AN EXPLORATION, USING A SENCO QUESTIONNAIRE AND A SENIOR MANAGEMENT SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE, OF THE CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (CPD) ARRANGEMENTS IN PLACE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN ONE LOCAL AUTHORITY CLUSTER

By

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ABSTRACT

This thesis describes a practitioner led exploration carried out in two phases:

Phase 1. A scoping (Delphi) study that explored the school-based provision in place to meet the needs of pupils experiencing special educational needs, the outcome of which guided the choice of focus of the second phase. The scoping (Delphi) study findings highlighted the importance of continuing professional development (CPD) suggesting that it will have an increasingly significant role to play in preparing schools for a future in which they will become increasingly responsible for identifying, assessing, meeting, monitoring and reviewing the needs of their pupils.

Phase 2. An exploration (using a SENCo questionnaire and a senior management semi-structured interview schedule) of the CPD arrangements in place in primary schools in one local authority cluster.

The thesis describes, in as much detail as the available resources and goodwill allowed, the CPD practices that existed within one local authority cluster and compares these with best CPD practices as described in the literature.
In addition to presenting a summary of best CPD practices, conclusions are drawn, and recommendations made, regarding: actions that schools in the sample cluster might wish to take to improve the efficacy of their CPD practices, actions that I can take to improve the efficacy of my own CPD practices, and actions that I can take to inform the CPD practices of those organisations, agencies and professionals with or for whom I work.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Paul Timmins, for his generous time and assistance throughout the course of this study. Thank you also to Dr. Nigel Harris for proof reading the final draft. Finally, a big thank you to Alison, Hannah and Tom for their infinite patience.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Chapter overview

The purpose of this chapter is to:

- summarise how the focus of the title of my research evolved i.e. from the preliminary, phase one, working title to the final, phase two, working title;
- describe the purpose of the research;
- put forward the argument for considering it an area worthy of further investigation;
- indicate the ways in which it will make an original contribution to knowledge and practice;
- explain the relevance of the research to EP practice; and
- provide an overview of the study by providing a brief note on the contents of each chapter.

1.2 Evolution of the title

The research was conducted in two phases, the scoping phase (phase one) and a more focused and in-depth study (phase two). Phase one comprised an initial review of the literature (Chapter 2) and a Delphi study (Chapter 3) that were conducted in parallel. The phase one literature review had several purposes (Chapter 2 Section 2), including exploration of a broad range of issues (Table
2.1) pertinent to the investigation of factors affecting provision for pupils experiencing SENs. The purpose of the phase one scoping (Delphi) component was, against the backdrop of current thinking and a rapidly changing educational landscape, to explore the nature and efficacy of the school-based provision in place to meet the needs of youngsters experiencing special educational needs. To this end the preliminary working title of the first phase of the study was:

“An exploration of the efficacy of the school-based provision in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster, to ensure that the needs of pupils experiencing special educational needs are met.”

Consideration of the findings obtained from the phase one literature review (Chapter 2) and the outcome of the phase one Delphi study (Chapter 3) led to a refining of the focus of the research and the formulation of the following, revised title, which formed the focus of the second phase of the study:

“An exploration, using a SENCo questionnaire and a senior management semi-structured interview schedule, of the continuing professional development (CPD) arrangements in place in primary schools in one local authority cluster.”
Whilst accepting the importance of effective CPD arrangements for support staff (OfSTED, 2006), the resources and goodwill available necessitated restriction of the research to teaching staff.

Chapter 5 Section 5.5.4 explains the rationale for using the descriptor “exploration” in the title.

1.3 Purpose of the research

The purpose of the second phase of the research was:

- to describe (in as much detail as the available resources and goodwill allowed) existing CPD practices within the cluster and to compare these with the best CPD practices described in the literature;
- to provide the cluster of primary schools in which the research was conducted with the information necessary to evaluate their CPD practices against the best practices described in the literature and, should they wish, to formulate questions about how these practices might be improved;
- to enable me to compare my own CPD practices with the best practice described in the literature; and
- to enable me to encourage other school communities, professionals and organisations with which, and for whom, I work to evaluate their CPD practices against the best practices described in the literature and to ask germane questions about how these might be improved.
1.4 Justification for the research

The relationship between local authorities and schools is changing. The fundamental premise governing this new relationship is that schools (with the exception of some essential functions which, it is deemed, cannot be discharged by individual schools) should manage themselves. Put succinctly, authorities should only intervene in the management of a school in inverse proportion to the school’s success (DfES, 2004b).

Also, with specific reference to special educational needs, Government is encouraging local authorities to consider, formulate and implement strategies for reducing reliance on statements of special educational needs (statements). The report “Reducing Reliance on Statements: An investigation into local authority practice and outcomes” (DfES, 2004a) sets out the findings of a research project which was commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills in response to the following commitment made in the Cabinet Officer Paper “Making a Difference: Reducing Red Tape and Bureaucracy in Schools” (2003):

DfES will undertake an investigation of the reasons behind the wide variation between LEAs in the proportion of pupils with statements. This exercise will aim to reveal how effective partnerships between schools, LEAs, parents and children have been successful in reducing their reliance on statements and thereby reducing the associated paper and workload. (Cited by DfES, 2004a, p.3)
This followed earlier reports, by the Audit Commission (2002a) and OfSTED (2002), which raised concerns about how well statements were working:

Statutory assessment is a costly and bureaucratic process, which many parents find stressful and alienating. Statements often provide little assurance to parents, lead to an inequitable distribution of resources and may provide resources to schools in a way that fails to support inclusive practice. (Statutory Assessment and Statements of SEN: In need of review? Audit Commission, June 2002) (cited by DfES, 2004a, p.3)

The statutory duties to write, maintain and monitor a statement of SEN remain key roles for an LEA. The system can be unwieldy, bureaucratic, time-consuming and costly. It can promote poor relationships between LEA and their stakeholders, including parents. At its worst, compliance with statutory duties may come to be seen as constituting the entire role, thus hampering the design of an appropriate continuum of provision. Even in the better LEAs, planning for inclusion consists to an uncomfortable extent of exploring the room for manoeuvre around the statutory duties. (OfSTED, July 2002; cited by DfES, 2004a, p.3)

It is within this context (of increased autonomy for schools and the requirement to reduce reliance on statements) that LEAs are delegating an increasing proportion of those funds previously held back to enable them to provide specific services to schools. A consequence of these developments is that schools are becoming increasingly responsible for identifying, assessing, meeting, monitoring and reviewing the needs of youngsters experiencing special educational needs.

The indication, gleaned from the phase one literature review (Chapter 2), is that, when considered in the context of what was in place beforehand, much progress has been made in providing for children with SEN and disabilities.
However, there is also agreement between government publications and the academic literature that: there are major weaknesses and shortfalls in the present system, schools are struggling to fulfil many of the obligations placed upon them, and action is needed.

