skills in word processing and desktop publishing. They work mostly in pairs and have opportunities to talk constructively with one another about the task. Some use newspapers to develop their own ideas about writing a newspaper, using Caxton. At Key Stage 4, pupils make useful gains in their understanding and skill and are well motivated. In the sixth form business GNVQ (Intermediate) course, all pupils progress well at their own pace in a range of DTP tasks, and at A level they are developing a sound understanding of logic theory.

81. The quality of teaching at Key Stage 3 is sound, with appropriate pace and challenge for the majority of pupils. There is a mixture of whole class teaching and one-to-one contact, and the clear aims set out in the

planning are then transmitted to pupils. Teachers intervene sensitively with pupils of differing ability, giving positive verbal encouragement. More differentiated activities, for those making slower progress, would improve teaching further. At Key Stage 4 and in the sixth form, the quality of teaching is good, with an appropriate lesson structure which plans for differentiation. Pupils are given clear learning objectives, and there is a short but detailed demonstration to the whole class, followed by appropriate intervention as pupils work individually at their assignments. The teacher's enthusiasm for the subject is successfully communicated to the pupils to good effect.

82. Pupils work is assessed by National Curriculum levels; a new assessment proforma is in the process of being introduced this term for each strand module in Key Stage 3. In addition to the assignment of a level, an effort grade is included, together with a space for pupils to comment on their work. A system for assessing and recording across the curriculum has still to be introduced.

83. The school information technology policy is at present under review. In the development plan for 1994-95, a key aim has been to upgrade information technology resources in the school and in recent months there has been an extensive programme of updating provision, two thirds under way, to rationalise the range of hardware and software. A need has been identified to continue with training for all staff through the purchase of the LEA in-service agency's courses, together with in-house professional development days led by the head of department.

84. Cross-curricular information technology is undeveloped within the school and depends on inputs from a few departments, including the core subjects. Across the curriculum, pupils experience and achievement are limited by a lack of opportunity in many subjects to use information technology in context.

85. There is a CD ROM in both libraries, used also by the careers department. The school has a ratio of one computer to 15 pupils. Machines are mostly PCs. Inputs in rooms are limited to the use of keyboards and mice, and there are insufficient alternative input devices such as concept keyboards for special educational needs. The standard of accommodation in computer rooms varies from good to sound and supports the limited provision of equipment which exists in most curriculum areas. A good feature in most rooms is the availability of sufficient worktop space and suitable furniture to allow pupils to plan and discuss their activities before using the computer. Pupils who wish to use computers out of lesson time can have access to two of the rooms in the upper school.

History

86. Standards of achievement in relation to age and ability are sound in Key Stage 3 and good in Key Stage 4. At 6th form level they are sound or better. Achievement in relation to GCSE O level A-G was in line with the national average but was considerably higher than the national average at grades A-C. At 6th form level the achievement was lower than the national norm, with a gender imbalance favouring girls.

87. The quality of learning at Key Stage 3 is sound or better, while the learning taking place in Key Stage 4 and post-16 is good and has no major shortcomings. Pupils work with motivation and interest, responding well to the use of artefacts and stimulating resource material. Most pupils can apply historical skills appropriately. In the best examples of learning, pupils analyse sources critically and are able to make good judgements about the reliability and value of accounts.

88. The quality of teaching at Key Stage 3 is variable, with the best examples of good practice occurring in lessons provided by specialists in the subject. Where members of the department are not history specialists teaching relies heavily on resources provided by the head of department. Both in the sixth form and at Key Stage 4 the quality of teaching is sound or good. There are firm objectives and clear exposition by the teacher, with good planning and organisation. Teachers have high expectations of their pupils and a good command of the subject. These features need to be extended into all Key Stage 3 lessons, where consistency is more variable.

89. There is no formalised arrangement for quality assurance reported to parents in terms of attainment levels. However, the department keeps excellent records of pupils' work and has developed a system of monitoring that makes a good attempt at advising individual progress. However the quality of marking through the department is variable and inconsistent. Homework is set regularly and is varied and of good quality.

90. The quality of the curriculum on offer in the department meets the statutory requirements. Curricular provision would be further enhanced by improved schemes of work in the 6th Form and a more consistent assessment and marking policy which includes performance targets for all levels of ability.

Geography

91. At Key Stage 3, the standard of achievement is either at the national average or above. Where standards are above, pupils are able to undertake detailed geographical enquiry, apply map skills, identify urban land-use zones on development models, and demonstrate an understanding of patterns in human geography. At Key Stage 4 the

standard is mainly at the national average or below. In the cases where the standards are below the national average, underachievement is directly related to the standard of teaching. In the sixth form, the standard of achievement is either at the national average or above. Last year's geography examination results at GCSE were below the national average, with fewer than a quarter of pupils achieving A-C grades; the percentage of pupils obtaining A-G grades was also below the national average. At A level the results were well below the national average, with no pupils obtaining A-B grades and all pupils entered obtaining C-E grades. However, this year only four pupils were entered for the A level examination. In relation to the ability of the pupils at Key Stage 3 and in the sixth form, the standards of achievement are sound or better, whereas at Key Stage 4 the standard is only sound or below. Where the standards are good, many of the less able are achieving highly, mainly as a result of good teacher intervention and support.

92. In Key Stage 3 the quality of learning ranges between sound and good, with the majority of lessons judged to be good. In such cases, pupils are seen to be competent learners who are often enthusiastic about their work and have the ability to work productively, both independently and co-operatively. The quality of learning in the majority of Key Stage 4 lessons has some shortcomings in important areas. In these lessons, there is a great deal of off-task conversation and a general lack of self-discipline, which means that pupils are sometimes disruptive and disinclined to work.

93. The standard of teaching is generally better in Key Stage 3 than in Key Stage 4, although across the curriculum it is variable. Where teaching is sound or better, lessons are disciplined and peaceful, with clear objectives, good methodology and appropriate pace. A range of skilful methods is used to impart knowledge, and pupils are given the opportunities to carry out their own geographical enquiries. Where lessons are unsatisfactory, a narrow range of teaching methods is used, and having set work at the start of the lesson, teachers assume more of a supervisory role. In the worst cases, teachers attempt to talk to the pupils over the class noise rather than establish a disciplined learning atmosphere, and their expectations of acceptable behaviour are too low. At sixth form level the quality of teaching is again variable, ranging from lessons judged to be good to lessons with some shortcomings.

94. Assessment and marking policies are established and in line with school requirements. All work at Key Stages 3 and 4 is regularly marked, and at GCSE and at sixth form level all course work is marked to the required criteria. Each half term, there is a regular departmental moderation and information-sharing session.

95. The content and standards of the National Curriculum are addressed, and in both key stages the curriculum is broad and balanced.

At GCSE level, the Bristol Project Syllabus D is followed, and the department is satisfied with the scope and balance of the content. At A level, the syllabus is seen to be weak in some areas and it is felt that there may be a need for change in the future. There is no specific departmental statement on equality of opportunity, but the whole school policy was taken into account during the development of the subject curriculum and this policy the department attempts to implement. However, there is a serious gender imbalance in the composition of teaching groups in both years 10 and 11, with very few girls being included in the classes. In one class there is only one girl in a group of 23 pupils. The department has produced some fine support materials for pupils in Key Stage 3, and it would be helpful to bring sixth form fieldwork ideas and methodology up to date along the same lines and to attempt to produce some detailed field work units using hypothesis-testing techniques.

96. The statemented pupils and those with special educational needs are, for the most part, integrated into mainstream lessons. Wherever possible, strategies are employed to attempt to keep these pupils fully involved.

97. Documentation is clear and very thorough. The department meets together formally on a monthly basis and the minutes of these meetings are always passed to the senior management team. Funds are efficiently managed and the work of the department is reviewed on a termly basis.

98. All four specialist geography teachers teach classes across the curriculum. Base geography in year 7 is taught by teachers who are non-geographers, but all the work is well supported and resourced by the department specialists. There is a reasonable supply of relevant text books in Key Stages 3 and 4, including recommended National Curriculum texts and various reference books and atlases. At Key Stage 4 the basic texts are in need of up-dating and renewing. The sixth form are able to use all available resources whenever they wish, and each A level student has his or her own copy of the basic text books. At present the use of IT in the department is not a priority, but the future development of IT within and across the curriculum is planned.

99. In the main, most of the teaching rooms are in need of improvement, repair, modernisation, and decoration. The majority of geography lessons are taught in non-specialist rooms. Priority should be given to the idea of creating a geography suite on one or other of the school sites, to bring the majority of geography teaching into specialist rooms and to reduce the amount of time wasted by specialists and pupils having to commute from site to site.

Modern Foreign Languages

100. Just over half the pupils in Key Stage 3 and two thirds of those in Key Stage 4 achieve the national expectation or better. In the Sixth Form, most students achieve what is expected. In relation to capability, most pupils in Key Stage 3 achieve satisfactory levels or better, with almost one third achieving good or better levels. At Key Stage 4, half the pupils achieve appropriate levels. Underachievement here is linked to low expectations and the inadequate teaching strategies of individual teachers. In the sixth form, almost all students achieve appropriate levels. GCSE results in 1994 were above the national average in French, and showed improvement on the 1993 results. Girls achieved better results than boys, although the results attained by the latter were above the national average for boys.

101. Standards of pronunciation are generally satisfactory, but pupils are not being taught to use the foreign language for communication in the classroom and there is little evidence of extended speaking. Listening and writing skills are satisfactory on the whole, but reading skills are under-developed. Some pupils are developing understanding of and sensitivity to grammar.

102. Learning is satisfactory or better in half the lessons at Key Stage 3, and satisfactory in half of those at Key Stage 4 and in all sixth form lessons. Where learning is good, pupils make good progress and are developing accuracy and an understanding of grammar. They can co-operate and support each other's learning and work independently when given the opportunity. Some show enthusiasm for a subject which they are clearly enjoying. Where learning is unsatisfactory, pupils are in many cases indisciplined and inattentive, and progress is slow. Sometimes no variety of learning opportunities is offered.

103. Teaching is satisfactory or better in half the lessons at Key Stage 3 and in two-thirds of lessons at Key Stage 4 and in the sixth form. The good teaching is characterised by good relationships and the pace is brisk. Lessons are well-planned, usually build on previous work, and employ a range of teaching techniques. Some teachers use the foreign language for most of the lessons, but some use English, and strategies to teach pupils to use the language spontaneously are not yet in place. In the instances of unsatisfactory teaching, time is wasted, lessons sometimes begin late, the timing is poor, and the pace is slow. Presentation is sometimes monotonous and teaching strategies are inadequate. In some cases, an unacceptable level of noise is tolerated and relationships are poor.

104. The policy underpinning the modern languages curriculum should be clarified, and if standards are to be raised the work of the department should be monitored and evaluated. The assessment practice in the department should be developed to involve pupils and to inform more fully.

Art

105. At all key stages the great majority of pupils achieve well above the national expectation, demonstrating appropriate technical skills and skills of observation and analysis. They are able to research, plan and develop ideas, and they present these with imagination and inventiveness. Pupils are knowledgeable about the elements of art and most have understanding about the work, the conventions, and the historical perspectives of artists. The great majority of pupils, at all key stages, are achieving levels that are high for their capabilities. They can use, in their interpretative and expressive work, a growing facility of skills and techniques. Much of the work is based on drawing and painting and almost all pupils show confidence in these fields. At Key Stage 4, groups for art are large and have a wide range of ability. Overall results at GCSE are good in relation to national expectations and to students' abilities. A level examination results are very good.

106. At all key stages the quality of learning in art is good. In individual work pupils are constantly challenged with tasks and questions which extend their achievement and their ability to express themselves in artistic forms. The starting point for most work is careful observation. Tasks are open-ended and pupils can take initiatives and develop independence in their learning. In each lesson there is progression in learning, in understanding and knowledge, and in the development of skills.

107. The quality of teaching is good at all key stages. Lessons are well planned and organised, and aims are always clear and understood by pupils. Relationships and behaviour are very good. A strong feature of the work is the quality of positive, yet demanding support which teachers give to individual pupils in the class lesson. Pupils' efforts are overtly valued and differentiation is effective. Display in the art rooms and around the school is good.

108. The curriculum content, which meets the requirements of the National Curriculum, is rich and varied. Pupils have opportunities to work in a variety of media, including drawing, painting, ceramics, textiles and batik, and three-dimensional work and information technology are also available to them. It would be helpful, in planning, to bring these strands together in a general form, to map pupils learning experiences, and to disseminate good practice. Pupils at Key Stage 3 would benefit from greater choice of media when planning their projects. Within the curriculum there are many variants of cultural experience, including pupils own cultures. Artists visit the school regularly and there are frequent visits to museums and art galleries. A group visited the Potteries during the inspection. The department is planning to introduce GNVQ courses in the near future.

Music

109. At all key stages, most pupils achieve at least the national expectation and for some pupils achievement is higher. Pupils show confidence in performing, listen carefully to one another's performances, and are able to make informed comment. In general, performance skills are more developed than are composing and listening skills. At Key Stages 3 and 4 most pupils are achieving appropriate levels for their abilities. They have a clear idea of musical structures and can work confidently with rhythm, pitch, metre, melody and harmony. Keyboard skills are well developed. At sixth form level, standards of personal achievement are good in a climate which challenges pupils musically and intellectually. They are able to analyse music in an historical context and recognise technical features and styles.

110. Groups opting to take music at Key Stage 4 are growing. Similarly, GCSE results, which at present are below national expectations, are improving from a low base. At present, music in the sixth form is being established with small groups but there are indications of growth. There were no candidates in earlier years.

111. The quality of learning is sound, with some good features at all key stages. Pupils are motivated by their lessons and often engaged by their tasks. They enjoy working on electronic keyboards and developing keyboard skills. Much of the work is conducted in pairs and a pleasing feature is the mutual support and co-operation between pupils. In some lessons, opportunities for pupils to make effective musical decisions are limited and few questions or tasks are open-ended. At times the learning experience is limited to repetitive practice of skills at the keyboard for most of the lesson. Some discussion, particularly at sixth form level, is of good quality, with opportunities for students to express informed opinions.

112. At all key stages the quality of teaching is sound and sometimes good. Lessons are well planned and organised, with clear aims. Relationships are good, lessons are well controlled, and pupils efforts are clearly valued. There is a good balance of teaching strategies, though tasks are not always appropriate across the ability range. In these instances, questioning and tasks are not open-ended and have predicted outcomes. At Key Stage 4 and at A level pupils are being prepared for examinations with thoroughness and care.

113. The curriculum content for music is varied and generally meets the requirements of the National Curriculum. However, performing activities are more frequent than composing, listening and appraising, and care needs to be taken that an appropriate balance is maintained. There is a good balance between working with electronic and with acoustic sounds.

114. The department provides opportunities for pupils to study musical instruments and there is a programme of extra-curricular activities, including an orchestra, a singing group, a rock school and a more advanced orchestra which rehearse all year round. At other times of the year there are also a choir and carol singing group, a rock workshop, and a Bhangra workshop. There are also termly productions by the drama department for the lower school, many of which involve music or are musical productions.

Physical Education

115. Standards of achievement are generally consistent with national expectations and are appropriate in relation to pupils capabilities. Within Key Stage 3, many pupils are challenged by the tasks set in health-related fitness and gymnastics, and a number are able to develop a gymnastic sequence with confidence. However, a significant number of pupils in Year 8 are unable to swim competently, and in this respect achievement levels are below national expectations. Generally, pupils are co-ordinated in their movements and, in some cases, are able to evaluate and improve their performance.

116. Within the core curriculum at Key Stage 4, tasks are not sufficiently challenging. If standards are to be raised, course contents and expectations will need to be more carefully planned to match the abilities and needs of pupils. Standards of achievement in the GCSE results are significantly above the national norm of 39%, with 69% of pupils entered achieving grades A-C.

117. The quality of learning ranges between good and unsatisfactory. At Key Stage 3, it is generally good. Most pupils respond positively to challenging tasks, which are planned and effectively delivered, with notable examples in gymnastics, swimming, health-related fitness and games skills. Lessons with shortcomings are noisy, not well-planned, and provide pupils with few learning opportunities. Pupils study skills on the GCSE course are not well-developed.

118. The quality of teaching ranges between good and unsatisfactory, with examples of good teaching practice in both key stages. Good lessons are appropriately paced, and include clearly-understood objectives with constructive feedback to pupils. Generally, teachers share a good relationship with pupils and manage their groups effectively, and productive use is made of demonstrations by pupils and teacher. Within both key stages there are few examples of differentiated work, but individual support is effective.