Furthermore, over the last few years, the DfES Innovations Unit has been exploring the notion of Personalised Learning: a strategy for ensuring that, over time, every pupil experiences success, all pupils are engaged and excited by learning, every pupil will have high aspirations for her/his work, every pupil feels supported in making progress, all pupils know that they are valued, and parents know that their child is valued (Rudduck, Brown and Hendy, 2006).

Paradoxically, however, the onus for the implementation and success of this initiative will remain largely with individual schools – the very organisations that, the literature suggests (OfSTED, 2004) (Chapter 2 Section 2.5), are struggling with implementing elements that are key to the success of the present system and will be key to the success of the Personalised Learning agenda.

The preliminary working title reflected the researcher’s initial notion that exploration of the school-based processes in place to meet the needs of pupils experiencing special educational needs (i.e. those required by the existing
statutory framework within which schools are required to work) would prove a fruitful line of enquiry. However, the phase one review of the literature (Chapter 2) and the phase one Delphi study (Chapter 3) identified a number of other areas worthy of further exploration and, following comparison and discussion of the contents of the initial literature review and the findings of the phase one Delphi study, the decision was made to focus upon the efficacy of the continuing professional development arrangements in place to enable staff to meet the needs of all pupils. The rationale underpinning this was the conclusion that (fuelled by the inclusion agenda and the requirement to explore, learn about, master and implement new ways of working e.g. Personalised Learning) CPD will have a significant role to play in preparing schools for a future in which they will become increasingly responsible for identifying, assessing, meeting, monitoring and reviewing the needs of all their youngsters.

Also, since starting this research, the Government (DCSF, 2009) has signalled its intention to introduce a renewable licence to teach. The indications are that, to hold a licence, teachers will be required to demonstrate that their skills are up-to-date and that their practice continues to meet the standards required for the profession.
1.5 Contribution to knowledge and practice

It is anticipated that my research will contribute to existing knowledge and practice by:

- offering an insight into the CPD practices of a cluster of schools from the rarely published perspective of a cluster’s own, visiting EP; and
- describing the processes and exploratory instruments developed, by one EP, to provide the information necessary for the cluster of schools with which he worked:
  - to consider critically their CPD practices in a new light; and
  - to ask germane questions about how these might be improved.

1.6 Overview of the study

The study comprises eight chapters, including this one:

Chapter 2 (Phase One (scoping) Literature Review) describes the initial, first phase, review of the literature, the outcome of which, together with the findings of the phase one Delphi (scoping) study (Chapter 3), informed the focus of phase two of the research.

Chapter 3 (Phase One Delphi (scoping) Study – Exploring Current Thinking) describes the first phase scoping (Delphi) study, the findings of which, together with the outcome of the first phase literature review (Chapter 2), informed the focus of phase two of the research.
Chapter 4 (Phase 2 Literature Review) describes the more focused and thorough phase two literature review, against which the CPD practices of the schools in the sample were discussed and compared (Chapter 7).

Chapter 5 (Research Design) considers and describes the thinking that underpins the selection of the methodology and methods employed in the second phase of the research.

Chapter 6 (Results) sets out the results and findings of the second phase of the research.

Chapter 7 (Discussion) evaluates the practice of the schools in the sample (as identified through the collection of artefacts, the SENCo questionnaire and semi-structured interviews) by comparing and contrasting it with the practices described in the literature review (Chapter 4).

Chapter 8 (Conclusions) considers the implications of the evaluation of CPD practices for the schools in the study and for EP practice, and makes recommendations regarding both. The chapter also considers the extent to which the findings might reasonably be generalized to other settings.
CHAPTER 2

PHASE ONE (SCOPI NG) LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter overview

This chapter explores the literature relating to the processes in place, in schools, to meet the needs of children experiencing SEN. It is organised according to headings listed in the Contents.

2.2 Purpose of the phase one literature review

The phase one literature review was conducted in parallel with the phase one scoping (Delphi) study. Its purpose (Chapter 3 Section 3.2) was:

- to consider a broad range of literature pertinent to the exploration of factors affecting the school-based provision for pupils experiencing SENs;
- to enable the triangulation (Chapter 5 Section 5.6.3(i)) of data from a range of sources. By this I mean the identification of consistencies and inconsistencies between the contents of the phase one literature review (i.e. official (government) reports, the views of voluntary organisations, the academic literature) and the findings obtained from analysis of the responses obtained from administration of the Delphi; and


when considered alongside the findings of the phase one scoping (Delphi) study (Chapter 3) to inform the focus and formulation of the research questions that needed to be asked in order to explore, in greater depth, the efficacy of the school-based provision made to meet the needs of pupils experiencing SEN.

2.3 The process of the literature search

Figure 2.1 outlines the electronic databases searched, together with the key words and phrases used.

**Figure 2.1: Search strategy for electronic databases**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dates of searches</th>
<th>Search method</th>
<th>Key words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| All database searches were conducted during the period 2006 to 2008. | - British Education Index  
- EBSCO  
- The Education Resources Information Center | - (Keywords: special) and (Keywords: educational) and (Keywords: needs)  
- (Keywords: learning) and (Keywords: difficulties) and (Keywords: disabilities)  
- (Keywords: individual) and (Keywords: education) and (Keywords: plans)  
- (Keywords: inclusion)  
- (Keywords: integration)  
- (Keywords: personalised) and (Keywords: learning) |
2.4 Current requirements and practice

This section describes the current statutory framework within which authorities and schools are required to work. It also explores how authorities have adapted their practice in the light of such subsequent developments as the Cabinet Office commitment to reduce red tape and bureaucracy in schools (Cabinet Office/DFES March 2003) and Audit Commission (2002a) and OfSTED (2002) concern over how well statements were working.

The Education Act 1996 Part IV sections 312-349 and Schedules 26 and 27, as amended, sets out the main law on SEN. The main aspects of Part 4 are:

- a separate Code of Practice giving detailed practical guidance to school and local education authorities (LEAs) on how to identify, assess, record, meet and review SEN;
- a normal limit of 26 weeks to complete the legal process for identifying and assessing special needs;
- parents of children with statements are able to say which maintained school they prefer their child to attend and the LEA must agree – subject to certain conditions;
- the maintained school named on the child’s statement of SEN must accept that child;
- specific procedures for reviewing statements;
- the parental right of appeal to an independent Special Educational Needs Tribunal; and
• duties on schools to draw up, publish and report on their SEN Policy.

Furthermore, LEAs have a duty to identify, assess and provide for children requiring statements of special educational needs. This duty covers children from the age of two – and before that, if a child is identified by his or her parents, the child health services or social services as having special needs.

A core feature of the implementation of the Act, at school level, is the Individual Education Plan (IEP). The centrality of the IEP to the government’s strategy for meeting the needs of youngsters experiencing SEN was emphasised by its continued inclusion in the revised Special Educational Needs Code of Practice (DfES, 2001a).

During the early 2000s two issues came together to encourage central and local government to take stock of existing practice and consider how they could bring about a reduction in the system’s reliance on statements.

The first of these issues related to increasing concern over how well statements were working. In this regard the Audit Commission (June 2002a) had indicated that, in their view, statutory assessment was a costly and bureaucratic process which many parents found stressful and alienating. The Audit Commission’s views were followed by an OfSTED (2002) publication that described the system as unwieldy, bureaucratic, time-consuming and
costly. Furthermore, both reports concluded, the statutory framework often failed to support inclusive practice.

The second of these issues related to a Cabinet Office (DfES/Cabinet Office, 2003) commitment to reduce red tape and bureaucracy in schools.

The foregoing concerns led to the commissioning of a report (DfES, 2004), the content of which is considered in Chapter 2 Section 2.5 of this dissertation.

With specific reference to the Authority in which my research took place, the guidance for parents and schools entitled “Information on the Delegation of SEN Funding” (2005) (this reference subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 1)\(^1\) is reflective of the changes taking place nationally. Its main points may be summarised as follows:

- there will be fewer statements as delegated funding will be allocated according to a CRISP (Criteria for Special Provision) based audit, not statements. Most children with current statements in mainstream will fall within the bands to be delegated;

- meeting the needs of “non-statemented” pupils recorded on the CRISP audit will be the clear responsibility of schools. How the schools

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\(^1\) At the end of this thesis is a Confidential Appendix containing information that is subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. It is provided to assist the examiners. Following examination it will be removed and retained by me in a secure location. Researchers interested in verifying those aspects of my research that are subject to this ethical restriction are welcome to make contact with me to discuss the extent of disclosure that would be appropriate.
identify, assess, make provision for and record will be up to them (though the Local Authority may offer help);

- delegated money will be recorded on the school’s budgets, but will not be “ring-fenced” to provide for the needs of “audited” pupils; and
- parents retain all rights to ask for a statement. Delegation does not affect such rights.

2.5 The overall strategy for meeting the needs of pupils with SEN

During the spring of 2001 the Audit Commission\(^2\) embarked upon a research project designed to gather information about the provision made for pupils with SENs. Using an approach which enabled the triangulation of evidence garnered from a comprehensive range of sources, the project utilised a number of methods, including:

- in-depth research in five Local Education Authorities in England and Wales – including interviews with LEA officers; visits to schools and early years settings; interviews with headteachers, SENCos and governors; a review of 100 case files of children with statements and structured discussions with small groups of parents, focusing on their experience of the statutory assessment process;

- short visits to a number of other areas, for example to investigate “good practice”;

\(^2\) The Audit Commission is an independent body that provides information on the quality of public services and is responsible for ensuring that public money is spent economically, efficiently and effectively.
- a survey of 50% of LEAs in England and Wales;
- an electronic survey of parent-partnership co-ordinators;
- analyses of national data gathered by the DfES, Welsh Assembly Government and others;
- OFSTED and Audit Commission inspection; and
- a review of academic literature.

The Audit Commission’s findings (Audit Commission, 2002), may be summarised as follows:

- despite the significant numbers involved, children with SENs have remained a low profile group;
- early intervention can make a difference but it has yet to become the norm;
- parents of children with SEN often have difficulty with school admissions;
- schools need to increase their accessibility in their broadest terms. Children with SEN are sometimes excluded from certain lessons, extra-curricular activities and social opportunities – and they are much more likely to be excluded;
- schools, LEAs and Government should work together to develop the confidence and skills of staff to respond to the wide range of children’s needs in classrooms today;
schools have struggled to balance pressures to raise standards of attainment and become more inclusive. As national targets and performance tables fail to reflect the achievements of many children with SEN, inclusive schools may appear to perform badly. The Report recognises the importance of recognising a school’s commitment to helping children with SEN to achieve and the need to provide a more meaningful basis for monitoring a school’s work on SEN; and

- little is known about how well children with SEN achieve in school. The lack of systematic monitoring by schools and LEAs makes it difficult to recognise good practice – or to challenge poor. The Report recognises the need to hold schools to account for their work on SEN (by raising its profile in school inspections, for example).

The report concludes by putting forward thirteen proposals on which comment was invited. The Audit Commission received replies from some 353 respondents. Of these, parents of children with SENs (predominantly children with a statement of SEN) represented approximately a third of respondents whilst LEA officers represented just under a quarter of the total. The most commonly represented of the groups providing the rest of the data were voluntary organisations, SENCOs and EPs.

An analysis of the responses to the Audit Commission’s proposals was carried out by Peacey et al. (2002) and published under the auspices of the Institute of Education (University of London). Although the publication itself does not
make the provenance of the work clear, a request to the lead author for clarification (Appendix 1.ii) resulted in the following response:

The work was funded by the Audit Commission. Julie Dockrell and I, with Ingrid Lunt, had done the literature review for the work that wound up as ‘SEN: A Mainstream Issue’ and they asked us if we would do this little bit of additional analysis for them” (Personal communication dated 16th April 2007).

Obtaining this information was necessary because it adds to the transparency of the research and informs judgements regarding the objectivity and reliability of the findings. In this instance the information indicates that the Audit Commission had commissioned members of a highly regarded academic institution to conduct additional analysis on its behalf.

The analysis carried out by Peacey et al. highlights:

- the tension between developing an inclusive education system that is mainly managed by school (and uses resources within the school) and meeting the needs of individuals (particularly those with low incidence problems); and

- significant concerns over a perceived lack of appropriate knowledge and training, throughout the school sector, for meeting individual needs.
In these respects the issues that preoccupied the majority of respondents related to:

- issues of power to ensure that children’s needs are met;
- accountability in terms of meeting objectives;
- funding; and
- the nature of the monitoring required to ensure equity of provision, support and assessment.

The report of the Audit Commission and the work of Peacey et al. was followed by an OfSTED (2002a) report (cited by DfES, 2004a, p.3) which noted that:

The statutory duties to write, maintain and monitor a statement of SEN remain key roles of an LEA. The system can be unwieldy, bureaucratic time-consuming and costly. It can promote poor relationships between LEAs and their stakeholders, including parents. At its worst, compliance with statutory duties may come to be seen as constituting the entire role, thus hampering the design of an appropriate continuum of provision. Even in the better LEAs, planning for inclusion consists to an uncomfortable extent of exploring the room for manoeuvre around the statutory duties.

The findings of the Audit Commission (2002a) and OfSTED (2002), along with a commitment from the Cabinet Office (DfES/Cabinet Office, 2003) to reduce red tape and bureaucracy in schools, led the DfES to commission an investigation (authored by Anne Pinney) into local authority practice and outcomes (DfES, 2004a).
Pinney (Assistant Director of Policy and Research at the charity Barnardos) described her findings as being based upon: analysis of a range of national data; a survey of the thirty local authorities that had the most reduced statements since 2001; and fieldwork visits to four local authorities which appeared to be effective across a range of indicators and maintained a low and falling level of statements. In her introduction to the report she emphasised that the conclusions and recommendations were hers alone and did not represent Government policy.