119. Pupils engage in a balanced range of activities, including swimming, which conform to the requirements of the National Curriculum, though some learning opportunities are lost in the teaching of activities within single gender groups. The allocation of 4% of

curriculum time at Key Stage 4 does not provide sufficient opportunities to develop new skills and maintain appropriate standards of health-related fitness. The management of physical education should be reviewed and restructured to improve its efficiency and effectiveness. Schemes of work are clearly presented but incomplete. These and assessment procedures need to be developed further in support of the curriculum throughout the school. Policies must be introduced to ensure the safe and effective delivery of physical education. The indoor facilities are shabby, dirty and inadequate, though the extensive grass area provides the school with a good sports facility. The extra-curricular programme provides pupils with good opportunities to develop their skills further.

Religious Education

120. Standards of achievement are sound at Key Stage 3 in relation to national norms and pupils' capabilities. Many are achieving higher levels, showing insights into religious concepts and the ability to express their thoughts in symbolic language. At Key Stage 4 and post-16 there is insufficient provision for the subject according to the agreed syllabus and the Dearing review. There is a small GCSE option group which is achieving in line with national norms and will be examined in 1995.

121. In 1994, achievement at grades A-C in GCSE was below national norms, but the overall pass rate A-G was in line with the national figure. There is a significant gender imbalance in favour of girls in these results.

122. The quality of learning in most lessons at both key stages is sound, with no major shortcomings. Pupils work with motivation and interest, responding well to the use of artefacts and simulations to bring their learning to life. The department's policy of supported self-study enables pupils to acquire the ability to challenge, question, and take responsibility for their own learning. Group work shows excellent interaction with teachers and good co-operation with peers.

123. The quality of learning is enhanced when activity-based teaching methods and specialist staff are used to promote effective understanding. The learning experience is less than satisfactory where the style and structure of the teaching prohibit any individual interpretation.

124. The quality of teaching at Key Stage 3 is variable, showing many good features but also some shortcomings. At Key Stage 4 the quality of teaching, which is largely undertaken by the subject specialists, is good. Where members of the department are not subject specialists, excellent resource material is provided to support them. Lessons are well structured, with a good balance between imparting knowledge and allowing pupils to become active enquirers. In some cases the teaching is inspirational, with a good pace and a dynamic whole-class approach which produces a sense of continuity and progression. In a minority of

lessons, there is a lack of differentiation in the content. Homework is set and marked conscientiously, but more constructive criticism is needed to inform pupils of how to improve their standards. There is no formalised arrangement for quality assurance within the department, and assessment procedures do not always effectively inform attainment targets.

125. The department is committed to making the subject a Living experience and to this end it organises various trips to religious places of interest. However, there are insufficient textbooks and audio-visual resources to service the excellent programme of study that has been devised across the key stages. Pupils would also benefit from the use of information technology generally.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO FINDINGS

Quality of Teaching

126. The quality of teaching is sound in three quarters of lessons. It is best in the sixth form, where most lessons are sound and over half the lessons are considered good. Teaching is often good in year 7, and in most other years two thirds of lessons were judged to be sound or better and a third of lessons good or better.

127. Very good lessons are to be found in some subjects, notably mathematics and English. They are characterised by quiet and efficient teaching which is well organised and sets a challenging pace for each individual. In these examples marking is accurate and informative and is used to promote pupils' progression in learning. In the good and very good lessons relationships between pupils and teachers are harmonious and productive, the planning is effective, and the sequence of activities is designed to maintain pupils' interest. Explanations are clear, and there is encouragement and praise. In some of these lessons there are creditable examples of teachers adjusting the pace for different activities and deploying differing strategies according to the learning objective.

128. Overall, the relationships between teachers and pupils are productive, and teachers have good subject knowledge.

129. However, in some cases this needs to be matched with a wider knowledge or appreciation of different teaching strategies. In those lessons which were poor or had significant shortcomings, relationships were more often better with individual pupils than with the class as a whole. In general, the effectiveness of lesson planning and the match of task to pupils' needs are variable in quality. The match is best in the sixth form and weakest in Key Stage 3, where the more able pupils are sometimes set tasks which are insufficiently demanding. This is particularly evident in the lessons with some or many shortcomings. In

these lessons teachers sometimes adopt a supervisory or technician role rather than intervene to promote gains in learning. The pace is slow and sometimes monotonous, and the tasks chosen by the teacher do not allow pupils to make effective progress. Opportunities for discussion and analysis are missed and in some cases teachers accuracy requires attention. Some subject departments need to ensure that the progression routes indicated in the National Curriculum are used as a basis for assessment and the planning of work which will move pupils forward.

Assessment, Recording and Reporting

130. With some exceptions, pupils work is consistently marked and the marking is accurate within the limitations of individual departments' mark schemes, although these use a variety of systems of notation and rarely make specific reference to achievement in terms of the National Curriculum. Comments on individual pupils work are generally encouraging, but only in a minority of subjects do they contribute to higher standards by making it clear to pupils what they need to do to improve their work. While there are some examples of effective assessment at Key Stage 3, these are more evident at Key Stage 4, although there is still no consistent pattern. There are instances of pupils contributing to their own assessment, for example through self-assessment proformas in mathematics and personal reviews by Year 7 pupils in English, but this is not general practice.

131. There is a system of homework diaries, but it is not used consistently. Annual reports to parents are informative in terms of pupils attitudes and work-rate but do not provide detailed information on their achievements at Key Stages 3 and 4; reports at post-16 are more detailed in this respect. Although record-keeping within departments is generally conscientious, statutory requirements for recording National Curriculum assessments are not being met.

132. Records in respect of pupils who have statements of special educational need are kept meticulously, and annual reviews are carried out to a very high standard, involving a considerable investment of time and thought on the part of all teachers. Parents are fully involved in the process and careful account is taken of their views and of those of the pupils.

133. Analysis of assessment data to improve pupils performance is not consistently carried out within the school, although a policy for assessment is being developed, and positive results from this were beginning to appear at the time of the inspection.

134. The school's policy for assessment should be developed, and implemented consistently. The National Curriculum, including its provisions for pupils working towards earlier levels, should be incorporated in the school's provision for assessment. The results of this

assessment should be used to inform curriculum planning, to set targets, and to raise standards. There is a need to involve pupils in the assessment of their work, and in the setting of targets for improving it. In annual reports, the quality of information on pupils achievement needs to be improved.

The Curriculum

Quality and Range of the Curriculum

135. The curriculum at Key Stage 3 ensures that most subjects have an appropriate amount of time. However, the time allocation is low in modern foreign languages, physical education, science and technology, and in religious education in years 8 and 9. The low time allocations were observed to be detrimental to pupils' achievement in these subjects.

136. The curriculum at Key Stage 4 has an appropriate range of subjects, but there is insufficient provision for religious education. Pupils are given appropriate advice on options but there is no overall monitoring of option choices to identify trends linked to gender or ethnicity.

137. In general, subjects meet National Curriculum requirements, although in some cases greater attention to detail, for example in terms of progression, would assist pupils achievement. There is no overall curriculum policy that is specific to the school and consequently no point of reference, either for day-to-day decisions affecting provision and timetabling, or for medium-term and long-term ones affecting pupils' entitlement and the balance of the curriculum for individuals. For example, in Key Stage 4, it is not clear whether it is intentional to allow just over 10% of year 10 pupils to discontinue a humanities subject and over half to discontinue a modern foreign language. The school does not collect information on setted groups centrally and is not in a position to analyse the composition of these groups for any disparities in terms of gender or ethnicity. There is information on the composition of option groups, yet one large teaching group has only one girl.

138. Some pupils follow a youth award scheme as part of their programme. This provides a useful opportunity for some pupils to develop their social skills, extend links with the community, and receive additional help in basic skills. However, in some cases, where placing is more to do with behaviour than ability, the level of challenge is too low.

139. In the sixth form a broad range of subjects is provided, and in addition to A level, AS levels and GCSE courses there is a GNVQ programme which students can follow. In one or two subjects there are small numbers and the value of the provision is doubtful. In English and mathematics there are small groups running alongside larger groups. The school has not established a means of evaluating whether these small teaching groups offer any identifiable benefit to

pupils nor whether and how the consequent loss of funding for staffing or equipment affects the rest of the school. Students in the sixth form follow a variety of programmes which may involve them in significant amounts of private study time. The school could monitor the use of this time more closely and consider broadening these pupils' general programme so that it provides a more balanced and full curriculum.

140. Homework is set in some subjects but the frequency is variable. The school has given this matter some attention but homework diaries are not regularly completed and checked. The potential of the homework diaries as a means of communication between parents, pupils and teachers is not effectively realised. There has been a recent review of homework practice across departments with a view to improving consistency. A future policy will also need to ensure that the quality of homework is consistently high. At present homework when it is set is often routine completion of classwork tasks.

141. The school operates a timetabled week of 24 hours and 25 minutes, which is below the recommended time for Key Stage 4. The length of lessons is normally 60 minutes but this time is not always well used and lessons do not always start on time.

142. The responsibility for the monitoring and evaluation of the curriculum is not securely identified within the school. Neither do job descriptions provide a clear picture of the line management of heads of department. At present, knowledge about the quality of the delivery of the curriculum is not based on systematic first-hand observation. Expectations of heads of department and senior management need to be explicit in this regard. Heads of department provide a review of their work for the governors on an annual basis. This is a useful exercise but the review is more often than not based on the completion of tasks rather than on the effect upon standards or the quality of learning. The governors will need to establish a school curriculum policy and ensure that they receive regular reviews of the progress the different departments are making in terms of standards and quality.

143. There is a range of extra curricular activities which enrich and supplement the curriculum, and a number of major events such as drama productions which are widely praised by parents. There are numerous regular sporting activities which are of high quality, but in general there could be more regular activities to complement the curriculum.

Equality of Opportunity

144. Equality of opportunity is integral to the aims of the school and is expressed in terms of opportunities for all, regardless of gender, race, religion or disability. The school aims to provide equal access to the curriculum for all pupils, but there are instances where this is not

achieved, such as the carousel arrangements for design and technology in Key Stage 3.

145. The school's efforts have been principally targeted on multicultural and anti-racist issues. A senior teacher chairs a multicultural task group, but there is no one with designated responsibility for equality of opportunity. There is, however, a detailed multicultural policy, produced by the task group, and drafts of policies on equality of opportunity and anti-racism are awaiting ratification.

146. The multicultural policy sets out ten targets for school aims and ethos, the majority of which are in place and operating successfully. A minority remain to be fully implemented. Multicultural issues are dealt with across the curriculum in sociology, art & design, PSE, RE, music, history and drama. Some INSET days have included multicultural education. Although an audit of library stock has been carried out, examples of resources which present stereotyped cultural images are still present in some subject areas. Implementation and monitoring of the whole policy is developing, and the task group is aware of the need for constant efforts to raise awareness amongst staff. This work should continue to ensure that all areas of school life respond. Pupils from all ethnic backgrounds appear well-integrated socially. 1994 GCSE results indicated high levels of achievement by pupils from ethnic minorities. The school monitors and analyses GCSE examination results and has identified this high achievement by ethnic minority pupils as well as the issue of gender bias. A value-added study has also been carried out on 1994 results and the results analysed; underachievement among white boys has been identified but no strategies have yet been devised to address the issue, though some departments have considered the possible reasons for the gender bias in results obtained in their subjects. No whole-school or individual strategies have yet been devised, although the school development plan includes a target to effect these.

147. The school is aware of examples of gender stereotyping in Key Stage 4 option choices, which are monitored, but there is no structure for addressing the issue. There is a marked gender imbalance in some sets, but the school does not monitor gender composition of groups and some staff are unaware of the imbalance. Some staff show insensitivity to gender issues. Learning opportunities for some pupils are reduced by the gender imbalance in some sets in geography in Key Stage 4 and by separate gender groups in PE. The school should monitor the gender balance in groups and ensure that grouping arrangements determined by option choices do not restrict pupils learning.

148. Section 11 funding provides for one full-time teacher and three part-time (0.6, 0.5, 0.4) teachers, and there is also a home-school liaison worker who works for one day per week. There is clear and detailed documentation. Assessment is carried out when pupils arrive in the

school, and needs are met as far as possible within the budget. Priority is given to those with low levels of English, although the group of teachers acknowledge the continuing needs of pupils who are at higher levels. The activities of the group are in three main areas: in-class support both with groups and individuals and on the partnership model; withdrawal for specific purposes and/or specific time spans; and a small amount of time spent on developing subject-specific materials.

149. Good examples of the partnership activity were observed in English, mathematics, RE, history and geography, where the Section 11 teacher works alongside the subject specialist in planning, preparation, teaching and evaluation.

150. Because the Section 11 project will end in 1997, the group is trying to plan for a smooth transition to where the school will accept the responsibility for the activity. The partnership initiatives are seen as crucial to this aim in that staff are being made aware of the importance of the activity and of ways in which support can be provided within subjects. To this end, SEN targets in the school development plan include INSET on Section 11 funding/staffing for departmental representatives. The Section 11 programme has been effective in developing the spoken and written skills of pupils.

Special Educational Needs

151. The quality of learning and standards achieved by pupils with special educational needs are generally sound, and the school's programme of in-class support ensures access to a broad and balanced curriculum. Equally, a carefully organised and limited programme of individual teaching in withdrawal groups ensures mastery of the initial stages of reading, writing and numeracy for all but a very small number of pupils who have serious behavioural problems. The work of learning advice teachers helps to minimise the effect of poor behaviour on educational achievement, both of pupils with special educational needs and of their peers. In some cases, the school is making strenuous and often successful efforts to integrate pupils with behavioural problems into mainstream educational needs with minimal disruption. This involves very high levels of staffing, which are also apparent in the case of some groups of pupils with less severe behavioural difficulties.

152. All aspects of the school's provision would be improved by the systematic use of targets designed to give pupils a clear idea of what they need to do in order to make progress, to ensure that they assume greater responsibility for their own behaviour, and to raise expectations. In Years 10 and 11, pupils who have special educational needs are encouraged to take part in a youth award scheme. This adds breadth to the curriculum through its emphasis on life in the community and provides some opportunity for work in basic skills, but it is insufficiently demanding for the more able pupils who follow it.

153. The school takes full account of the Code of Practice and has made considerable progress towards the statutory requirement of publishing a formal policy before the end of the school year. A governor has responsibility for the development of policy, and the head of learning advice acts as Special Needs Co-ordinator, though no member of the senior management team has specific responsibility for special educational needs. In addition to the 28 pupils who have statements, a further 98 have been identified at earlier stages and a detailed register has been established. 40 Individual Education Plans have been written and supplied to colleagues as appropriate, with a handbook giving full details of the support programme and basic information on the nature of reading difficulties. Provision for pupils who have statements is good, with some very good features, including the involvement of parents, work with pupils who have serious behavioural problems, and the conduct of annual reviews. External agencies are fully involved, and teaching assistants and members of the sixth form, working under the supervision of teachers, also make valuable contributions to the work.

154. There should be continued development of the policy based on the Code of Practice, including the use of targets in Individual Education Plans. A clear budget for Special Educational Needs should be established. Staffing arrangements should be reviewed to maximise the effects of additional provision. The use of differentiated teaching should be extended within the curriculum, including, where appropriate, the earlier levels of the National Curriculum, suitably modified for pupils of secondary school age. The use of information technology should be developed.

Management and Administration

155. The aims of the school have been revised after wide consultation. They indicate a clear sense of purpose in relation to promoting learning and standards of achievement, and to promoting the spiritual, moral, social and cultural development of the pupils.

156. The governors are supportive of the school and are fulfilling their legal responsibilities. However, senior staff and governors do not have a shared vision of where the school should be heading.

157. The headteacher and senior management team are approachable and are frequently to be seen around the school. They have an open style of management conducive to maintaining good relationships with staff. Much of the work of middle managers is of high quality, particularly in English, mathematics, science, history, information technology and geography. In general, however, the leadership displayed by the senior management team, governing body, and middle managers needs to be strengthened and developed in relation to quality of learning and standards of achievement. The school should implement effective

procedures for reviewing teaching and learning and for improving the implementation of policies and procedures.

158. Office staff are efficient and effective and carry out their responsibilities well. However, some aspects of the day-to-day routines of the school involving teaching staff and management are not always carried out effectively and efficiently, and this affects aspects of teaching, learning and pastoral care.