The main body of the report explored the impact of LEA strategies to reduce reliance on statements for children with special educational needs. It concluded that the level of statements maintained by LEAs did not appear to have an impact on the results achieved by their pupils with SEN (or overall). In the low statementing authorities, more pupils with SEN without a statement reach the expected levels, at each key stage, than in the high statementing authorities. Pinney’s recommendations urged the government to provide a clearer national steer regarding the role of statements in meeting children’s needs, the desirability of early intervention and the importance of whole school inclusive practice. Local authorities, for their part, were urged to support schools in building their skills and capacity, redeploy the educational psychology service and SEN support services to support early intervention, improve arrangements for monitoring schools’ performance on SEN and improve information for parents.
Published in February 2004, the document “Removing Barriers to Achievement” (DfES, 2004b) detailed the Government’s strategy for meeting the needs of children with special education needs. The thrust of the strategy was a focus on: early intervention; personalised learning for all children; and the development of teachers’ skills. Although more children with SEN would be educated in mainstream schools there would be a continuing role for special schools as centres of excellence (working closely with mainstream schools to share expertise) and for educating children with the most severe and complex needs. There would also be closer partnerships between education, health and social services and the voluntary sector to ensure that children with SEN and disabilities got the services they needed.

Strident opposition to these proposals came from Rustemier (2004) who, in a pamphlet setting out the case against segregation of children with special educational needs in special schools, argued that plans to retain separate special schools in perpetuity for some pupils worked against the long-term interests of disabled people.

A few months after the publication of “Barriers to Achievement”, OfSTED (2004) reported that, for many mainstream schools, trying fully to include children with SEN was proving a significant challenge. It also reported that few schools systematically evaluated their provision for pupils with SEN for effectiveness and value for money. On the positive side, however, it did
identify a growing awareness of the benefits of inclusive practice and some improvements in practice in schools.

In July 2005 Baroness Warnock wrote an article (Warnock, 2005) in which she called for the Government to set up a second commission (the first being the one that she chaired (Section 2.4.1) and which had reported in 1978) to review the arrangements in place to meet the needs of children experiencing SENs. She concluded that there was an urgent need to review SEN, particularly the concept of inclusion and the process of statementing. Although this call was endorsed by the Report of the House of Commons Education and Skills Committee (2006), the contentious nature of the question of inclusive education was highlighted by the responses that the publication of Baroness Warnock’s views provoked.

Of those responses, that proffered by Barton (2005) was typical. Barton considered one of Warnock’s most problematic statements to be the assertion that: “… the most disastrous legacy of the 1978 report (was) the concept of inclusion (formerly know as integration)” which, he suggested, indicated confusion in her thinking, i.e. that inclusion was about specifically categorised individuals or special needs. It is Barton’s contention that inclusion is a whole school issue and, as such, is concerned with challenging all forms of discrimination and exclusion. In brief, it is about the well being of all children.
During the parliamentary session 2005-2006 an investigation into the education of pupils with special educational needs was conducted by a House of Commons Education and Skills Committee. Their report (“Special Educational Needs: Third Report of Session 2005-2006”) highlighted “serious faults” within the SEN system with regard to standards of provision and outcomes for pupils with SEN.

The report indicates that evidence was acquired via three main sources: written memoranda; the oral evidence of some 50 witnesses (drawn from politics, government departments, local authorities, professional organisations, voluntary bodies and academic institutions) and visits to schools.

The quality of oral evidence is subject to the skill and objectivity of the questioner. In this regard the organisation and management of parliamentary committees are not without their critics. Writing about all-party parliamentary select committees, for example, Wintour (The Guardian; Tuesday 11th November 2008) describes a proposal (put forward by the Labour Party’s Chief Whip) that any Labour Member of Parliament voting against the government in the past year would not be recommended to sit on these committees. Such a ruling would introduce a clear potential for bias in that the criterion for membership of committees would favour those following the party line but exclude the independent-minded. Wintour also alludes to examples of controversial reports being neutered to secure unanimity as well
as criticism that departmental select committees have failed to match their American counterparts in holding the executive to account.

However, it is indicative of the lengths that the Committee’s members went to ensure the integrity of their findings that it drew upon the expertise of a number of specialist advisers, including two senior academics. A search of the Russell Group website (http://www.russellgroup.ac.uk/ouruniversities/) indicated that the universities at which these worked (the University of Birmingham and the University of Manchester) were members of the Russell Group.

The report raised a number of issues that are relevant to the focus of this initial literature review (i.e. the efficacy of school-based provision for pupils with SEN). These issues may be summarised as follows:

**Equipping the workforce**

The Committee received a great deal of evidence suggesting that teachers and support staff were struggling, without appropriate training, to improve outcomes for children with SEN (Paragraph 289). The Report emphasised that it was unrealistic to expect teachers and other members of the workforce to be able to meet the needs of children with SEN without the provision of sufficient

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1 A company, comprising of twenty universities, that professes a commitment to high levels of academic excellence in both teaching and research.
and appropriate training (Paragraph 294) and that this was an area that needed to be addressed.

**Initial teacher training**

The Committee was made aware of wide-ranging concerns over the lack of emphasis on SEN in initial training (Paragraphs 259-300). In this regard the report recommended that SEN training should become a core, compulsory part of initial teacher training for all teachers (Paragraph 301).

**Continuing professional development**

The Committee received much evidence to suggest that, with the many competing demands that schools have to manage, SEN is often considered a low priority (Paragraph 302). This, the Report suggested, accounted for research findings (reported to the Committee) that:

- almost a quarter of teachers said they had received no more than one day’s training on SEN (Paragraph 302); and
- although there was an expectation that teachers should be able to differentiate the curriculum for pupils, including those with SEN (it is required as part of the General Teaching Requirements of the National Curriculum), this was clearly not the case (Paragraph 305).

In this regard the Committee recommended that good quality, appropriate continuing professional development should be made available for all teachers
and, that schools should be resourced to fund it. The Committee also recommended that, to ensure SEN was given sufficient priority, it should be included as a compulsory part of every schools’ in-service training programme (Paragraph 309).

**Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators**

Despite significant and increasing responsibilities, SENCOs were not always given the appropriate training or authority to fulfil their role adequately. Indeed, the Committee received evidence of teaching assistants being asked to take on the role of SENCOs in some schools (Paragraph 319). The Report went on to recommend that SENCOs should:

- in all cases be qualified teachers (Paragraph 322);
- be in a senior management position in the school (as recommended in the SEN Code of Practice) (Paragraph 322);
- be given ongoing training opportunities to enable them to keep their knowledge up to date (Paragraph 323); and
- be given sufficient non-teaching time to reflect the number of children with SEN in their school (Paragraph 323).

**Specialist support services**

The Committee received evidence which recognised the important contribution made towards the education of children with SEN by specialist support services (Paragraph 324). The Committee was also presented with
evidence that indicated concerns over a shortfall of specialist support and uncertainties over sustained funding (particularly with regard to SEN regional partnerships) which hampered strategic planning (Paragraph 325). With regard to the latter, the Committee recommended that (to enable them to fulfil their role in planning provision for low-incidence SEN) regional partnerships should be given increased and guaranteed funding (Paragraph 325).