159. Although some planning is carried out well, effective strategic planning is not evident in the school development plan. The plan does not provide suitably clear targets which are properly reflective of the consultations that took place with staff and does not indicate monitoring procedures or criteria for success. Nor is it clear how this plan relates to its predecessors. Some important aspects of planning within the school development plan have yet to be implemented e.g. the school's multicultural policy.

160. The rationale underpinning staff development is not easy to reconcile with the current practice, which is often related too closely to immediate needs rather than to a longer term strategy. A whole-school policy designed to support the process of curriculum development and review remains to be established.

161. The mechanism for good communications within the school is in place but is not yet fully effective either between or within the two sites. Communications between administrative staff and the senior management are, however, greatly facilitated by the inclusion of the chief administrative officer as a member of the senior management team.

162. Apart from the headteacher, key members of the senior management team are new in post. With the support of governors, senior management has endeavoured, via the formation of working groups, to examine ways to improve the shortcomings identified. It must now plan for coherence in implementing the aims of the school and in achieving agreed long term goals.

Resources and Their Management

Teaching and Non-Teaching Staff

163. There is an adequate number of teaching staff to meet the needs of the current curriculum. The teachers are well-qualified and hard working and a good number have given long service to the school. The allocation of teaching time takes account of staff responsibilities; teaching loads are generally high and some heads of department may have too little non-teaching time to allow for effective monitoring of standards in their departments. On the other hand, the school gives appropriate priority to time for pastoral care, learning advice, and senior

management and administration. The wide range of courses which the school provides in attempting to meet as many pupils needs as possible is another factor which contributes to high contact ratios. Senior management should review priorities for course provision and the allocation of non-teaching time against the need to develop strategies for monitoring and review of standards at all levels in the school.

164. In general, all courses are staffed by appropriately qualified teachers but the arrangements in year 7 are such that non-specialists teach mathematics. It may be that standards here are lower in consequence, and these arrangements should be revised.

165. The arrangements for cover for absent staff are good to the extent that the extra load is fairly distributed according to an open and generally accepted system. The arrangements for setting work when teachers are absent is less effective and there is no written guidance on routines and expectations specifically designed for supply teachers.

166. Points on the salary scale are awarded for special responsibilities, and the distribution of points is appropriate. In recent years a number of temporary awards have been made in relation to specific tasks and this has provided an opportunity for some staff to make an extra contribution (e.g. primary liaison, prospectus) to the work of the school.

167. There are more non-teaching staff than might normally be expected but numbers are based on the need to maintain two separate sites, two school offices, and two libraries. The need for this duplication should be kept under careful review. Technician support is adequate, and good service is rendered in the support of teaching. Clerical and administrative staff make a good contribution to the smooth running of the school. The work in this area is co-ordinated by a senior administrative officer who is a member of the senior management team.

168. Job descriptions, in the form of lists of tasks and responsibilities, are published in the staff handbook but there is a need to define expectations and targets, especially for senior staff, so that post holders know more precisely what is required of them.

169. There is a comprehensive staff development plan with adequate resources for in-service training. Records of courses and training undertaken are carefully maintained so that the school can monitor its effectiveness in this regard.

170. The school's appraisal programme follows the LEA guidelines and is based on appraisal by a professional friend. The first cycle of appraisals is nearly complete, except for the review of targets which should have taken place for nearly a third of the staff. To date there has been no collation of the outcomes of appraisal or of the training needs

identified in the process. In consequence, the school is not in a position to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme, and the governors have no information on which to base their judgements of its effectiveness. It is difficult to see how the school can properly evaluate professional competence and efficiency unless line managers are directly involved in the appraisal process. The school should revise the allocation of appraisers with this in mind and establish clear lines of management between senior management and subject departments.

171. A good scheme to support newly qualified and trainee teachers is in place, with a professional tutor and heads of department co-operating in its operation.

Resources for Learning

172. The sufficiency, accessibility, quality and use of resources within the departments are generally satisfactory to support the demands of the National Curriculum, GCSE and post-16 courses of study. The school has a library on both sites, each recently improved with attractive furnishings and items on display. Pupils are being encouraged to use the resources to work independently for study purposes and enjoyment. There are some limited study areas for pupils but, in the lower school, no easy chairs to encourage reading for pleasure.

173. Both libraries are reasonably well-stocked, with a total of 10,377 books, i.e. about 7.6 books per pupil, together with magazines, newspapers and video tapes in the upper school library, and audio tapes and CD ROM facilities in both. The libraries are open during the school day, but the upper school library is closed for part of the one hour lunch break. Thus, resources are inaccessible to pupils at a key time and unable to contribute to their achievement. The teacher-librarian, serving also as the school's press officer, is assisted by three part-time library ancillary staff. There is no formal monitoring of departments use of the libraries, but they are often booked by some departments for classes for about a quarter of the week. A number of departments do not make any significant use of the libraries, although some have library books on a project loan basis. Though departments can request books and other publications for the libraries, this practice is infrequent and there are no regular procedures. A number of books suitable for high and low ability pupils have been purchased. Approximately 1000 books are on lease from the library service to encourage boys in particular and others identified as weak readers. There is a regular evaluation of the library stock to consider issues such as stereotyping, but no central register of books held by departments to prevent duplication when ordering.

174. The availability of text books within departments is variable; many departments make significant use of school-produced work sheets and documentation. There is a resource centre staffed by an ancillary on each site, with photocopying and other document production facilities. On

each site, there are programme recording facilities for educational broadcasts, to supplement departmental arrangements. A number of departments make extensive use of video recordings, using either their own equipment or items from a central audio-visual aids store.

175. The use made of IT within subject departments is variable, but generally insufficient.

Accommodation

176. The school is on a split site, which results in the late start of some lessons as pupils and staff move between buildings. The Gill site is in slightly better condition than the Wyvern, but both sites are in need of modernisation, repair and redecoration, and litter is in evidence in both. The most recent developments have been science and music blocks, but there is no planned building improvement programme and the school still relies on a village of temporary classrooms.

177. There are displays of variable quality, some notably attractive, in all corridors and good displays in specialist classrooms. Subject rooms are not grouped together, with the result that monitoring of teaching practice is not always possible and resources are not always readily available.

178. The accommodation is not managed well in terms of the deployment of rooms, which should be reallocated to maximise the use of specialist rooms. Displays in and around the school should be improved and every effort made to encourage a pride in the school environment shared by the whole school community..

Pupils Welfare and Guidance

179. The school's aims refer to the importance of the development of academic, creative and sporting abilities. The code of conduct places emphasis on respect, punctuality, behaviour and the school's reputation.

180. Registration periods provide pupils with a regular point of contact with their tutor, but during the inspection these twenty-minute sessions were not used effectively in the monitoring and support of pupils. In a significant number of cases the sessions were judged to be a poor use of time.

181. The school has introduced a tutor-based programme which provides year 7 pupils with continuity in the teaching of several subjects during their first year in the school, and this support is valued by pupils. However, whilst this initiative provides pupils with regular support in year 7, one effect is that pupils may have three heads of year and five tutors during their time in the school. This structure for pastoral support

lacks continuity in the monitoring and addressing of pupils needs and should be reviewed.

182. Some good levels of support are achieved through friendly relationships between teachers and pupils in lessons and during the daily routine of the school. However, in too many lessons these individual relationships are not used to promote a conducive learning environment within the whole group.

183. Year 10 and 11 pupils, along with the sixth form, are provided with opportunities to express their views through their year council meetings. Although post-16 students value the school's ethos, a number of pupils in other years do not feel part of the school's community. Opportunities should be extended to pupils in all year groups to express their views and contribute in a positive way.

184. The personal and social education (PSE) programme has recently been reviewed, and a new set of modules has been developed and introduced within Key Stage 3. During the inspection, a number of PSE classes were observed in both key stages and at post-16. Generally, the quality of learning and teaching in these sessions was judged to be unsatisfactory. Too few opportunities are taken to expand points and increase pupils awareness of the issues; expectations are not sufficiently high and the range of teaching styles is inappropriate. Several pupils, particularly in year 10, do not value these lessons.

185. The school's sex education policy has now been endorsed by the school governors. Child protection procedures, which are known to staff, are in place and comply with legal requirements.

186. Pupils in year 9, and their parents, are provided with appropriate support for option choices in the form of meetings, counselling, and booklets. The school places a high priority on the monitoring of pupils during the work experience programme, and a debriefing session is organised after the placement period. However, the value of the experience would be increased if pupils were provided with a means for self-evaluation during this period.

187. The careers syllabus should form an integral part of the PSE programme at Key Stage 4 which the school has identified for development. Appropriate support for teachers in the delivery of a modular programme, including health education, should be given a high priority. Effective links have been established with the careers service, and two officers make regular visits to the school; advice to post-16 students is provided through two senior tutors. The careers library is small and not easily accessible, does not provide pupils with a welcoming environment, and is short of resources. This facility is in need of development.

Links with Parents, Agencies and Other Institutions

188. The school is currently examining ways to improve communication with parents and to involve them more in the life of the school. Few help currently, but there is a Parents' Association, and the sum of about £1500 a year which it raises is spent on equipment. There are two meetings a year for Year 7 parents, annual meetings for other years, and annual reports. There is effective one day a week home-school liaison for pupils being taught under Section 11.

189. Good links exist with the contributory primary schools through the head of year 7 and the head of learning support. Teachers in mathematics, English and science visit feeder primary schools, where they teach lessons. Some sixth formers help with reading in a local primary school and primary teachers visit the secondary school. Documentation is received from feeder schools but this is inconsistent and not regularly used by the school.

190. There are good links with institutions of higher education, and with colleges of further education through the Training and Enterprise Council. As noted above, there are regular visits from the Leicestershire Careers Service. Community links are maintained with the police and religious leaders, and through the Youth Award Scheme. There are links with industry through the Young Enterprise scheme, work experience, and local industry and commerce. The school has recently received a £2,500 grant from Toyota for a technology project.

191. The school should expedite plans to increase the involvement of parents, seek ways to make the information available from primary schools more effective, and further develop links with industry, the community and post-16 institutions.

Appendix Two

Subjects' Responses

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Dear Jean

You asked my advice about applying for the Headship of Baker School. I have read the latest Ofsted report and as usual it is strong on the things it can quantify and useless on what does or does not make the school tick. All one can do is read between the lines and suggest some questions to which you should seek answers.

It is clear that as with many 11 – 18 schools KS3 gets a poor deal. Does this indicate a blinkered staff who regard the 11 - 14 age as a tiresome stage which has to be got through with the minimum of trouble? If so are they amenable to change or deeply entrenched? (They could make your life impossible.)

There is evidence of some excellent teaching. Are these teachers respected by their colleagues or are they out on a limb?

It is obviously a pretty good school but I cannot tell whether it is on the way up – presenting an enjoyable challenge – or declining into the bunkers – okay if everyone wants to climb out but deathly if they are too comfortable.

So! Apply but go and have a good look before taking the job. A0

Revitalise KS3 teaching.

(Priority 1) A1

<p>Ensure that all departments devote a full share of quality staff, especially to Year 8. <i>A1(i)</i></p>	<p>Analysis of staff deployment department by department. <i>A1(i)s</i></p>
<p>Ensure that all departments devote a full share of resources, especially to Year 8. <i>A1(ii)</i></p>	<p>Systematic surveys (e.g. as provided by Keele University) to measure enthusiasm. <i>A1(ii)s</i></p>
<p>Create a culture in which excitement in learning rates above short term progress. <i>A1(iii)</i></p>	<p>Classroom observation revealing motivated, interested pupils. <i>A1(iii)s</i></p>
<p>Involve children in deciding what and how they should learn. <i>A1(iv)</i></p>	<p>Expressed satisfaction from pupils. <i>A1(iv)s</i></p>
<p>Going into classes and telling teachers they are wonderful (especially when they are!). Enjoying the 'fun teaching' of really good teachers. <i>A1p</i></p>	

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Boys underachievement. <i>(Priority =2) A2</i></p>	<p>Visit schools where boys and girls perform equally well. A2(i)</p> <p>Introduce staff to the need to be aware of different learning styles and boys' tendency to be less tolerant of inappropriate styles. A2(ii)</p> <p>Get departments to monitor the time each teacher spends talking and observe who gets bored first and what they do about it (typically girls have a quiet chat while boys make paper aeroplanes). A2(iii)</p> <p>Investigate gender differences at KS2 and 3 – talk with Junior Schools. A2(iv)</p>	<p>Even results at GCSE. (Solving "Area 1" may well go a long way towards solving this.) A2s</p>
<p>Be heard (frequently) saying that this is a soluble problem and encouraging professional discussion of the issues. A2p</p> <p>Articulate the spiritual qualities and development of the school. (Priority =2) A3</p>	<p>Ensure that everybody knows that 'spiritual' does <u>not</u> mean 'religious'. A3(i)</p> <p>Celebrate the ways in which school and pupils react positively to demands which go beyond material advantage. A3(ii)</p> <p>Continue to ignore the collective worship legislation but send for Hampshire SACRE's guidance on how to bypass the law. A3(iii) (See also multicultural and citizenship). A3(iv)</p>	<p>Accept that there are no quantifiable success indicators worth your time. You have to judge this by your own intuition. A3s</p>
<p>Make clear by your words and actions that this area is of key importance. A3p</p> <p>Get IT off the ground. (Priority 3) A4</p>	<p>Ask each department for a statement of policy, resource and training requirements. A4(i)</p> <p>If necessary send in an LEA adviser to stir up recalcitrant departments. A4(ii)</p>	<p>See the statements and evaluate progress. A4(i)s</p> <p>Evaluate progress. A4(ii)s</p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

	Introduce some sort of IT competition? <i>A4(iii)</i>	Wide take-up of competition. <i>A4(iii)s</i>
<p>Citizenship education – hijack the government initiative to make it an engine for general curricular growth and the development of consultative styles of teaching. <i>(Priority 4) A5</i></p>	<p>An INSET day with a high calibre outside speaker (or a very well informed and respected leader from within the school) who will enthuse staff with the desire to respond to the government's challenge to find ways of developing skills and attitudes. <i>A5(i)</i></p> <p>Find ways of taking risks to promote independent thought. <i>A5(ii)</i></p> <p>Make production of the School Development Plan a grass roots generated co-operative operation. <i>A5(iii)</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The number of suggestions for improvements coming from the students. • An internal feeling among SMT that you are riding a tiger instead of coasting along in a Ford Popular. • Having a School Development Plan that says things you could never have thought of. <i>A5s</i>
<p>Tell teachers (and demonstrate it by your actions) that producing real thinking citizens is a) exciting and b) subversive of the normal patterns of teaching. <i>A5p</i></p> <p>Multicultural awareness – to make this an active contributor to the spiritual strength of the school. <i>(Priority 5) A6</i></p>	<p>Convene a group of concerned teachers [and local cultural/religious leaders?] to work on the spiritual commonality (and contrasts) between differing cultural traditions. <i>A6(i)</i></p> <p>Make this spiritual commonality known to everyone including Ofsted – it may be that it is there and Ofsted failed to see it. In that case there is a PR job. <i>A6(ii)</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ofsted being pleased. <i>A6s</i> • The occurrence of events in the school life which demonstrate the common spiritual awareness. <i>A6s</i>
<p>Prompt starts. <i>(Priority 6) A7</i></p>	<p>Review present demands. No one can get from the Mathematics department to Modern Languages in no time at all. If there cannot be a two phase break then at break give them 5 minutes. <i>A7(i)</i></p> <p>High profile SMT presence. <i>A7(ii)</i></p> <p>'Big campaign'! to get work into perspective. <i>A7(iii)</i></p>	<p>SMT observations. <i>A7s</i></p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>This school will allow you to introduce significant and rapid change that will make the school "good" in a fairly short time. Fundamentally the school is sound but has lost perspective in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pupil management and expectations • teaching/learning standards • policy formulation • rigorous application of long-term planning <p>I would have no hesitation in recommending this school to you but be aware of the following factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • senior staff new to their jobs • Governors not agreeing with current strategic 'vision' for school • a huge amount of money somewhere – for what purpose? • underclass of white, working boys who tend to absence, indiscipline and challenging behaviour. They are affecting the culture of the school. • 25%+ unsatisfactory teaching • need to restructure the school day e.g. length of teaching time, movement between lessons, more balanced time between subjects. • low 16+ staying on rates. B0 	<p>Raising attendance to 94% i.e. national average B1</p> <p>Identify 'core' individuals and have EWO take tough line. B1(i)</p> <p>Have staff identify genuine long-term absences and have work sent home. B1(ii)</p> <p>Alter curriculum for Y11 stay aways. B1(iii)</p> <p>Rewards for improvers B1(iv)</p> <p>Streamline decision making to key people. B2(i)</p> <p>Review all practices and set changes within SDP and SD [Staff Development]. B2(ii)</p> <p>Create clear time-table and 'train' governors. B2(iii)</p> <p>Consult staff, parents, pupils. B2(iv)</p> <p>Pupil behaviour: self discipline B3</p>	<p>Obvious. B1s</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use pupil/school research to understand their responses. • Increased GCSE results • Improved behaviour • Improved "culture" B2s <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce poor behaviour • Increase attendance
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Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

	<p>Indoctrinate pupils and fresh staff into what to do. B3(ii)</p> <p>Create processes and resources for dealing with pupils and ensure they are kept to. B3(iii)</p> <p>Give as much responsibility to pupils as possible and reward. Isolate disruption and have alternative strategies. B3(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open culture and isolation of 'under culture' • Anti-bullying and 'own' school from 95%+ of pupils • Reduced exclusions B3s
<p>High profile here – this must be tackled head on before you begin job. Staff morale and your other aims depend on your personal interventions/leadership. B3p</p>		
<p>Policy formulation and maintaining</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aims • Assessment • Curriculum • Behaviour Management • Etc. B4 	<p>Pupils/staff/[parents]/Governors to decide in partnership what they want their school to be and what they want to achieve in next 3 years. B4(i)</p> <p>Blend into SDP and then get HoDs and HoYs to create SIMPLE costed plans with time limits against these. B4(ii)</p> <p>Monitoring of these. B4(iii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarity and agreed aims. • Meeting set targets. B4s
<p>Vital to push through with speed as part of creating a more professional culture. 'Preach' these aims whenever and visible display of the values. B4p</p>		
<p>Long-term staff development – especially in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching/learning • Pupil management • Management/leadership • accountability B5 <p>Delivery of some training e.g. evidence gathering and judgements about teaching. B5p</p>	<p>Against new school aims and accountability etc. plan new long-term SDP. B5(i)</p> <p>Concentrate on Quality Assurance. B5(ii)</p> <p>Use this to set individual targets. B5(iii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • % better lessons • less disruption • people applying for promotion B5s
<p>Improve quality of teaching and learning B6</p>	<p>Make HoDs accountable for departments and give them necessary training and information. B6(i)</p> <p>Each teacher to have clear, time related targets. B6(ii)</p> <p>Give clear warnings as to unsatisfactory performance and take competence procedures. B6(iii)</p>	<p>Raised % satisfactory+ lessons. B6s</p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

	Encourage those trying and publicly praise successful. Encourage <u>RISK TAKING</u> . B6(iv)	
Be part of team a) training HoDs b) monitoring c) praise people as much as possible d) take action against those not following expectations. B6p		
Raising achievement across board but especially with white, working-class and disenfranchised boys. B7	Alternative curriculum provision especially KS4 → VI Form. B7(i)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce exclusions • Increase attendance • Increase staying on rate • % satisfactory+ lessons improved. <p>B7s</p>
	Identify individuals with mentors for regular target sessions involving parents. B7(ii)	
	Reward and motivate by outward bound, alternative experiences. Involve HoYs to be specific about who/what/when/how. B7(iii)	
	Limit number of teachers these pupils have. (See also Pupil/Management). B7(iv)	
Monitor HoYs and appoint Alternative Curriculum Co-ordinator. Form Action Group to make rapid decisions about these people or restructure management to provide necessary accountability. B7p		

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>It is underachieving. It needs strong leadership and lots of change. Shake out those who hold back progress and are cynical about children. Use the budget to boost staffing and change as many staff as possible. Tackle poor reading and numeracy at KS 3. Get a clear vision for the school. The glaring inadequacy is a real lack of spiritual enrichment at all levels. Boys' lack of achievement is a major factor – you need good male role models everywhere. The governors need to govern effectively. Get young staff in as quickly as possible especially in middle management. The school is coasting – you need to tackle the slackers at all levels. C0</p>		
<p>Leadership and Vision and Management C1</p>	<p>Be decisive and clear. C1(i)</p>	<p>Staff confident. C1(i)s</p>
	<p>Keep your powder dry. C1(ii)</p>	<p>Staff fear you a little! C1(ii)s</p>
	<p>Take the children with you first. C1(iii)</p>	<p>Children see where you are going well before staff do. C1(iii)s</p>
	<p>Ensure governors are supportive. C1(iv)</p>	<p>Management can get on and manage. C1(iv)s</p>
<p>Have a clear educational philosophy. Use every opportunity to develop and enhance the school. Go for chaos and change. Be clear it is the children (always) that come first – not the staff! C1p</p>		
<p>Staff Development. C2</p>	<p>Create SD [Staff Development] plan based on needs of curriculum. C2(i)</p>	<p>People understand why they go on courses. C2(i)s</p>
	<p>Make SD [Staff Development] focus of SDP. C2(ii)</p>	<p>People see themselves as part of the plan. C2(ii)s</p>
	<p>Be an enabler at all times. C2(iii)</p>	<p>Confidence in all staff about the school vision. C2(iii)s</p>
	<p>Develop non-teaching staff too. C2(iv).</p>	<p>Collegiate moves forward. C2(iv)s</p>
<p>Go on appropriate courses. Lead INSET and school review. C2p</p>		
<p>Teaching/Learning. C3</p>	<p>See everybody teach. C3(i)</p>	<p>Staff value your involvement. C3(i)s</p>
	<p>Establish regular line management observation and appraisal. C3(ii)</p>	<p>People accept the relationship. C3(ii)s</p>
	<p>Establish cycle of Quality Assurance. C3(iii)</p>	<p>Teaching and learning improve – so do results. C3(iii)s</p>
	<p>Employ only good classroom teachers. C3(iv)</p>	<p>Better student attitude. C3(iv)s</p>
<p>Teach C3p</p>		

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Curricular Innovation. C4	<p>Review KS 3 and develop it. C4(i)</p> <p>Review KS 4 and develop it. C4(ii)</p> <p>Review KS 5 and develop it C4(iii)</p> <p>Introduce random changes especially in Pastoral Curriculum. C4(iv)</p>	<p>Better breadth and more spiritual cultural emphasis seen by children and teachers. C4(i)s</p> <p>Less student aberration, fewer exclusions, better attendance. C4(ii)s</p> <p>More students stay on! C4(iii)s</p> <p>Tutorial seen as real learning time. Better relationships between students and staff. C4(iv)s</p>
Assessment and Reporting. C5	<p>Computerise all reports. C5(i)</p> <p>Build in regular assessments in lessons, SoWs, and half-termly snapshot reports. C5(ii)</p> <p>Make final year end reports informative. Baseline improvement +/-same. C5(iii)</p> <p>Introduce Curriculum Review Days. C5(iv)</p>	<p>Staff realise it saves time. C5(i)s</p> <p>Children aware of types of assessment being used. C5(ii)s</p> <p>Parents feel reports are useful. C5(iii)s</p> <p>Students drive improvement cycle. C5(iv)s</p>
Arrange INSET and debate about value added, Monitoring and Mentoring. C6	<p>Set up programmes of interviews with students and parents in Years 7, 9 and 11. C6(i)</p> <p>Get staff to mentor difficult students. C6(ii)</p> <p>Use outside mentoring. C6(iii)</p> <p>Move to target setting throughout the school. C6(iv)</p>	<p>Attendance at interviews high – parents value it. C6(i)s</p> <p>Staff see how children can improve. C6(ii)s</p> <p>Better behaviour and attitude. C6(iii)s</p> <p>Children drive teaching and learning! C6(iv)s</p>
Make sure you are involved in all of these! C6p Rewards and Punishments. C7	<p>Set up structure for rewards at all levels in all areas. C7(i)</p> <p>Same with punishments and disciplinary systems. C7(ii)</p> <p>Involve Governors, parents, and students especially. C7(iii)</p>	<p>Culture of student success changes. C7(i)s</p> <p>Consistency among staff perceived by students. C7(ii)s</p> <p>People outside speak of school as “improving”. C7(iii)s</p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Praise everyone whenever possible. Make a point of praising students informally in classes and corridors. Set high standards for yourself and all staff – make it clear when you disapprove of staff appearance, lateness, behaviour, attitude etc. (especially to children). C7p</p>		
<p>Environment. C8</p>	<p>Re-decorate and refurbish. C8(i)</p>	<p>Students proud of buildings. C8(i)s</p>
	<p>Plants and landscaping. C8(ii)</p>	<p>Visitors notice differences. C8(ii)s</p>
	<p>Areas for student relaxation – benching outside etc. C8(iii)</p>	<p>Students enjoy environment. C8(iii)s</p>
	<p>Classroom and corridor displays. C8(iv)</p>	<p>Children keen to display work. C8(iv)s</p>
<p>Teach and display class work. Use your own office as example. Let all students enjoy best areas of school – it's theirs too! Improve quality of staff room and staff environments. C8p</p>		

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>A school with plenty of potential, but in need of a new head. There are pockets of good practice all over the place but no means by which they are shared either within departments or within the school. There is a marked lack of curriculum planning in terms of schemes of work, assessment and timetabling. Curriculum leadership will need close attention, particularly in differentiation which is a weakness across the school. On a positive note, a great deal of teaching is "goodish" and could be considerably better with good leadership and regular monitoring. The school has good kids who work hard. There is a need to place much greater emphasis on the multicultural and the appropriateness of behaviour. Some teachers need "sorting" in terms of their competence and a variety of systems need work. The school will need work but could be good. D0</p>	<p>Boys Underachievement D1</p> <p>Identify extent: ethnicity, age, subject base. D1(i)</p> <p>Plan to reduce underachievement via Curriculum Planning. D1(ii)</p> <p>Investigate single gender subjects e.g. Technology. D1(iii)</p> <p>Create clear expectations for both genders. D1(iv)</p> <p>Identify good practice in monitoring. D2(i)</p> <p>Direct weak practice to where good practice is. D2(ii)</p> <p>Identify the components of good practice, document and share. D2(iii)</p> <p>Encourage sharing via staff training days etc. D2(iv)</p> <p>Know what good teaching is and talk it up at every opportunity. Reward good teaching, direct others to it. Be very visible in relation to good teaching. D2p</p> <p>Accommodation D3</p> <p>Plan for grouping of rooms by subject. D3(i)</p> <p>Create facilities for nomadic staff. D3(ii)</p> <p>Approach LEADfEE for specialist accommodation. D3(iii)</p> <p>Improve quality of décor and display. D3(iv)</p> <p>Place emphasis on the classroom, stressing importance of pride in environment. Initiate use of display throughout the environment. D3p</p>	<p>Knowing the extent of the problem. D1(i)s</p> <p>Plan both Curriculum, and SoWs so as to address (i) above. D1(ii)s</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • See if it works. • Improvements in attainment. D1(iii)s <p>Student and teachers respond to expectations. D1(iv)s</p> <p>A log of good practice to display and disseminate to colleagues. D2(i)s</p> <p>Do it. D2(ii)s</p> <p>A digest to show colleagues the components of good teaching. D2(iii)s</p> <p>Do it! D2(iv)s</p> <p>Greater cohesion, communication and confidence. D3(i)s</p> <p>Ease of doing business, getting ready for class etc. D3(ii)s</p> <p>If it happens. D3(iii)s</p> <p>Greater pride, fewer instances of vandalism etc. D3(iv)s</p>
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Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Student Behaviours D4</p>	<p>Develop code of behaviour. D4(i)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written in homework planner, on wall etc. • Improvements. D4(i)s <p>Develop procedures for staff to deal with unacceptable behaviours. D4(ii)</p> <p>Improve behaviours via Rewards System. D4(iii)</p> <p>More students receiving rewards. D4(iii)s</p>
<p>Communicate to staff, parents and students, the behaviours which are acceptable. Stick to these, insist on them at all times. D4p</p> <p>Time Wastage D5</p> <p>Move to 25 hour week with 2 week timetable. D5(i)</p> <p>Initiate better procedures for monitoring punctuality. D5(ii)</p> <p>Ensure lessons have rigour through planning and variation in styles. D5(iii)</p> <p>Seen in lesson plans and through monitoring. D5(iii)s</p>	<p>Restructure time available to subjects. D5(i)s</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seen in policy and practice. • Weekly summaries. • Punishment of late comers. D5(ii)s <p>Seen in lesson plans and through monitoring. D5(iii)s</p> <p>Give clear leadership via monitoring and presence around school. Never walk past a student or teacher who is late. Challenge 'coasting' within lessons. D5p</p>
<p>Variability in teaching D6</p>	<p>Use of objectives, teaching and learning styles, variation and assessment. D6(i)</p> <p>Inclusion of individual learning activities. D6(ii)</p> <p>Expectations raised: specify most, many, some. D6(iii)</p> <p>Assess regularly and give plenty of feedback. D6(iv)</p> <p>Seen during monitoring. D6(i)s</p> <p>Seen in SoWs and monitoring. D6(ii)s</p> <p>Seen in planning. D6(iii)s</p> <p>---</p>
<p>Know what constitutes good teaching and make sure this is communicated through schemes, lesson planning and orally through discussions. Praise good practice, direct others to it. Ensure that non-teaching takes a back seat! D6p</p> <p>Curriculum Planning D7</p>	<p>Common format to Schemes of Work. Common usage. D7(i)</p> <p>Reduce non-specialist involvement. D7(ii)</p> <p>Only specialist teachers teaching subjects. D7(ii)s</p> <p>Concentrate on differentiation. D7(iii)</p> <p>Lesson plans which identify needs and objectives for different groups of students. D7(iii)s</p> <p>Monitor the Curriculum. D7(iv)</p> <p>---</p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Have a clear understanding of the curriculum needs of the school via audit. Have clear leadership strategies for implementing the curriculum. Ensure departments follow Senior Management's Curriculum Strategy. Ensure governors understand and are involved. D7p D7p</p>	
<p>ICT D8</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seen in Schemes of Work. • Statutory requirements are met. D8(i)s • Seen in Schemes of Work. • Statutory requirements are met. D8(ii)s • Create more time for other curriculum areas. • Success seen by improvements elsewhere. D8(iii)s
<p>Develop Curriculum for ICT in English etc. D8(i)</p>	<p>Assess and monitor progress across curriculum. D8(ii)</p>
<p>Reduce taught course to Year 7 only. D8(iii)</p>	
<p>Visibility. Show that ICT is important and valued. ICT is funded properly. D8p</p>	

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

This is the school for you! Baker School is a 'comfortable' school which is relying on the goodwill of a bygone era. No one makes demands on anyone, staff on staff nor staff on pupils. It's a school crying out to be led. You are just the person to provide the 'vision' for this school before it sinks into serious weaknesses through neglect. The pupils seem to come in to the school full of enthusiasm but they lose their motivation by Year 8 and it gets steadily worse. I am surprised the results are as good as they are! The School Development Plan doesn't seem to be worth the paper it's written on, there are very few effective policies and there is quite a bit of unsatisfactory teaching. The staff have probably taught in the school for years and a number are on protected salaries.