**Early intervention**

The Committee received evidence which indicated that, under the present system, large numbers of children were failing to have their needs recognised or diagnosed early enough (if at all) (Paragraph 331). The Committee went on to recommend that, to achieve real progress in terms of early intervention:

- fully equipping and resourcing the workforce must be a key priority for the Government (Paragraph 334); and
- the Government should broker a move away from a system that attempts to categorise a certain group of children as having SEN to one that starts from the position of every child being seen as having individual learning needs and then establish a sliding scale of additional needs right up to severe complex needs (Paragraph 335).

Between summer 2005 and spring 2006 OfSTED conducted a survey of the provision made, and outcomes achieved in different settings, for pupils with
“learning difficulties and disabilities” (LDD). The findings (OfSTED, 2006a) may be summarised as follows:

First: The findings revealed a commonly held belief that the provision of additional resources was the key requirement for individual pupils; a view which was challenged by the finding that this, of itself, guarantees neither good quality intervention nor adequate progress by pupils. The authors of the report go on to identify key requisites for good progress as: the involvement of a specialist teacher (which, in the context of this report, refers to one who has experience and qualifications across a range of LDD); good assessment; work tailored to challenge pupils sufficiently; and a commitment from school leaders to ensure good progress for all pupils.

Second: The authors highlighted a lack of agreement about what constituted good progress for pupils with LDD. This, they reported, prevented vital analysis of data at all levels. Schools rarely questioned themselves as rigorously about the rate of progress for LDD pupils as they did for pupils who did not have LDD; Local Authorities were unable to make judgements about the effectiveness of different schools; and national trends were difficult to determine.

In translating the survey’s findings into proposals for action, the authors of the report called for:
• The DfES to:
  - work more closely with other government departments to ensure common assessments focused on outcomes are used to identify individual needs; and
  - clarify what is meant by “good” progress for pupils with LDD.

• The Training and Development Agency to:
  - improve the initial training and continuing professional development in the field of LDD for all teachers; and
  - provide more opportunities for specialist training in teaching pupils with learning difficulties in general and for particularly complex disabilities.

• Local Authorities to:
  - ensure children and young people with behavioural, emotional and social difficulties have full access to thorough assessments and the full range of services; and
  - ensure that all pupils have opportunities to work alongside their peers in mainstream provision.

• Schools, of all types, to:
  - improve the progress of pupils with LDD by using pupil-level data that are relevant to their age and starting point, to ensure that they are suitably challenged.

• Mainstream schools to:
  - analyse critically their deployment of teaching assistants;
- increase the amount of specialist teaching provided for a range of LDD within a broad and balanced curriculum; and
- develop knowledge and skills relating to LDD across the school workforce.

- Special schools to:
  - with the support of their local authority, and in line with other services, collaborate and share expertise more effectively to develop specialist teaching in mainstream schools.

2.6 The Individual Education Plan (IEP)

Introduced as a central plank of the government’s strategy for meeting the needs of youngsters experiencing SEN (DfE, 1984), the importance attached to the IEP was emphasised by its continued inclusion in the revised Special Educational Needs Code of Practice (DES, 2001).

The concept of the IEP is not new. Having its origins in the USA (School and Cooper, 1992) it has been in use in some British schools since the mid-1970s. Formally introduced in the UK by the DfE (1994), the IEP quickly became a well-established feature of the SENCo’s work (Cooper, 1996).

The formulation of IEPs provides a means for parents and professionals to collaborate in the selection of appropriate educational goals (Skinner, 1991). Once goals are selected, the written IEP represents a curriculum or plan that
can and should be used to guide the provision of instruction in the classroom (Ashman and Jenkins, 1990).

Individualised Education Programmes are now widely used in many countries to guide the delivery of educational services (Sigafoos et al., 1993). With specific reference to practise within the UK, Visser (1994) draws the distinction between Individual Education Plans and Individual Educational Programmes. He defines:

- the plan as the “outline of the scheme to be followed”; and
- the programme as “the course of instruction, including materials, methodology and evaluation”. (p.31)

Visser, therefore, sees the plan as an outline summary of the more detailed programme, an important distinction that stresses the relationship between the summary document and the more detailed arrangements that have to be made and thought about in order to meet the needs of pupils with SEN. If the summary document is not underpinned by this more detailed thinking, it is unlikely to be useful in helping to meet pupils’ needs.

There is general consensus that IEPs should include technically adequate, functional and age-appropriate goals (Streifel and Cadez, 1983; Horner et al., 1990; Shaddock and Bramston, 1991). Certainly, within the UK, the published principles guiding the formulation of IEPs (DfES, 2001(a) and DfES 2001(b))
are biased towards a behavioural approach to teaching that has been strongly promoted (particularly within the field of SENs) in both the UK (Mittler, 1981; Ainscow and Tweddle, 1982) and the US (Torrance, 1986; Macmillan et al., 1986; Wang, 1990; Browder, 1991).

Underpinning the behavioural approach is the principle that, by defining learning in observable terms, complex tasks can be broken down into small, incremental steps. In brief, it requires educators to analyse learning tasks in terms of sub-tasks, which can be expressed in the form of clear and identifiable objectives.

As the newly introduced IEPs started to come under the scrutiny of OfSTED, the evidence quickly started to suggest that there were significant variations in their effectiveness (OfSTED, 1996). Typically, OfSTED noted that: “IEPs are most likely to be effective when they operate within a culture of effective and detailed educational planning”. (Section 92, p.22)

The need to differentiate the curriculum to the extent prescribed by the Code of Practice, and to the degree required by the guidelines pertaining to the formulation of IEPs, places many demands on teachers (Lingard, 2001). There is growing evidence that teachers do not feel prepared to meet these tasks (Scruggs and Mastropeiri, 1996; Wishart and Manning, 1996; Dockrell and Lindsay, 2001).
A search of the literature uncovered little written specifically about the use of IEPs in primary schools. Tenant (2007), however, although focusing on the use of IEPs within the secondary sector, touched upon issues that could be considered to apply equally to primary schools. In brief, Tennant (2007) described the findings of an investigation that involved a review of the literature and three brief case studies. With regard to the former (the literature review, p.207):

- the following emerged as “good practice” in the writing and implementation of IEPs:
  - viewing the process of writing the IEP as at least as important as the finished product (Derrington, Evans and Lee, 1996) – and indeed, the process can be used as a form of professional development (OfSTED, 1996); and
  - there needs to be an appropriate culture for IEPs to work (Pearson, 2000).
- the following emerged as examples of barriers to the efficacy of IEPs:
  - imprecise wording (OfSTED, 2000),
  - a mismatch between students’ needs and IEPs ((Catone and Brady, 2005), with inspectors conceding that IEPs can be written more for their benefit than that of children (OfSTED, 1997); and
- subject teachers, not least those in the core subjects, can have negative views towards SEN and their responsibilities for children with IEPs (Ellins and Porter, 2005).