You could really make something of this school. Go for it. *E0*

Strategic Development Planning. (Priority 1) <i>E1</i>	Whole school consultation (Staff, Parents, Pupils, Governors) to agree the 'Vision', 'Mission' and 'Aims' of the school. <i>E1(i)</i> Identify targets for academic achievement. <i>E1(ii)</i> Include Ofsted Action Plan Key Issues as priorities. <i>E1(iii)</i>	All stakeholders articulate the ethos of the school and where the school is going. <i>E1(i)s</i> Targets are achieved within time limits. <i>E1(ii)s</i> • The school has an effective management structure which can manage change. • Good value for money is achieved. <i>E1(iii)s</i>
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Headteacher must talk the 'vision' at every opportunity with everyone who happens to be around. The qualities of leadership must be high profile. *E1p*

Behaviour management. (Priority 2) <i>E2</i>	Provide training on behaviour management for all staff. <i>E2(i)</i> A small focus group to draft whole school policy. <i>E2(ii)</i> Whole school consultation to agree policy. <i>E2(iii)</i> Criteria to measure improvement in behaviour to be agreed. <i>E2(iv)</i> Mechanisms to be put into place to monitor improvement. <i>E2(v)</i>	• Whole school policy in place and known by all stakeholders. • Regular review of behaviour shows a decrease in unacceptable behaviour and a decline in exclusions. • Pupils are responsible for their own behaviour and this is reflected in whole school ethos. <i>E2s</i>
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- Identify a key member of staff to lead the focus group.
- Meet with that person on a weekly basis.
- Identify key senior personnel to monitor behaviour.
- Ensure all reports on behaviour improvement are communicated widely. *E2p*

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>The under achievement of boys.</p> <p>(Priority 3) E3</p>	<p>Evaluate the whole school curriculum. E3(i)</p> <p>Review the Equal Opportunities Policy. E3(ii)</p> <p>Provide appropriate training to staff about different styles of learning. E3(iii)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A curriculum is in place which meets the needs of boys as well as girls. • Boys' attainment meets national averages. • Value added information shows high levels of attainment over base line data for all pupils. E3s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lead the discussion at senior management level to arrive at whole school policy. • Draft the outcome as part of the school's Strategic Development Plan. • Agree the curriculum after whole school consultation. • Identify key personnel who will provide training in school to all staff. • Monitor the work of senior staff to effect the necessary changes which need to be put in place. • Share the issues with the governing body. • Monitor the progress made by Heads of Department on a weekly basis. E3p <p>Attendance and punctuality.</p> <p>(Priority 4) E4</p>	<p>Staff consultation on whole school policy for attendance. E4(i)</p> <p>Policy to be widely publicised. E4(ii)</p> <p>Classroom strategies agreed for action to be taken re: punctuality to school and lessons. E4(iii)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whole school policy in place. • Monitoring mechanisms show a decline in figures for punctuality. • Whole school attendance targets met. E4s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A senior member of staff is designated responsibility for attendance and punctuality. • Attendance and punctuality data to be given to headteacher on a weekly basis. • Action taken is shared with whole school and governors. E4p 	
<p>The curriculum: Monitoring and Evaluation.</p> <p>Assessment.</p> <p>(Priority 5) E5</p>	<p>Audit of all curriculum areas to take place. E5(i)</p> <p>Schemes of Work re-drafted to meet NC requirements. E5(ii)</p> <p>Heads of department contribute to debate about assessment. E5(iii)</p> <p>Agreement reached re: whole school policy on assessment. E5(iv)</p> <p>Whole school strategy agreed to include pupils in monitoring academic progress. E5(v)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All subjects (including Design and Technology and English) meet NC requirements. • Whole school Assessment Policy in place. • Pupil progress monitored each term using assessment information. • KS3, GCSE and A level results meet national averages at least. • Value added data used to raise achievement further. • Monitoring Report published by individual Heads of department termly.

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

	Whole school monitoring structures to be agreed and put in place. E5(vi)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The curriculum is reviewed and evaluated annually by senior staff. Report published. E5s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Debate about the use of assessment and monitoring data to raise achievement to be led by the headteacher at meeting with senior staff. Identify one senior member of staff to have responsibility for the curriculum. Plan calendar of monitoring and assessment a year in advance. Publish it widely. Meet with each Head of department weekly to monitor progress. E5p 		
<p>Learning skills (to include oracy and numeracy).</p> <p>(Priority 6) E6</p>	<p>Staff training to focus on pupil learning. E6(i)</p> <p>A focus group of staff to draft whole school policy on teaching pupils learning skills. E6(ii)</p> <p>Opportunities for developing oracy skills to be mapped across the curriculum. E6(iii)</p> <p>Whole school numeracy policy drafted. E6(iv)</p> <p>Investigate the use of time at registration with a view to developing pupil learning skills. E6(v)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Whole school policy in place. Monitoring strategies show improvement in learning, oracy and numeracy across the curriculum. Public examination results meet national averages. Value added data shows improvement in pupil learning. E6s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Headteacher leads debate about learning skills. Verbalises the impact improved learning skills can have on the self-esteem of pupils. As a role model to all show by personal example improved leadership as lead learner. E6p 		
<p>Financial management.</p> <p>(Priority 7) E7</p>	<p>Devise shadow management structure which will meet the needs of the new curriculum. E7(i)</p> <p>Strategically plan to group subject areas together. E7(ii)</p> <p>Draft financial policy to reflect the needs of the curriculum. E7(iii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Management and staffing becomes more cost effective. Curriculum teams become more effective through the development of teamwork. Curriculum areas are appropriately funded and strategic planning enables development to take place. Monitoring systems show that financial investment in the curriculum leads to improved pupil attainment. E7s

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Put monitoring systems in place. <i>E7(iv)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Close relationship developed with the bursar and the governors finance sub-committee.• All monitoring data shared with heads of department regularly. <i>E7p</i>
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Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>On a quick scan of the main findings in the Ofsted report for Baker School I would say it is definitely worth applying for the post. There are clearly a lot of areas where you could make a difference in the short term immediately and in the long term. The only two areas I would have some reservation about would be:</p> <p>whether you would want to live with the compromises needed.</p> <p>1) The split site. You would need to think carefully about how you would manage this and whether you would want to live with the compromises needed.</p> <p>2) The difference of views between the school governors and senior staff. What does this really mean? How easy will it be to work with Governors to achieve a coherent vision? Be careful here because without the full support of the Governing Body it may be very difficult for you to make changes necessary.</p> <p>Financially the school seems very sound and apparently resources levels are satisfactory. I can't understand why there was such a large carry forward and in Ofsted's view value for money is poor and there are efficiency savings to be made. Something must be very poorly resourced. F0</p>	<p>Governors and staff conference to define vision for school and identify areas for improvement. F1(i)</p> <p>Identify key areas for staff training – teaching/learning. F1(ii)</p> <p>Organise some excellent well known trainers to have some significant whole staff training. F1(iii)</p> <p>Link to School Development Plan and follow through in departments and year teams. F1(iv)</p>	<p>School plans, departmental plans, year team plans (common themes). F1(i)s</p> <p>Training well received. Generates enthusiasm. Followed up in meetings, Schemes of Work. F1(ii)s - F1(iv)s</p>
<p>Leadership for the strategic plan in setting up the conference, holding it together and ensuring follow through afterwards. F1p</p> <p>Investigate systems for monitoring day to day activities of school and make staff and middle managers accountable. (Lateness to lesson).</p> <p>Look at organisation of school day and timetable to get best fit with split site.</p> <p>(Priority =1) F2</p>	<p>Walk the corridors to check on lateness to lessons, and behaviour around the school. F2(i)</p> <p>Talk to staff about ensuring punctuality. Ask questions when pupils are late to lessons. F2(ii)</p> <p>Give middle managers responsibility for ensuring punctuality to lessons. F2(iii)</p> <p>Review timetable, length of lessons, organisation of subject areas. F2(iv)</p>	<p>Punctuality to lessons improves. F2s</p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Head teacher can lead by actively walking corridors, talking to staff, talking to middle managers. Instigate rota with other senior staff. F2p</p>		
<p>Programme of repair and improvement to school buildings and environment. (Priority 2) F3</p>	<p>Reorganise buildings to group subjects together. F3(i)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Displays improve • Litter improves • Subjects together • Gradual programme of maintenance/redcoration improves look of school. F3s
	<p>Instigate programme of repair/redcoration. F3(ii)</p>	
	<p>Campaign for funds for a re-building programme. F3(iii)</p>	
	<p>Emphasise responsibility for display to Heads of Faculty and ask to ensure good display. F3(iv)</p>	
	<p>Ensure litter collected at least twice daily. F3(v)</p>	
<p>Involve pupils in care of environment. E.g. Rota for clearing litter. F3(vi)</p>		
<p>Regular monitoring of condition of buildings and displays. Plan reorganisation of classrooms with other school managers. Work with LEA for re-building. Apply for funds etc. Assemblies on environment. F3p</p>		
<p>Attendance. (Priority 3) F4</p>	<p>Instigate a policy of phoning parents on first day of absence. F4(i)</p>	<p>Attendance improves. F4(i)s</p>
	<p>Write to all parents about attendance. F4(ii)</p>	
	<p>See parents of all children being taken out of school during term time for holidays to discourage them. F4(iii)</p>	
	<p>Instigate spot checks on truancy to check registers taken and for truants. F4(iv)</p>	
	<p>Put pressure on hard core absentees. F4(v)</p>	
	<p>Instigate a work related curriculum for disaffected. F4(vi)</p>	
	<p>Review the KS 4 Curriculum. F4(vii)</p>	
	<p>Certificates for best attendance, termly, yearly. F4(viii)</p>	
<p>Write to parents. See parents about holidays in term time. Distribute certificates for best attendance. F4p</p>		

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Curriculum. (Priority =4) F5	Review time allocations for different subjects at KS 3 in particular. F5(i) Introduce systems for monitoring pupils performance by gender, ethnic group, subject and using bench mark data. F5(ii) Review the homework policy and introduce systems for monitoring homework. F5(iii)	Time allocation in line with national picture. F5(i)s Clear data on performance of different groups leading to further action targets. F5(ii)s <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Homework diaries monitored. • Homework more consistent. • Results improve. F5(iii)s Rationale for grouping exists. F5(iv)s Week length increases to 25 hours. F5(v)s
Working with Governors on review of school week. F5p Teaching and Learning. (Priority =4) F6	Develop a system for monitoring Teaching and Learning. F6(i) Encourage focus on Teaching and Learning at faculty meetings. F6(ii) Develop Heads of Faculty and Heads of Department as subject leaders and experts in their field. F6(iii) Develop peer observation and feedback. F6(iv) Develop common format for lesson planning. Monitoring of planning. F6(v) Review Schemes of Work and improve consistency and quality of Schemes of Work, focusing on teaching quality. F6(vi)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exam results improve. • Quality of teaching more consistent. • Attendance improves. F6s
Discuss Teaching and Learning with SMT, Heads of Faculty, Heads of Department, Heads of Year. F6p Formative Assessment. Target Setting. Mentoring. (Priority 5) F7	In-service training on formative assessment. F7(i) Pilot project with one year group to develop practice and gradually introduce across school F7(ii) Introduce mentoring project for under-achievers with target setting in subject areas and by form tutor. F7(iii) Enhance role of tutor. F7(iv)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exam results improve. • Disaffection decreases. • Behaviour improves. F7s

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Creation of posts of responsibility. Monitoring of pilot project. Involvement in mentoring pupils. F7p</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More ICT built into curriculum Schemes of Work. • Increase independent use of ICT by staff/pupils. • Improved quality of teaching materials and pupils' work. F8s
<p>Upgrade ICT systems. Increase resources. F8(i)</p>	
<p>Instigate access to Internet for all. F8(ii)</p>	
<p>Improve access to ICT for staff. F8(iii)</p>	
<p>Give ICT coordinator time to plan with departments to ensure ICT across the curriculum. F8(iv)</p>	
<p>Provide training for staff. F8(v)</p>	
<p>Regular meetings with ICT coordinator to review ICT. Channelling resources into ICT. Working with Governors to encourage support. F8p</p>	

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

I read the OFSTED report on Baker School with interest. There is no doubt that taking this school on would be a challenge. However, it is not all bad news, there is good practice in a wide range of school activities. Use this practice as a way of raising the consistency of teaching and pupil learning. This must be the core activity.

There are 4 issues I would suggest need addressing in the first instance.

Leadership which clearly focuses on the roles and responsibilities of the headteacher, Senior and Middle managers and teachers would be a critical starting point.

In addition to this would be a whole school approach to lesson planning targeting pupil performance relative to prior attainment, clearly stated aims which show progression and pace and rigour being evident in lesson planning.

The behaviour around school in lessons cannot be allowed to detract from pupil performance. The school needs to develop a coherent behaviour policy which is understood by all and can be implemented.

A more consistent whole school agreement to structures which enable effective teaching and learning would be a key to improvement at Baker School. **G0**

Define the roles and responsibilities of the management team and middle managers.

(Priority 1) **G1**

A clear structure to be established. **G1(i)**

A cyclical review process to be set up.

G1(ii)

Agendas agreed and minutes taken. **G1(iii)**

A line management model to be agreed.

Meetings to be arranged with an agreed agenda which focuses on the effectiveness of departments to match pupil performance to potential. **G1s**

Matching pupil performance to potential is the key issue in school and Headteachers must lead to ensure, as far as possible, that this is achieved. **G1p**

A whole school approach to lesson planning.

(Priority =2) **G2**

An agreed lesson planning format. **G2(i)**

Clear guidelines. **G2(ii)**

Ensure pace/rigour/differentiation. **G2(iii)**

An explicit set of criteria adopted by all to raise pupil and staff understanding of learning. An agreed lesson planning sheet which allows middle managers to raise the effectiveness of their department. **G2s**

To state publicly that teaching and learning is the core activity in the school. **G2p**

A whole school assessment/marketing policy.

(Priority =2) **G3**

Review Schemes of Work. **G3(i)**

National Curriculum targets are explicitly stated. **G3(ii)**

To have a positive marking policy that is used across all departments enabling pupils to be clearly aware of their progress and appropriate next steps. **G3s**

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

	Assessment policy agreed and implemented across the school. G3(iii)	
	Pupil progress is related to parents. G3(iv)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure that this policy is implemented. • Looking at reports to ensure targets/next steps are set. G3p 		
<p>To use assessment data to inform teachers in their planning. (Priority =2) G4</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To ensure that the school/department is setting challenging yet realistic targets. • To gain control of the agenda to ensure that external agencies do not impose unrealistic demands on institutions. G4p <p>Reintroduce a behaviour policy. (Priority =5) G5</p>	Investigate ICT to use as a data base. G4(i)	<p>To ensure that assessment data is in a usable form. This data to inform whole school, departmental and classroom planning to ensure effective lesson planning and maintain/raise pupil performance. G4s</p> <p>This policy leads to fewer removals from lessons/detentions/exclusions. Raising the effectiveness of work undertaken in the classroom. G5s</p>
	Collect data that is available in school. G4(ii)	
	Arrange this data in a usable form. G4(iii)	
	Produce other data if necessary. G4(iv)	
<p>The overall level of behaviour in the school is essentially the Headteacher's responsibility. It is his/her role to ensure that all staff have a role in this – leadership is essential. G5p</p> <p>Improve attendance rates. (Priority =5) G6</p>	<p>Clear set of guidelines. G5(i)</p> <p>Rules agreed with all members of the school. G5(ii)</p> <p>A positive approach to behaviour management. G5(iii)</p> <p>Outline to parents the need for regular attendance. G6(i)</p> <p>Outline to students the need for regular attendance. G6(ii)</p> <p>Raise tutors and Head of Year responsibility for absence monitoring. G6(iii)</p> <p>Institute first day absence calling. G6(iv)</p>	<p>A reduction in authorised and unauthorised absence. This is one way to improve pupil performance. G6s</p>
<p>To ensure that all staff see the need for improving attendance rates and that they all have a role to play in this. G6p</p> <p>ICT policy and access to the resources for departments. (Priority 7) G7</p>	<p>Introduce discrete ICT lessons into KS 3. G7(i)</p> <p>A mapping exercise to see ICT exposure in KS 4. G7(ii)</p> <p>Consider ways of improving departmental access to ICT. G7(iii)</p>	<p>The development of ICT which allows departments enhanced access to technology. Explicit ICT elements are clearly stated in departments Schemes of Work and are acted upon. G7s</p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>To assess room usage in the school. <i>(Priority 8) G8</i></p>	<p>Look at the current allocation of rooms. G8(i) Look at percentage utilization. G8(ii) Reconsider the location of department bases. G8(iii) Plan medium/long term site usage. G8(iv)</p>	<p>In the medium term to have rooms that are grouped as suits. This should enhance the efficient running of faculties. G8s</p>
<p>To ensure best value for money. G8p</p>		

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Without any knowledge of the area or the school or the staff it is difficult to comment on the report. These are however certain issues to take into account or consider:-

1. "Over half the pupils come from homes where English is not the first language" (page 2), and 46.76% gained 5 GCE grades A-C (page 4). This school appears to be successful! Are the criticisms justified?
2. The Budget doesn't seem to make sense! Why has the allocation for the current year been reduced when the income shows an increase? (page 5)
3. The word 'underachievement' is repeated many times and particularly referring to boys. This is a key issue!
4. The split site is a factor which affects both punctuality and communication. This needs to be resolved.
5. Quality of teaching is only 'sound' in three quarters of the lessons. (This really does not match with 1 above!)
6. The behaviour of pupils, linked to poor teaching and low expectation is a recurring feature. This needs addressing.