With regard to the latter, the three brief case studies, Tenant (2007, p.206) notes that:

While researching this paper I came into contact with three SENCOs spread across England, writing and implementing IEPs in their secondary schools in three very different ways.

Thus, his findings do need to be considered within the context of the constraints and shortcomings of what appeared to be a small, opportunistic sample. Indeed Tenant himself poses the following, unanswered, questions: “Are these three SENCOs exceptional individuals who will always remain the exception to the rule?” and “Over and above the belief of the SENCOs that what they have is working, is this belief shared by the LSAs, subject teachers, parents and children themselves?” (p.206)

Bearing these limitations in mind, Tenant suggests that it is reasonable to suppose that there would be more positive attitudes towards IEPs in schools with:

- relatively small numbers of children with IEPs;
- SENCOs who believe in the IEP process;
- teachers who share this belief; and
- clearly defined systems for writing IEPs, with the writing process considered important in its own right.

Tenant argues that, given the contradictory evidence, there is an urgent need for research into this area. He concludes by suggesting that, out of the range of policy recommendations that might arise, two contrasting possibilities are:

1. To abandon the assumption that children with SEN have IEPs, and leave it to schools to decide how to organize their SEN provision, with lines of accountability as at present.

2. To make available training courses for SENCOs and others to discover what schools deemed as successful are doing with IEP provision, with a view to promulgating good practice.

To gain a ministerial perspective on the future of IEPs I sought the view of Diana Johnson, Parliamentary Undersecretary of State for Schools. Her response (personal communication, 23rd March 2010) (Appendix 1.iii) notes that: “Providing IEPs for children with SEN is not a statutory duty on schools but many schools choose to follow the guidance of the Code (of Practice) and use them.” In the same correspondence she goes on to report that:
The Implementation Review Unit’s January 2007 paper on minimising bureaucracy in schools around SEN pointed out that where schools are using target setting and tracking for all pupils as part of personalised learning then they don’t need to use IEPs.

Whilst personal communications do have to be considered with caution (they are not, for example, subject to the same degree of peer scrutiny or review as other sources) this response does support a suggested a trend away from IEPs for specific pupils towards personalising the learning process for all pupils.

2.7 Personalised Learning

Some critics have seen the focus on students with disabilities and difficulties in learning as distracting from the real issue, that is, the process of inclusion and exclusion that leaves many students, not just those with disabilities, to participate in mainstream culture and communities (Booth, 1996). Exclusion can be based on a range of factors and, as Ghuman (1999) has shown in his work with adolescents from South Asia, some populations find themselves the recipient of “multiple exclusions” – racial, social, educational and economic. Such ‘multiple exclusions’ have been documented in England, where Parsons (1999) has explored the link between ethnicity and school exclusions, and has documented the disproportionate number of ethnic minority students who find themselves permanently out of school.

Definitions of “inclusion” and “inclusive education”, then, have moved away from a specific focus on disability towards a broader view that encompasses
students from minority ethnic or linguistic groups, from economically disadvantaged homes, and those who are frequently absent or at risk of exclusion. This is in harmony with Every Child Matters (ECM) (DfES, 2005), which states that every child, whatever their background or circumstances, should have the support they need to: be healthy, stay safe, enjoy and achieve, make a positive contribution, and achieve economic well-being. Thus, in the context of the ECM agenda, inclusive education has come to mean the provision of a framework within which all children – whatever their ability, gender, language, ethnic or cultural origin – can be valued equally, treated with respect and provided with real learning opportunities.

This sits well with the concept of Personalised Learning, a concept that features increasingly strongly in discussions about education policy and was selected by the DfES to underpin their Five Year Strategy for Children and Young Learners (DfES, 2004c). Despite this the indications are that the precise nature of the concept, and the manner in which it is to be implemented, remain unclear.

The publication “Personalised Learning: A commentary by the Teaching and Learning Research Programme” (TLRP/ESRC, 2004) cautions that, although the idea of Personalised Learning has been developing rapidly, its logical and empirical base needs be challenged. In this regard the document poses the questions: how have its components been chosen, and what do they involve? It
then goes on to suggest that, although committed educationalists within the DfES have been working on the factors that they hope will (if implemented appropriately) enhance learning outcomes and provide equity and excellence, their conclusions are currently still no more than a theory – a set of propositions.

Similarly, Hargreaves (2004) suggests that personalising the school experience is a complex and long-term professional process, not a finished product to be delivered.

To illustrate the difficulties inherent in the Government’s proposals, White (TES 7th March 2006) considers just one aspect of the concept, that of: “… an education system which can be tailored to the needs of the learner.” This, he postulates, is where the trouble starts:

People differ about what learners’ needs are. Everyone can subscribe to the idea that education should be tailored to needs. If that is what personalised learning is about, it’s hard not to be a supporter of it. But this gets us nowhere. Talk of needs-based education glosses over huge ideological differences.

The educational press also identifies uncertainties as to how the Government’s proposals will work in practice. The following are typical of the increasing number of reports and press releases that suggest the onus for putting the concept into practice will rest with individual schools.
Labour policy advisers said the party did not want to dictate to schools precisely how they should provide the support and that it would be up to headteachers to work it out with parents. (TES, 11 March 2005)

Now Gordon Brown, the Chancellor, has handed the initiative to heads with an unexpected windfall due to land in bank accounts in September 2006. For schools unsure how to spend the money, the Department for Education and Skill’s website suggests: ‘Some children need extra help, support and encouragement to get the basics right; others need greater stretch and challenge to make the most of their potential. Personalisation is about recognising that – so schools can and do tailor their teaching and the wider support they offer to their pupils so that they can meet all their different needs.’ (TES, 31 March 2006)

On 10th September 2007, in an effort to shed further light on this issue I wrote (Appendix 1.iv) to the then Secretary of State for Education, Mr Ed Balls, posing the following question:

It is my understanding that the notion of “Personalised Learning” is central to the Government’s proposals. Paradoxically, reports increasingly suggest that the onus for the implementation and success of this initiative will rest largely with individual schools – the very organisations that, my summary suggests, are struggling to implement elements that are key to the success of the present system and will be key to the success of the “Personalised Learning” agenda.

I would be grateful for your comments on this paradox and some indication of the proposed measures (and timescale) intended to address it.

The response, sent on his behalf and dated 8th October 2007 (Appendix 1.v) refers to an independent review of personalised learning, chaired by Christine Gilbert, one of the purposes of which was to: “ ... set out a clear vision of where we need to be in 2020 – and the further reforms necessary to achieve that vision”. The response continued by reporting that the Comprehensive
Spending Review (CSR) had set out an expectation that every pupil would have access to a single member of staff who was able to coordinate a package of support that best helped the pupil, and that the new curriculum would cut clutter, reduce duplication and enable schools to do much more with the traditional school day to prepare pupils for the demands of today’s world. In essence, however, the response did not get to the heart of my request – it seems reasonable to suggest that increasing the resources available to pupils (e.g. increasing the staff time available to them by streamlining working practices) is only one half of the equation, the other half being a need to develop the expertise of those staff that are freed up to work with them.