Finally I would say the most important task is to be very careful that changes do not destroy what is good and staff morale must be kept high to implement change. **H0**

Under Achievement supported by better quality of teaching and pupil behaviour

(Priority =1) **H1**

	Establish 'Working Group' to seek out 'best practice' is promoting increase in achievement of boys. Produce School Policy H1(i)	New policy H1(i)s
	Require action plans from all HoDs to raise expectations and promote learning H1(ii)	New Action plans followed by greater achievement measured by SATS H1(ii)s
	Improve record system to set group and individual targets for pupils to aim for. H1(iii)	Targets established H1(iii)s
	Consider effective ways of rewarding progress and improvement H1(iv)	Targets reached and rewards issued. H1(iv)s
(i) Lead the W. Group. Arrange visits to successful schools and underpin new policy.		
(ii) Approve action plans, set target dates and monitor outcomes		
(iii) Explain system to parents, ensure uniformity across the curriculum and provide INSET if necessary		
(iv) Actively recognise and reward success. H1p		

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>'Pupil Behaviour' in conjunction with 'Quality of Teaching'. (Priority =1) H2</p>	<p>Fresh start needed! Change rules and regulations where necessary. Launch 'new style' zero tolerance of those who do not comply H2(i) Clear support for teachers within the classroom. H2(ii) Parental involvement and support within the fresh start approach H2(iii) Establish pupil involvement and acceptance. H2(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initial increased work load for pastoral staff. Should 'fall off' if a success • Better teaching and learning – should be observed by SMT • A change in attitudes should result. H2s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head should take the lead in the 'new launch'. He should be at the end of the disciplinary chain and be prepared to act firmly. • Head should call parents meetings and ensure that parents give full support to the policies. H2p <p>'Quality of Teaching' in conjunction with 'Pupil Behaviour' (Priority =1) H3</p>	<p>Regular class observations by senior staff with meaningful reports H3(i) 'Good' teachers supporting the others - planning - lesson observation H3(ii) Enhanced HoD role to encompass teaching styles and teaching quality. H3(iii) INSET if good providers can be found! H3(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved behaviour • Improved 'team' spirit • Increased 'job-satisfaction' (less turn-over of staff?) • (less absenteeism!) H3s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head should lead the SMT in co-ordinating these functions and by sensitive funding. The classroom observations should identify any lack of resources. • It should be a clear school policy that 'top' teachers are rewarded either internally or when seeking external promotion. H3p <p>Curriculum Issues. (Priority =2) H4</p>	<p>Review length of school day and the allocation of time. H4(i) Review time table structure to reduce movement H4(ii) Review schemes of work and lesson plans to improve KS 2 [3] achievements H4(iii) Monitor quality of teaching – lesson observation (referred to earlier) H4(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Better time distribution • Less movement means less opportunity for poor behaviour on corridors • Improved KS 2 [3] results H4s

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>(i) Negotiate changes with LEA, parents, and Governors. (ii) Negotiate with Curriculum Management Group and re-balance staffing. (iii) & (iv) Monitoring role and Evaluation role. H4p</p>	<p>Examine the 'causes' for lack of punctuality and rectify H5(i) Examine the 'causes' for poor communication and improve. H5(ii)</p>	<p>Lessons start punctually H5(i)s Staff know what is happening. Fewer errors! H5(ii)s</p>
<p>(Priority =2) H5</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor punctuality and 'deter'! • Monitor communication and continue improvements until satisfactory H5p 		
<p>School Development Plan (Priority =3) – Probably the most important but the others have priority for action H6</p>	<p>Establish effective policies and procedures for monitoring teaching and learning. (para 157) H6(i) School policy for curriculum development and review to be drawn up. (para 160) H6(ii) SMT to re-establish the aims of the school and agree co-ordinated policies for implementation. (para 162) H6(iii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved teaching and learning • Set Targets H6s
<p>Should raise expectations within a realistic framework H6p</p>		
<p>Quality Assurance (page 11) (Priority =3) H7</p>	<p>Establish Working Group to determine which areas would benefit from a Q.A. policy and the P.I.s to be used. H7(i) Set up a 'pilot' area to see if it works. H7(ii) Extend this to other areas if it does. H7(iii)</p>	<p>Improved Quality! H7s</p>
<p>The time and effort expanded on Q.A. may be greater than the outcome – and the outcome may be due to other changes/requirements and not Q.A. policies. Head should make sure the system is simple, easily understood and evaluated. H7p</p>		
<p>Site Management (Priority =3) H8</p>	<p>Review room allocations so that members in a department worked adjacent. H8(i) Improve appearance by involving pupils in 'clean-ups' and displays. H8(ii) Improve classroom displays. Worth an INSET session. H8(iii) Better and imaginative use of 'decorations' budget H8(iv)</p>	<p>HoDs satisfied with new arrangements and in a better position to monitor H8(i)s</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brighter environment • Pride in the school H8(ii)s – H8(iv)s

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

- Head would need to firmly settle arguments between departments.
- Head would need to 'pump prime' changes. *H8p*

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Lucky (perhaps because 94) not to hit serious weaknesses; huge gaps in teaching, especially Science, Technology and Languages, average 25 – 30% unsatisfactory. Also threatening loss of income – GM budget loss?</p> <p>School seems flabby and tired; staff garden untended; systems under-developed overall; needs a complete shake-up, not nitpicking around key issues.</p> <p>Begin with vision and big picture (seems completely missing) and work out through roles and responsibilities. Purge at HoD level and in a number of subjects.</p> <p>Student and staff involvement in councils and activities needs development; what about a major project to focus and develop e.g. specialist college status or Investors in People?</p>	
<p>Monitoring minimal – needs writing into roles. I0 I0</p>	
<p>Big Picture I1</p>	<p>Wide consultation and involvement I1(i)</p>
	<p>Focus specific objectives I1(ii)</p>
	<p>Translate into a development plan I1(iii)</p>
<p>Head debate; translate debate to action; define roles and outcomes of participants I1p</p>	
<p>Line management sharpened via revised Roles and Responsibilities I2</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negotiation to generate new roles and responsibilities • Coach into new roles I2p 	<p>New SMT and HoD job descriptions I2(i)</p>
	<p>Linked to SDP and targets/objectives I2(ii)</p>
	<p>Emphasises leadership I2(iii)</p>
<p>Strengthened Performance Review I3</p>	
<p>Training SMT and HoD for cascade of new approach I3p</p> <p>Pupil progress system I4</p>	<p>Routine monitoring and observation established I3(i)</p>
	<p>Guidelines written for progress review and observation I3(ii)</p>
	<p>External consultants to write reports on Science, Technology, ICT and Languages I3(iii)</p>
	<p>Investors in People introduced I3(iv)</p>
<p>Homework Planners I4(i)</p> <p>Data management set up I4(ii)</p> <p>All pupils to have targets/mentoring I4(iii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-Evaluation linked to objectives up and running • Increased consistency of Teaching and Learning measured by monitoring against criteria I3s
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All pupils with subject targets • Increased homework completion rates and parental comments I4s

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Ensure completion of a) Systems b) Delivery of outputs <i>I4p</i>	
Review of 'Expectations' of students and Staff <i>I5</i>	<p>Establish Student Council <i>I5(i)</i></p> <p>Staff/Student Working Group – task to create expectation/codes <i>I5(ii)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Codes in place • Council meets and serviced • Behaviour Policy operated by all – • Confirmed by monitoring <i>I5s</i>
Frame SMT Roles and Responsibilities to ensure setting up and leading of all these processes <i>I5p</i>	

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

The school is in need of constructive and purposeful leadership and management. There are some immediate issues that could be resolved quite easily and make a positive impact. There are also some deep seated issues that will need a long term strategic approach in order to show any significant improvement.

Immediate Issues:

- As from next September I suggest that you consider suiting the teaching areas.
- Ensure that each HoD does a SWOT analysis on their department based on the OFSTED report and then draw up a department development plan.

Long Term Issues:

- Draw up a clear line management diagram showing the relationship between HoDs/SMT.
- Produce a clear system of monitoring both by SMT line managers and by HoDs to ensure that the focus is on improving learning and teaching.

It will be a challenge, go for it. Good luck. *J0*

Use of registration time *J1*

Draw up a plan of activities which should occur (must occur) during registration time. *J1(i)*

Include directed activities e.g. quiet reading/checking homework planners etc. *J1(ii)*

Implement as soon as possible. *J1(iii)*
SMT/HoYs monitor regularly and evaluate at end of year. *J1(iv)*

Clear guidelines drawn up for the use of registration time. *J1(i)s*

Directed quiet activities included. *J1(ii)s*

Effective use of registration time. *J1(iii)s*
Clear evidence of practice and sufficient data to evaluate improvement. *J1(iv)s*

Achievement of boys *J2*

Systematically collect data from past 2/3 academic years to prove underachievement of boys *J2(i)*

Explore and then implement different strategies (boy/girl boy/girl seating, separate gender groupings etc.) *J2(ii)*

Ensure that whenever possible control groups are set up to provide reliable data for comparison *J2(iii)*

Sufficient hard data is collected/collated to show underachievement is present. *J2(i)s*

Different pilot schemes are launched by different curriculum areas *J2(ii)s*

Strict comparisons can be made by eliminating some (many) variables *J2(iii)s*

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

	Monitor closely and evaluate at end of academic year J2(iv)	Clear indicators are evident at end of evaluation process J2(iv)s
Monitoring and evaluation by SMT J3	Draw up a clear organisational chart to show line management responsibility regarding SMT/HoDs J3(i)	Clear organisational chart drawn up J3(i)s
	Set out clearly line managers roles and responsibilities and ensure understood by all J3(ii)	An explicit set of roles and responsibilities understood by all J3(ii)s
	Agree clear monitoring schedule for line managers J3(iii)	A completed schedule for each line manager according to (ii) above at end of academic year J3(iii)s
	Evaluate at end of academic year J3(iv)	Sufficient hard data to ensure valid evaluation J3(iv)s
(i) Regular individual meetings with SMT line managers to ensure timetable of monitoring is on track.		
(ii) High profile with regard to increasing management competencies of all with management points. J3p		
Curriculum planning and delivery J4	Draw up a curriculum plan for the school ensuring full involvement of staff and Governors J4(i)	All pupils have equality of opportunity regarding access to curriculum J4(i)s
	Rethink Year 7 curriculum to ensure high level of specialist teaching J4(ii)	Higher level of specialist teaching in Year 7 J4(ii)s
	Implement new curriculum model as from next academic year J4(iii)	New model implemented J4(iii)s
	Share good practice regarding lesson planning and delivery J4(iv)	Each member of staff to have observed at least 2 lessons during academic year. Lesson planning to be consistently at least satisfactory J4(iv)s
(i) Observe lessons across the school thus reinforcing the core purpose of the school. J4p		
Assessment, recording and reporting J5	Ensure that there is a whole school agreed assessment policy J5(i)	All staff following agreed assessment policy J5(i)s
	Ensure whole school homework policy J5(ii)	All staff following agreed homework policy J5(ii)s
	Install ICT hardware/software to facilitate data collection (recording) and manipulating (reporting) J5(iii)	Reduce bureaucracy and increase standard of reporting J5(iii)s

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Attendance and punctuality J6	<p>Ensure reporting meets (and exceeds) statutory requirements J5(iv)</p> <p>Raise the profile of attendance by publishing first internally individual form groups attendance rates J6(i)</p> <p>Reward attendance by internal certification (and punctuality) J6(ii)</p> <p>First day absence follow up J6(iii)</p> <p>Sanctions put in place regarding poor attendance/poor punctuality J6(iv)</p>	<p>All reporting to parents meets statutory requirements J5(iv)s</p> <p>Profile of attendance raised in staffs awareness J6(i)s</p> <p>Pupils wanting to receive certificates regarding attendance/punctuality J6(ii)s</p> <p>All un-notified 1st day absences – parents contacted J6(iii)s</p> <p>Sanctions applied fairly across school and need for them decreases J6(iv)s</p>
(i)	Ensure paragraph regarding attendance/punctuality in termly letters to parents. J6p	

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>There is a sound base and the school is, in my opinion, ready for planned strategies/changes to enable improvements to take place in attainment.</p> <p>Emphasis needs to be given on clear leadership i.e. <u>all</u> to concentrate on raising attainment and this involves looking at standards of teaching, expectations, (especially boys) setting targets, monitoring, differentiation, school and department planning – the list goes on!</p> <p><u>Do not</u> underestimate the problems of a split site. Investigate, early on, the pros and cons of suiting departments on one site. This will allow more efficient resource use, reduce staff movement and stress, allow 'ownership' of rooms and therefore good class displays. Timetabling to reduce pupil movement to a minimum is vital – punctuality and a 'business like' approach is important. Still, you know all this!</p> <p>The job is 'do-able' – go for it!!</p> <p>K0</p>	
<p>Timetable revision to allow</p> <p>(1) greater flexibility in curriculum planning</p> <p>(2) suiting of rooms</p> <p>(3) to adjust curriculum areas allocation of time as noted by Ofsted</p> <p>(Priority 1) K1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head to chair discussion on time allocation for subjects • Head to speak with each HoD about DDP termly (initially first 2 years and thereafter twice yearly) • Head to be 'highly visible' at start of lesson time to monitor and 'promote' punctuality. K1p 	<p>Timetable to change to 25 hours of 30 times 50 minutes. K1(i)</p> <p>Departments to be suited on one site. K1(ii)</p> <p>HoDs to agree time allocations. K1(iii)</p> <p>Schemes of work to be revised to reflect changes in time allocation and to length of lessons. K1(iv)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Punctual start to lessons. • Improved classroom displays. • HoDs to submit plans to monitor departments performance against Department Development Plans. • SoW to be submitted by agreed date and to a common format; Curriculum Deputy to report to Head. K1s
<p>Curriculum planning at Department level</p> <p>Matching resources to priorities i.e.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Class sizes • Staff matched to groups • Over-stretching of some staff regarding contact time <p>(Priority =2) K2</p>	<p>HoD meeting to highlight issues K2(i)</p> <p>HoDs to submit staffing to timetabler to reflect highlighted concerns – this to include more experienced staffing at KS3, including SMT (Head) K2(ii)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved equality across staff via teaching ratio • Improved outcomes at KS3 regarding levels of attainment • Elimination of huge/tiny group sizes • Staff and Governor satisfaction viz improved equality • Overall effect of better value for money K2s
<p>Head to discuss with Timetabler – ensure agreed requirements are supported by HoDs timetable submissions. Where HoDs do not cooperate – Head to follow up via Curriculum Deputy or SMT Link in first place; personally, if needed. K2p</p>	

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Strategic planning: emphasis to be wholly on raising pupil attainment as documented in School Development Plan; Department Development Plans <u>required</u> to reflect Department [School] Development Plan (Priority =2) K3</p>	<p>Use of raw data to produce whole school targets regarding pupil attainment; departments to do likewise K3(i)</p> <p>Standards of teaching – DDP to reflect SDP in that SoWs to emphasise differentiation, pupil opportunities for self discovery through greater use of ICT K3(ii)</p> <p>Expectations: SoWs to reflect high expectations viz expected outcomes for each ½ term's work; assessments to be built in; school marking and assessment policy to be followed K3(iii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Targets achieved e.g. improved KS3 and KS4 results • HoDs to monitor DDP to include lesson observations and report improved marking which includes guidelines on how to improve, targeted use of homework • SMT links to most HoDs: fortnightly and success will mean reporting greater use of ICT to support pupils' learning, higher teacher expectations, improved behaviour in lessons K3s
<p>Head to observe at least 2 lessons per week (and more, part lessons where possible) – this to be a personal target in SDP K3p</p> <p>Pupil monitoring/mentoring to support drive to raise attainment (Priority =2) K4</p>	<p>Identify underachievers K4(i)</p> <p>Allocate staff to monitor/mentor 4 or 5 pupils each K4(ii)</p> <p>Introduce an industrial mentoring programme targeted on under-achievers K4(iii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agreed targets (specific, not just "improve presentation") achieved • Other pupils 'eager' to be monitored • Pupils are notably more confident, better motivated, more punctual with improved attendance • Programme growing K4s
<p>Head to act as mentor to 2 or 3 pupils – not where behaviour has been a problem. (Head needs to be careful not to try and do everything) K4p</p> <p>Database to support school improvement: to support monitoring and drive to raise expectations (Priority 3) K5</p>	<p>Produce database for whole school to include every pupil to show:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • KS2 levels and scores • NFER scores Year 7 and Year 10 English and Mathematics • KS3 levels and scores • Year 10 target grades • Year 11 mock results • Year 11 predicted grades <p>- Individual pupils given academic targets K5(i)</p> <p>Produce information viz value added/residuals and <u>explain</u> to staff K5(ii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff expectations raised • Staff understand link (and limitations of data) between scores and pupil potential • Monitoring/mentoring: effectiveness enhanced • Attainment raised! K5s

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Head to discuss and explain value-added, residuals, NFER [scores], etc. with whole staff and reinforce the link with teacher expectations. Head to reinforce above during meetings with HoDs. K5p	
Literacy and Numeracy skills of pupils at KS3: target Year 7 (Priority 4) K6	Advisor input regarding whole school INSET on Literacy and Numeracy K6(i) School policies produced which lay out how departments should support policy K6(ii) English and Mathematics departments to produce <u>specific</u> advice to departments to reinforce their work: Curriculum Deputy to monitor K6(iii)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agreed, whole school procedures in place and happening • Specific examples on spelling, reading, use of ICT, use of number etc. produced by English and Mathematics departments and used across school – reflected in improvements in pupil use of number etc. • Improvement of 10% in English and Mathematics KS3 SATs 2 years time. K6s
Regular, informal discussions with staff – not just English and Mathematics – about Literacy/Numeracy initiative; its importance, progress, successes/problems etc. Extra resourcing provided if required regarding books, ICT software, INSET needs. K6p	
ICT training of staff and availability of hardware (Priority =5) K7	Audit of staff skills and needs K7(i) Plan to address requirements produced in audit K7(ii) Plan to reflect school's drive for improved attainment i.e. training for staff in ICT on how it can support/improve their subject teaching K7(iii)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Next audit shows improved staff skills and understanding • Greater use of ICT across the curriculum to support independent learning • Improved pupil motivation K7s
Seek ways to prioritise spending to support ICT training e.g. purchase of hardware/software; extra finances to support NOF. Extra funding, where possible, to support ICT and other school priorities at the same time e.g. in Numeracy/Literacy K7p	
Professional Development: produce an agreed, prioritised plan for on-going staff development to support the drive for improved pupil performance (Priority =5) K8	Whole-school and department meetings to highlight needs K8(i) Prioritised plan produced by Professional Development Coordinator K8(ii) Plan must support SDP and DDPs therefore priority given to training related to Numeracy/Literacy/Boys' attainment, target setting and monitoring/effective teaching/ICT training/differentiation K8(iii)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A planned, agreed Professional Development Policy produced which supports school improvement • Action plans submitted by staff which supports school improvements – these to be monitored by HoD and SMT link K8s
Head to attend/join in training sessions with staff which support her own needs – this will enhance own skills/requirements but also emphasise to staff her support for the drive for school improvement. K8p	

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

The Ofsted Report is on the whole favorable and there are many references to the friendliness of the pupils and good staff relations which, as usual, co-exist with various criticisms. The split site clearly causes problems and the organisation of the school needs to be tackled to cope with these, particularly in the matter of attendance and punctuality. The Report does not state how the school is divided, but the higher degree of autonomy in each building the greater the reduction in movement. The conventional method is to have a higher and a lower school, but it is, of course, possible and may be desirable in this case, to have two parallel units rather than the conventional age split.

Harry Judge, one of the early pioneers of comprehensive education, ran his school at Banbury by organising it in a number of smaller and largely autonomous units. There will be many reasons why this may appear impossible, but some fresh thinking is clearly indicated. A change of organisation along the lines indicated would reduce movement, save time, and help to ameliorate the problem of specialist units rather than thinking of a suite of English rooms. Let each building have its own specialist rooms as far as possible.

Governors, staff and pupils need to share a vision of where the school is going, with the Head providing strong leadership. A positive public relations policy, coupled with strong internal leadership based on accessibility and availability of the Head yields better results than the tedious pre-occupation with assessment procedures and monitoring which Ofsted advocates. **L0 L0**

<p>Leadership role of Head and Senior Staff. Head is seen as Primus Inter Pares [the first among equals].</p>	<p>Head takes initiative in promoting positive public relations policy using Press, TV, Radio, meeting employers, handling controversies with confidence. L1(i)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased standing of school in community. • Developing confidence amongst teaching staff in dealing with Head and Senior Staff. L1s
<p>Little is said about the quality of the head and Senior Staff in the Report.</p>	<p>Ready availability and accessibility of Senior Staff and Head. L1(ii)</p>	
<p>(Priority 1) L1</p>	<p>Head and Senior Staff take lessons, are seen to take difficult classes and ensure that praise is given when deserved. L1(iii)</p>	
<p>Regular and structured staff meetings with time limit. Involvement of whole staff wherever possible, with Governors encouraged to play a supportive, rather than an inspectorial role. L1(iv)</p>	<p>Regular and structured staff meetings with time limit. Involvement of whole staff wherever possible, with Governors encouraged to play a supportive, rather than an inspectorial role. L1(iv)</p>	
<p>Since Head initiates he would clearly support the improvements suggested. It is a matter of developing his/her personality and admitting to himself/herself shortcomings in private. Head needs to be seen as displaying optimism, confidence and strength. L1p</p>		

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<p>Staff deployment and review of teaching loads.</p> <p>There should be an understanding that teaching loads are fairly distributed. The principle of Head and Senior Staff teaching more is an important factor here. <i>(Priority 2) L2</i></p>	<p>Reduce contact ratios and teaching loads by limiting existing options and courses. L2(i)</p> <p>Set clear limits for these and lead school towards understanding that less popular courses cannot run, for the good of all. L2(ii)</p> <p>To ensure that teaching loads go down, timetable Head and Senior Staff to underpin other staff for say 2 periods a week, if possible. If not, operate a rotating principle. L2(iii)</p> <p>Encourage team teaching which, if properly prepared, can be a stimulating experience as well as a change from the inevitable drudgery of classroom teaching. L2(iv)</p>	<p>Improved staff attitudes and less exhaustion will soon be in evidence. L2s</p>
<p>Head and staff are seen as showing interest and concern for teachers carrying a heavy load. This is best done by taking a share of the work. This may lead to some neglect of administrative tasks forced upon Heads and schools and resistance to the new religion of management, with Heads sitting in offices.</p> <p>Encourage team teaching. Large teaching groups well taught in properly prepared lessons, including use of teaching aids, will soon show the benefits. L2p L2p</p> <p>Attendance/Punctuality.</p> <p>Need for improvement linked to new site policy.</p> <p><i>(Priority 3) L3</i></p>	<p>Determined attempt to reduce movement with time allowed for movement of pupils and staff (5 minutes at the end of each double period), but insistence on punctuality for lessons. L3(i)</p>	<p>If applied by 75% of staff for 75% of the time, can be regarded as reasonable success. Improved attendance and punctuality if measured against previous practices will indicate success. L3s</p>

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	<p>Staff to be out and about when pupils move. A systematic approach to this is necessary. L3(ii)</p>	
	<p>Checking of attendance registers against lesson registers with member of office staff available to chase discrepancies as soon as discovered. L3(iii)</p> <p>Reward good attendance and punctuality, e.g. certificates, or giving occasional Friday afternoon off for those with a good record. L3(iv)</p>	
<p>Here the Head's role, supported by Senior Staff, is seen to be tougher with pupils abusing the system being spotted and dealt with. Penal attitudes are usually not helpful, in fact the small core of regular offenders who pull down attendance levels are best dealt with by the Welfare Officer of the LEA rather than using school resources. L3p</p>		
<p>Introduction of new pastoral system based on individual attention outside the teaching situation.</p> <p>(Priority 4) L4</p>	<p>Each pupil to have an appointment with form tutor say once a fortnight, for an individual discussion. This can be done during assembly time – not everybody needs to be in assembly every day all the time. L4(i)</p> <p>Individual discussions will often be routine, but where there are problems, feed back to subject teachers essential. L4(ii)</p> <p>Severe problems to be referred to Year Head/Counsellor as the time for each interview will be limited. L4(iii)</p> <p>Feedback to parents essential with emphasis on positive achievement rather than problems. L4(iv)</p>	<p>Improved attitude of pupils who will soon realise that they matter as an individual and not simply as part of a group. L4s</p>
<p>Head takes part in interviewing pupils on a sample basis. He/She has his/her quota of seeing pupils individually as a matter of routine and not if there is something wrong. L4p</p>		

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Resource Allocation <i>(Priority 5) L5</i></p>	<p>Ensure that total budget is known by all teaching staff. <i>L5(i)</i> Invite departmental assessments based on clear criteria with - a) provision for special bids, b) ensure that departments that are stagnant are chased up. <i>L5(ii)</i> Monitor expenditure at end of each term. <i>L5(iii)</i></p>	
<p>The task of overseeing resource allocation could well be delegated to other senior staff. The Head's concern is with people not paper. At present there is over-emphasis in schools on budgeting and financial procedures. This needs to be less of a priority. <i>L5p</i></p> <p>"Identification of Trouble Spots" which includes: i) Problem classes or teaching groups ii) Individual pupils who are persistently troublesome.</p> <p><i>(Priority 6) L6</i></p>	<p>Ensure that ethos is not on saving money, but on spending it. <i>L5(iv)</i></p> <p>Head and Senior Staff need to go on at least 2 complete tours of the school each day to identify trouble spots. <i>L6(i)</i> Classes/groups which maintain troublesome characteristics need a change of teaching staff and/or in severe cases should be disbanded. <i>L6(ii)</i> Individual pupils who continue with challenging behaviour should be transferred for longish periods to another age group, e.g. a difficult year 10 pupil will not feel comfortable with a year 8 group or in a sixth form group. <i>L6(iii)</i> The expedient of suspension/expulsion simply shifts the burden. The possibility of swapping troublesome customers with other schools should be explored. <i>L6(iv)</i></p>	
<p>Head should take a leading part in dealing with the most troublesome pupils. There is certainly an expectation that the very presence of the Head is the last resort to authority. <i>L6p</i></p>		

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<p>Review of Curriculum and Curricular Policy <i>(Priority 7) L7</i></p>	<p>The frequency principle of teaching some subjects should be re-examined. In the upper/higher ability ranges it is certainly possible to teach in larger units which also aids educational visits and other activities. L7(i)</p> <p>The National Curriculum gets in the way of many initiatives and wherever possible should be sidestepped. L7(ii)</p> <p>The rotating principle can be observed, e.g. the teaching of certain options can alternate, not only on a weekly basis, but possibly on a termly one. L7(iii)</p> <p>Clearly examination policy needs to be matched with curriculum, but anything which motivates and lessens the boredom factor is desirable. L7(iv)</p>
<p>The encouragement of pilot schemes whereby a group of staff teaching certain subjects invite new curriculum policy, and are likely to see better progress if initiated by the Head. L7p</p>	
<p>Relations with parents, employers and other interest groups.</p> <p>Individual contact with parents is more useful than parent/teacher interview evenings at infrequent intervals. An appointments system whereby small groups of parents can talk to individual teachers about their child yields good results. This may lead to an increase of teacher contact with parents, but is well worth it.</p> <p><i>(Priority 8) L8</i></p>	<p>Individual appointments for parents with identified staff timetable throughout the year. L8(i)</p> <p>"Parents' Clinic" whereby parents have access to Head and Senior Staff is very useful. L8(ii)</p> <p>Group meetings with employers and other interest groups when a genuine sharing of concerns can run alongside the public relations policy mentioned earlier. L8(iii)</p> <p>Parents need to be told when their child does something good, not necessarily in a teaching situation (see pastoral system). L8(iv)</p>
<p>Head and Senior Staff need to give more time than anybody else, after all, they will be the most highly paid in the school. L8p</p>	

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In terms of the teaching and learning, there are pockets of good practice within the school, although within individual subjects there are areas of underachievement. Motivation of students and expectations set appear to be a problem area; lessons are often poorly organised. A bi-product of this is that there is a degree of disruption within many classes which further affects the effectiveness of the teaching. There is evidence of a bullying problem with few strategies to combat it.

Relationships between teaching colleagues are generally supportive, though they vary in quality between staff and students. Students take an interest in the school through the School Council.

Attendance figures are adversely affected by some hard core problems which need to be resolved particularly on the unauthorised absence side.

In general terms, this is a school with potential and I would recommend you apply for the Headship. **M0**

Quality of Teaching

(Priority =1) M1

Identification of ineffective staff through observation **MI(i)**

Implement informal capability when necessary leading to formal if no improvement **MI(ii)**

Organise regular observation of teaching by team leaders **MI(iii)**

Ensure INSET is available for staff who need it **MI(iv)**

Staff identified meet targets and improve **MI(ii)s**

Increased awareness of responsibility of team leaders for quality of teaching **MI(iii)s**

Booking of INSET providers **MI(iv)s**

In general terms, ensure that staff understand that quality of teaching is of paramount importance. **M1p**

Learning

(Priority =1) M2

Organise work ethic evening for Years 7/8/9 **M2(i)**

Organise examinations clinic for Years 10/11/12/13 **M2(ii)**

Ensure work approaches have high priority on personal development programmes **M2(iii)**

Write newsletter to parents regarding work approaches **M2(iv)**

Attendance at evening **M2(i)s**

Attendance at evening **M2(ii)s**

Quality of Schemes of Work for personal development **M2(iii)s**

Response from parents **M2(iv)s**

Emphasise to students that work approaches are vital to success through assemblies etc. **M2p**

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Behaviour/Discipline <i>(Priority =1) M3</i>	Further work on consistent approaches from staff M3(i) Identification of most difficult discipline cases – follow exclusion procedures M3(ii) Implement Pastoral Support Plans for approved cases M3(iii) Staff INSET – behaviour modification – Bill Rogers M3(iv)	Visual evidence of improved behaviour around school M3(i)s Exclusion of persistent trouble makers M3(ii)s Improvement in behaviour from identified students M3(iii)s - - -
(1) Be visible around school – send message that discipline is important issue. (2) Zero tolerance of serious disruptive behaviour. M3p		
Attendance <i>(Priority 4) M4</i>	Tackle hard core problems – use of EWO M4(i) Phone call from school on first morning of absence M4(ii) Increase activity of tutors regarding attendance M4(iii) Special newsletter to parents outlining expectations M4(iv)	Successful return of non-attenders M4(i)s Number of phone calls required reducing M4(ii)s Reduction in authorised absence M4(iii)s - - -
Work with Heads of Year Pastoral Deputy Administration Staff }	} to ensure 1 – 4 happens. } Also speak personally to } students in each Year Group. M4p	
Curriculum <i>(Priority 5) M5</i>	Ensure high quality discussion through HoDs regarding curriculum development M5(i) Conduct review of current curriculum M5(ii) Look at disapplication (work related learning) possibilities M5(iii) Ensure all Schemes of Work/Lesson Planning is of high standard M5(iv)	Minutes of HoDs meeting M5(i)s Through HoDs M5(ii)s Introduction of Work Related Learning M5(iii)s Improved documentation M5(iv)s
Ensure that curriculum organisation is seen as high quality. M5p		
Financial Control – Look for savings on staffing ★ classroom resources <i>(Priority 6) M6</i>	Review budget of school – look for savings M6(i) Review staffing and grouping arrangements M6(ii)	General – Better allocation of resources to bring about curriculum improvement M6s

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	Re-direct resources gained into classroom resources in identified areas M6(iii)	
Work with Business Manager and Finance Sub-Committee. M6p		