2.8 Parental satisfaction

Exploration of the literature for an indication of how parents viewed the special educational needs process revealed concerns surrounding: a lack of understanding and expertise within schools (House of Commons Education and Skills Select Committee, 2006), a lack of willingness to listen to and acknowledge their concerns (OfSTED, 1996), and the length of the statutory process once their concerns had been acknowledged (OfSTED, 1996).

With regard to the first of these, The House of Commons Education and Skills Committee Report on Special Needs (2006, Paragraph 93) notes the concern expressed by the parent representative group, Network 81, who describe the
lack of understanding of conduct disorders and behavioural and emotional needs as “quite unbelievable”. The report goes on to record Network 81’s view that many children are labelled as “naughty”, “badly brought up” or “defiant” by teaching staff who lump all “bad” behaviour together.

With regard to the second point, OfSTED (1999, Paragraph 33) notes that several parents spoke of the effort needed to convince schools or LEAs of their children’s difficulties.

With regard to the final point, parents also complained about the time taken to move to a formal assessment and the issuing of a statement.

OfSTED (1999) reported a strong perception among parents that a failure to recognise their concerns, together with the time taken to move to and complete the formal assessment process, resulted in a reduction of the time available for early specialist intervention and a significant lowering of their child’s self-esteem and confidence.

2.9 Initial teacher training

Mittler (2000) is of the opinion that:

Ensuring that newly qualified teachers have a basic understanding of inclusive teaching and inclusive schools is the best long-term investment that can be made. (p.137)
This point had also been made, almost a quarter of a century earlier, in the Warnock Report (Warnock, 1978). Warnock set out the blueprint for a changing culture of special educational needs, inextricably linking this change to the continued improvements in professional teacher qualifications and developments. Somewhat pessimistically, however, the report warned: “We fear that the next twenty years may yet again be a period of unfulfilled hope.” (Paragraph 19.32)

Warnock’s pessimism was not misplaced and, after those twenty years had passed, issues surrounding the importance of initial teacher education for ensuring that special educational needs were adequately addressed, continued to occupy the professional and academic world (SEN TC, 1996). Indeed, there is evidence that the nature of the special educational needs-related input which student teachers receive during their training is a growing area of concern (Hastings et al., 1996; Hodkinson, 2009); and the nature of the preparation and training required by primary teachers to ensure that they are adequately prepared for meeting the range of difficulties that they will encounter in an inclusive context is an area in need of much greater exploration and research (Bishop and Jones, 2002).

With regard to the former, Hastings et al. (1996) conducted a survey of 100 female student teachers (in Great Britain) which explored their attitudes towards children with severe learning difficulties (SLD). Hastings et al. report
that, although the attitudes of their sample were not affected by completion of a special education course, those students with higher levels of previous contact with children with SLD generally held more positive attitudes than those with little or no previous experience. In discussing the implications of their findings, Hastings et al. suggest that there would be merit in exploring approaches to SEN training that incorporate proactive experiences with youngsters with special needs. In considering these findings and recommendations certain limitations, associated with the design of the study, do need to be borne in mind. Examples of such limitations are:

- the single-sex nature of the sample, a factor that restricts questions regarding the generalisation of findings to consideration of the female population; and
- the fact that, although the study reports that those with experience of working with youngsters with SLD expressed positive attitudes, it may well be that those who have firsthand experience of working with youngsters with SLD but develop negative attitudes are less inclined to enter teacher training.

Also on the subject of the special educational needs-related input which student teachers receive during their training, Hodkinson (2009) details the findings of a literature review of the English Government’s response to the issue of training pre-service teachers in the delivery of effective special educational needs support. Hodkinson’s (2009) findings suggest that, although
educational practice in mainstream schools has changed considerably since the 1970s, the training of pre-service teachers with regard to SENs appears to have changed very little. The paper argues that the Government needs to ensure that a coherent plan is formulated which enables higher education institutions’ initial teacher training programmes to train students who are competent and confident in their abilities to work with children with special educational needs and/or disabilities.

With regard to the assertion that the nature of the preparation and training, required by primary teachers (to ensure that they are adequately prepared for meeting the range of difficulties that they will encounter in an inclusive context) is an area in need of greater research, Bishop and Jones (2002) contribute to the debate by describing a small-scale research project that explored the attitudes and perceptions of a group of student teachers from a wide variety of backgrounds. Bishop and Jones (2002) explored their sample’s attitudes towards children with complex and profound learning difficulties before and after participating in structured workshop activities with the children.

Using what Mertens (1998) categorises as a convenience sampling approach, Bishop and Jones (2002) invited 90 students (enrolled on a General Professional Studies unit as part of the second year of their BA QTS primary course) to take part in their study. Over the course of an academic year a series
of eight workshops was organised, each student being asked to sign up for one workshop.

Bishop and Jones (2002) gathered the views of the participants on two occasions:

First, directly after taking part in their workshop session, the participating students were given a questionnaire that asked them to think about what they had learnt, how they had benefited from the experience and how the workshops might be improved in the future.

Secondly, a follow up questionnaire, completed at the end of the year and in small focus groups, asked the participants to describe how they remembered they felt before and after the workshop session.

Bishop and Jones (2002) report that, very early on, it became clear that for many of the students these workshops were their first experience of working with such children and that there was a significant amount of apprehension.

Before describing Bishop and Jones’s (2002) conclusions it is necessary to note that they do need to be considered within the limitations of a study that:

- employed a convenience approach to sampling that resulted in subjects being drawn from one specific year group from one specific college.
This raises a number of questions regarding the extent to which their findings can be generalized. Specifically:

- the college’s selection process might mean that their intake is not typical of students nationally (e.g. a selection process weighted towards a younger intake whereas other colleges may seek a greater balance between school leavers and more mature students); or

- for whatever reason, this particular group might not have been typical of the college’s overall student population (e.g. an intake skewed by an unusually large or an unusually small number of applicants from particular sectors or groups).

and

- left a period of time between the intervention and the follow-up questionnaire which meant that, in some instances, students were being asked to recall how they felt the best part of a year previously.