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<p>Dear ...</p>	<p>I'd go for this job! It offers the enviable opportunity for a young ambitious headteacher to transform a satisfactorily performing school – currently 'coasting' along – into a really excellent one.</p> <p>The OFSTED Inspection Report has conveniently revealed the basic reasons for the school's current state and I think all of these are eminently addressable. Through a number of fairly straight forward short-term and medium-term actions you should be able to bring about a significant improvement in pupil performance. I've listed the 8 areas (based on the OFSTED Report) which I'd personally include in my Action Plan for the first 3 years of headship, if that is any help to you. <i>N0</i></p>	<p>Strategic Planning</p> <p>(Priority 1) <i>N1</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All staff and governors feel involved. • All staff and governors understand where the school is, where it is going, how it is going to get there and when it will get there. • All staff and governors understand their role and responsibilities in implementing the plan successfully. <i>N1s</i>
<p>The head has a key leadership and management role in all of this. <i>N1p</i></p>	<p>Fairly obvious! <i>N2s</i></p>	
<p>The Basics</p> <p>(Priority 2) <i>N2</i></p>	<p>Improve attendance. <i>N2(i)</i></p> <p>Remove lateness. <i>N2(ii)</i></p> <p>Address homework shortcomings. <i>N2(iii)</i></p> <p>Improve behaviour in the classroom. <i>N2(iv)</i></p>	
<p>The head will need to support those responsible and personally remove the need for pupils to move between sites. <i>N2p</i></p> <p>Curriculum Policy</p> <p>(Priority 3) <i>N3</i></p>	<p>Instigate a full-scale Curriculum Review. <i>N3(i)</i></p> <p>Make KS 3 a major element. <i>N3(ii)</i></p> <p>Make Boys progress and improvement of performance another major element. <i>N3(iii)</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A Curriculum Development Plan understood by all. • KS 3 improvements in pupil performance. • A more 'boy friendly' curriculum especially in KS 4. • Improvements in pupil motivation, interest and performance. <i>N3s</i>
<p>This is a task for the Curriculum Deputy. It will probably run alongside the Strategic Planning exercise as there will be common features. <i>N3p</i></p>		

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<p>Leadership and Management (Priority 4) N4</p>	<p>Define the roles and responsibilities of the Headship Team (SMT). N4(i) Bring the Headship Team together once a week. N4(ii) Determine the job roles (especially generic) of middle managers. N4(iii) Provide Training and Development opportunities for all managers. N4(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A better and more smoothly run organisation. • More effective management throughout the school. • An end to 'failings' in day-to-day routine matters. N4s
<p>Head has a key role in (i) and (ii) and will support the Staff Development Director (SMT member) in (iii) and (iv). N4p</p>	<p>Teaching Methodology (Priority 5) N5</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved teaching standards. • Reduction in classroom disruption. • Improved pupil performances. N5s
<p>This is central to longer term improvement. Head needs to be seen as making this a priority for the school (in Development Plan and on the ground). N5p</p>	<p>Whole School Policies (especially 'Assessment' to include Monitoring, Review, Target Setting etc. and Reporting). (Priority 6) N6</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adoption of good practice, existing in isolated areas, by all. • Improved staff and pupil understanding • Raising of standards of pupil performance. N6s
<p>Key role in (i) and supportive role in remainder. N6p</p>	<p>Accommodation (Priority 7) N7</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved management of learning. • Raising of standards of pupil performance. N7s
<p>Job of a Deputy. N7p</p>	<p>Technology (Priority 8) N8</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved management of learning. • Raising of standards of pupil performance. N7s
<p>A key task for the Head working with the Curriculum Deputy. N8p</p>	<p>Full scale review of this 'failing' area. N8(i) Action Plan for improvement. N8(ii) Make staff changes if possible. N8(iii)</p>	<p>Improvement! N8s</p>

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This is a good school with potential for much improvement which could be achieved quickly in 2-3 years. Much clearer leadership and vision is needed to move the school forward to becoming an improving school. The use of data about the school is presently limited both with regards performance and the deployment of staff effectively. The present use of the accommodation needs to be reviewed and used much more effectively. There are some key staffing issues in the Technology area of the school where there are a number of weak teachers. There needs to be a full curriculum review and the present timetabler needs to be given a much clearer/tighter framework in which to operate. The whole split site issue needs to be addressed as soon as possible. There are issues within PSE/SMSC that need addressing fairly urgently. Assessment/homework are in need of tightening up to achieve a school wide level of consistency.

Overall there is lots to do, but as a challenge I believe it is a Headship worth striving for as the potential is there to make major positive changes quickly. **O0 O0**

<p>Change school day a) To meet DFEE expectation. b) To eliminate punctuality problems arising from the split site. (Priority =1) O1</p>	<p>Raise issue through senior/middle management meetings. Invite ideas/suggestions regarding day length/lesson length. O1(i) Identify best fit for school with split site, e.g. building in 5 minute "gap" time between lessons for movement. O1(ii) Implement after appropriate consultation with Parents/LEA at the start of the next academic year. O1(iii) Monitor/Evaluate values of new system. O1(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved pupil punctuality. • Improved exam results through effective use of time within the week.. • Improved staff morale through lessons having punctual start. O1s
<p>Effective use of accommodation across the split site. (Priority =1) O2</p>	<p>Audit Present Accommodation. O2(i) Draw up appropriate and efficient rooming plans including costings. O2(ii) Consult with HoDs (Governors and gain money as necessary). O2(iii) Implement plan with help from LEA/DFEE if appropriate. O2(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased levels of departmental collaboration. • Improved levels of exam performance will take a minimum of 2 years to see at both GCSE and A Level. • Increased departmental morale. O2(i)s
<p>Find supplementary sources of funding to present redecoration/minor building work. O2p</p>		

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<p>Improve timetable/curricular arrangements. <i>(Priority 3) O3</i></p>	<p>Review present arrangements i.e. the recommended DFEE guidelines. Review Timetable team. O3(i) Agree parameters for group sizes, setting arrangements that are equitable to all departments. O3(ii) Change timetable team if necessary. Look at ICT option for timetabling. Implement new curriculum. O3(iii) Monitor closely through summer term that the new arrangements are working. O3(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Timetable analysis reveals effective deployment of all teaching staff including senior managers. • High levels of pupil/student satisfaction lead to improved exam results. • Absence of large group 35+ or very small group 5- within the timetable. O3s
<p>Develop use of Value Added and Target Setting. <i>(Priority 4) O4</i></p>	<p>Audit what happens presently. Investigate possible external agency involvement e.g. NFER/University of Durham. O4(i) Consult with Senior and Middle Managers on best way forward. Inform Governors on decision e.g. MIDYIS, YELLIS, ALIS stable of tests. O4(ii) Improvement programme with appropriate Senior manager at helm. O4(iii) Evaluate annually on positive benefits. O4(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased Exam performance at GCSE, A level and SATS (KS3). • Higher levels of motivation and aspiration of students. • Increased morale of staff. O4s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide INSET through whole school training day using a trainer who is an enthusiastic user of the scheme, to get the message across to all staff of the value of Value Added analysis. • Apply pressure – subtle or direct on departmental HoDs who are not showing value added. O4p <p>Eliminate poor behaviour in lessons. <i>(Priority 5) O5</i></p>	<p>Ascertain the level of the problem. Establish a task group to look at “Positive Discipline”. O5(i) Take proposals from Task Group to School Council for support and Governors. O5(ii) Implement proposals e.g. establish a “referral room”. O5(iii) Monitor/Evaluate outcomes of development on a half termly basis to gauge trends. O5(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreasing number of pupils sent to referral. • Improved behaviour leads to high levels of exam performance. O5s

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<p>Raising the performance of the most able pupils. (Priority 6) O6</p>	<p>Establish a task group of interested members. Appoint a co-ordinator of the group. O6(i) Encourage innovative ways to raise levels of attainment through programme of activities. O6(ii) Initiate activities. O6(iii) Monitor and evaluate programme. Reward co-ordinator? O6(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most able pupils became more pro school. • Most able pupils gain increased percentage of A or A* grades. • Increased percentage of students go on to University post 18. O6s
<p>Support events in person, award prizes, make high profile. O6p</p>		
<p>Improve teaching in Design and Technology (Hard). (Priority 7) O7</p>	<p>Mini ofsted the Design and Technology area to identify good/weak practice. O7(i) Celebrate good practice, embark on competency procedures where substantial weak teaching is found. O7(ii) Weed out weak teaching and replace with better quality members of staff. O7(iii) Monitor and evaluate improving departmental performance. O7(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No unsatisfactory teaching in Design and Technology. • 50% of teaching in Design and Technology is rated Good, Very Good or Excellent. • Improved exam results after 2/3 years. O7s
<p>In staff meeting Head can show poor standards of teaching will not be tolerated. O7p</p>		

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<p>I'm glad you're thinking of applying for the headship of Baker School. It's a place that is ready for a change of leadership and where there's real room for improvement.</p> <p>Basically, they have a good staff who work together well and enjoy good relationships with one another. But, and it's a big but, they have low expectations of the pupils – especially the boys.</p> <p>Most admin systems are in place and there's good support for teachers but things like attendance, punctuality, planning, homework, marking are very sloppy. It needs someone like you to set some standards and to insist that things are done properly. Behaviour also needs sorting out, though this lends to be bad in the poorest lessons. Also, greater emphasis needs to be placed on stretching the most able. It's not an usual pattern when a new head is required.</p>	
<p>You could do the job; go for it! P0</p>	<p>Posted in all rooms P1(i)s</p>
<p>Behaviour</p> <p>(Priority 1) Order not important – all need tackling at once! P1</p>	<p>Clear expectations posted in all rooms, highlighted in assemblies and tutor times and made known to parents. P1(i)</p> <p>Lessons more varied and interesting. Establish positive discipline processes. P1(ii)</p> <p>Greater involvement of HoDs in establishing discipline in subject areas. P1(iii)</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on tasks (to learn) and relationships rather than sanctions. • Reduce (temporary) exclusions but still deal firmly with miscreant. • Record observations of good/bad behaviour on daily visits around school. P1p 	<p>Fewer referrals to pastoral staff and SMT P1(iii)s</p>
<p>Attendance and punctuality</p> <p>(Priority 2) P2</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall: Attendance reaches 93% overall • All absences checked by secretarial staff by 10.30 daily • All lesson absences checked within 15 minutes of start • Evening/lunchtime detentions set up P2s
<p>Encouragement. Letter writing. Doing 'fair share' of detentions. Cut down term time holidays. P2p</p> <p>Raising expectations</p> <p>(Priority =3) P3</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 100% lessons start on time • 100% lessons properly planned

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	Counselling with student and parent via academic reviews. P3(iii)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HoDs to see plans weekly • Annual targets set for all pupils • ½ termly reviews • Termly short reports to parents • Annual academic review day P3s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Daily visits to lessons – on cycle – if head unavailable deputy head to do some. • Checking that HoDs are insisting on properly planned lessons • Check that targets are sufficiently challenging • Presence at review days. P3p 		
<p>Stretching most able (Priority =3) P4</p>	<p>Identify most able and indicate potential to staff and to the pupils. P4(i)</p> <p>Set challenging targets P4(ii)</p> <p>Celebrate success and mentor most able. P4(iii)</p> <p>Appoint someone with 'most able have needs' responsibility for 1 year P4(iv)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 100% increase in A* and A grades • 50% increase in B and C grades. P4s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Celebrating success 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussions with HoDs where progress amongst most able is not good enough P4p <p>Marking and assessment (Priority 4) P5</p>	<p>Set up common system throughout school – marking, assessment, feedback. P5(i)</p> <p>Set up central database with regular feedback to teachers P5(ii)</p> <p>Quality standard – all work marked (within 3 periods) P5(iii)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 95% pupils work marked within 3 periods of production • Common assessment system followed by <u>all</u> staff in <u>all</u> subjects • Pupils aware of value of feedback P5s
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deputy head to set up. May need headteacher support. • Get own marking done very promptly. P5p 		

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<p>If you are looking for a challenge then I think this would be a good job to go for. It seems to me that there is certainly a job to be done while, at the same time, the situation is not so dire as to be demoralising.</p> <p>The departments vary, and some are quite strong but the curriculum as a whole lacks coherence and a clear overall vision.</p> <p>There are some significant issues such as the behaviour of boys versus girls (although in one particular year group, some of the girls look tricky!). This, in time, seems to lie in with achievement and there is a definite gender issue there.</p>	
<p>There is a need for clear leadership, so a good opening for someone with your qualities. Q0</p>	
<p>Organisation and Systems:- (a) Administration (b) School Development Planning (c) Monitoring and Evaluation. Q1</p>	<p>Audit existing processes Q1(i)</p> <p>Plan improvements and implement them Q1(ii)</p> <p>Monitor Q1(iii)</p>
<p>Teaching and Learning in Years 7-11 Q2</p>	<p>Monitor/observe good practice in strong departments/areas (e.g. 6th Form) Q2(i)</p> <p>Link departments/areas to facilitate sharing of good practice. Q2(ii)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mutual observation and sharing occurs. • Teaching and Learning improves in all areas. Q2(ii)s
<p>Achievement (especially boys) Q3</p>	<p>Analyse exam results over time and especially regarding gender Q3(i)</p> <p>Feed the findings into the work of the Curriculum Coherence group and the Behaviour Management group Q3(ii)</p> <p>Monitor outcomes Q3(iii)</p>
<p>Behaviour Management and development of Self Discipline Q4</p>	<p>Audit current provision for PSE and behaviour education. Q4(i)</p> <p>Introduce plans for improved PSE and behaviour education. Q4(ii)</p> <p>Introduce Target Setting (linking curriculum with behaviour) Q4(iii)</p>
	<p>Report(s) produced for Head/Governors Q1(i)s</p> <p>Implementation Q1(ii)s</p> <p>Perceptions of improvement, and leading eventually to improved outcomes Q1(iii)s</p> <p>Introduction of observation programme. Q2(i)s</p> <p>Improved achievement (especially boys). Q3(iii)s</p> <p>Completion and presentation of report to Head/Governors Q4(i)s</p> <p>Implementation, then reduced need for sanctions (imposed discipline) Q4(ii)s</p> <p>Target Setting introduced; pupil motivation improves. Q4(iii)s</p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

Curriculum Coherence Q5	Curriculum audit Q5(i)	Completion, and presentation of report to Head/Governors Q5(i)s
	Curriculum review – analysis of audit findings Q5(ii)	Completion and production of recommendations Q5(ii)s
	Implementation of changes Q5(iii)	Phased implementation. Q5(iii)s
	Monitor outcomes Q5(iv)	Monitor pupil satisfaction (e.g. option choices) and exam results over time. Q5(iv)s

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>A large school with considerable underachievement. Relationships should be considered carefully and the quality of communication between SMT and the staff room. Pupil discipline seems to be poor with a high number of exclusions. Some poor teaching in certain areas and the lack of strong subject leadership will need to be addressed.</p> <p>Subject concerns include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Why the poor performance in English at KS4 & 5 after good performance at KS3 • Quality of teaching and leadership in Design and Technology • Need for improved liaison with primary schools to look at levels of numeracy <p>Problems compounded, particularly that of communication, by having a joint site school. Budget appears to be sound, but need to increase expenditure on educational resources. R0</p>	
<p>School Development Plan <i>(Priority 1) R1</i></p>	<p>Revisit aims of the school R1(i)</p> <p>A coherent and forward looking SDP "owned" by all the various constituents in the school. R1s</p>
<p>Quality of teaching <i>(Priority 2) R2</i></p>	<p>Specialist teachers R2(i)</p> <p>Identify characteristics of good teaching which are "owned" by all teachers R2(ii)</p> <p>Shared lesson observations R2(iii)</p> <p>Focused INSET R2(iv)</p> <p>Rise in number of lessons deemed sound or better. R2s</p>
<p>Structured programme of lesson observations. R2p</p>	
<p>Pupil Behaviour <i>(Priority 3) R3</i></p>	<p>Review Code of Conduct R3(i)</p> <p>"Sell it" to students, teachers and parents R3(ii)</p> <p>Drop in fixed period exclusions R3s</p>
<p>Setting an example in the way he/she speaks to colleagues/pupils R3p</p>	
<p>Target Setting <i>(Priority =4) R4</i></p>	<p>Identification of Prior Attainment scores R4(i)</p> <p>Target Setting at a whole school level for KS3/4/5 R4(ii)</p> <p>Target setting for individual subjects. R4(iii)</p> <p>Improved performance at KS3 SATS KS4 GCSEs KS5 A/AS R4s</p>
<p>Performance of Boys <i>(Priority =4) R5</i></p>	<p>Increased 'boy' friendly teaching material R5(i)</p> <p>Single sex teaching R5(ii)</p> <p>Increased 5+ A*-C Increased 1+ A*-G R5s</p>

Appendix Two: Subjects' Responses

<p>Assessment, Recording and Reporting (Priority 5) R6</p>	<p>Improve formative assessment by clear school guidelines in a consistently applied school marking policy R6(i)</p>	<p>Constructive, and appreciated by parents and students, reports sent home R6s</p>
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