With regard to their subjects’ responses, Bishop and Jones (2002) suggest that analysis of these illustrates the vulnerability and fragility of some of our student teachers’ personal responses to children with complex and profound learning disabilities and the value of addressing these responses in a proactive and supportive way. It is Bishop and Jones’s (2002) contention that their findings support the notion that many more student teachers would benefit from the further development of the approach that they describe.
Following research involving a cohort of 135 students who were completing their teacher training courses at an English university’s School of Education, Avramidis et al. (2000) found that the members of their sample generally held positive attitudes towards the general concept of inclusion but their perception of their competence dropped significantly according to the severity of the children’s needs. Children with emotional and behavioural difficulties were seen as causing more concern and stress than those with other types of special educational needs. It does need to be said that the results of this investigation need to be interpreted within the light of the study’s several limitations. The first limitation involves the sample: data were collected from only one institution, and participant selection did not always follow strict randomisation procedures. Another limitation, cited by the authors themselves is that the instrument employed did not provide for a differentiation between attitudes towards the inclusion of children with different exceptionalities. Therefore, it is possible that in the case of the more severe presenting conditions, segregationist attitudes were obscured by a format of questionnaire which referred only to the concept of inclusion. That said, the investigation does offer the following food for thought for policy makers, teacher educators and administrators:

Firstly, the authors argue strongly that prospective teachers need to have early and continuous exposure to students with special educational needs – preferably through field experiences in inclusive settings.
Secondly, it is possible that prospective teachers who appear to hold negative attitudes may not actually do so – rather they may not see solutions to problems. Therefore, the boost of teacher self-efficacy is primarily a matter of teacher training.

Thirdly, if students receive a strong emphasis upon the skills of mixed-ability teaching they may feel more confident about dealing with the instructional and management problems presented by students with SEN. The authors go on to suggest that this, in tandem with the provision of extensive opportunities for practising these skills within inclusive settings, would contribute significantly towards the development of confidence and competence.

Finally, the authors (Avramidis et al., 2000, p.291) conclude by suggesting that pre-service and in-service training that focuses on a critical understanding of inclusion rather than technical responses to particular needs (i.e. integrational approaches) would:

Provide practitioners with both a vision and the skills necessary to operationalise that vision; skills which allow them to modify their everyday practice in ways which are ultimately inclusive.
2.10 The Continuing Professional Development (CPD) of teachers

Now common to many professions, CPD embraces the notion that (following the basic training initially required to carry out the job) individuals aim for continuous improvement in their professional skills and knowledge (Leaton Gray, 2005).

CPD can take many forms and can be categorised according to its:

- content (e.g. CPD focusing on teaching behaviours that apply generically to all subjects or CPD focusing on how students learn) (Kennedy, 1998);
- outcome (e.g. knowledge of educational theories as opposed to the development of a skill) (Joyce and Showers, 2002); or
- mode of delivery (e.g. whole school training days, attending conferences or studying for a higher degree) (Leaton Gray, 2005).

The literature indicates that, in order to provide useful and effective professional development that fosters improvements in classroom practice, funds need to be focused on providing high-quality professional development experiences (Joyce and Showers, 2002). A major difficulty to providing such experiences is cost, an issue which requires schools and local and central government either to:

- focus resources on fewer teachers; or
• invest sufficient resources so that more teachers can benefit from high quality professional development.

Further tensions are generated by such additional factors as:

• the need to take the relationship between career phase and capacity building into account when negotiating and planning an individual’s CPD programme (University of Nottingham, retrieved 29th May, 2008); and

• the need for schools to balance centralised training initiatives aimed at whole-school improvement, teacher workload and subject-based professional development activities (NECTL, 1994; McBeath and Galton, 2004).

Teachers, researchers and policy makers consistently indicate that the greatest challenge to implementing effective professional development is lack of time (Watts and Castle, 1993; Troen and Bolles, 1994; Camborne, 1995; Corcoran, 1995).

With regard to evaluating effectiveness, the University of Nottingham (retrieved 29th May, 2008) asserts that most CPD is evaluated through self-reports which relate to the quality of the CPD experience and not to its outcomes in relation to individual or collective practice. On this subject
Guskey (2000) identifies different levels of evaluation, the most important of which he considers to be student outcomes.

2.11 Discussion

At this point I would remind the reader of the purpose of the phase one literature review, and of its relationship to the phase one (scoping) Delphi study, by signposting them to Chapter 2 Section 2.2 and Chapter 3 Section 3.2.

The three main types of sources that this review drew upon were:

- official publications, i.e. documents published by government departments and the findings of research carried out by, or on behalf of, government agencies;
- the findings of parliamentary committees; and
- the research literature, i.e. primary sources in the form of research papers.

In constructing the literature review there were factors, specific to each source, which needed to be borne in mind.

In considering the contents and conclusions of official publications it was necessary to bear in mind that, in addition to the threats associated with the methodology and methods of the research upon which the publication is based, there was always the potential for results to be interpreted in a manner that
was politically expedient, a phenomenon referred to, colloquially, as “spin”. According to Webster’s Online Dictionary (http://www.websters-online dictionary.org/definition/POLITICAL + SPIN):

… spin refers to portraying an event in a way that is favourable to you and unfavourable to your political opponents. This is called “putting a positive spin on a story” or just “spinning” the story.

The techniques of spin include:
- selective quotation
- selective use of facts
- non-denial denial
- phrasing in a way that assumes unproven truths
- burying stories by releasing information at times when more important events dominate the news

This is an appropriate juncture to remind the reader that the formulation and functioning of parliamentary committees are not without their critics and that their membership (and, hence, their findings) can be open to manipulation (Chapter 2, Section 2.6.1).

In considering the content and findings of the research literature it was necessary bear in mind that, in addition to the threats associated with the way in which a particular piece of research was designed and conducted, Mertens (1998, p.53) (in describing what she refers to as “publication bias”) notes that there is a greater tendency for research with statistically significant results (i.e. those showing group differences larger than chance) to be published. Research studies that show no differences are either not submitted by the authors or are more frequently rejected by journal editors (Campbell, 1989; Begg, 1994).
Begg recommended tracking down (or determining if authors of literature reviews tracked down) unpublished studies on the topic to correct for this bias. However, he also cautioned that the quality of the unpublished data might be suspect because it has not been through (or rejected by) a review process. For these reasons Begg recommends conservative interpretation of the results of a literature review.

In an attempt to address the issue of publication bias, I asked the Association of Educational Psychologists to print a request in their newsletter (Appendix 1.vi and Appendix 1.vii) asking colleagues who knew of any unpublished relevant research (relating to the efficacy of the school-based provision made to meet the needs of learners experiencing special educational needs) if they would be kind enough to forward details. At the time of writing, no responses had been received.

For over a decade, the manner in which the needs of pupils experiencing special educational needs have been met has been guided by the Education Act 1996, Part IV, sections 312-349. With specific reference to the provision that schools are required to make to meet the needs of learners experiencing special educational needs, there is a Code of Practice which gives detailed guidance on how to identify, assess, record, meet and review SEN. Central to these arrangements is the Individual Education Plan (IEP).
The process of bringing together this phase one literature review revealed that, as early as 2001, concerns were being raised over the efficacy of aspects of the manner in which SEN support was delivered. Those issues (pertaining to the school-based provision in place to ensure that the needs of all pupils are met) that are gaining increasing prominence within the literature include:

- the identification of need; the nature and quality of the interventions employed; the implementation of the interventions employed; the monitoring of progress and the evaluation of the processes in place to meet the pupils’ needs;
- parental concern over the current system’s capacity adequately to identify and meet the needs of pupils experiencing special educational needs; and
- the extent to which initial teacher training and the continuing professional development of teachers adequately prepares and equips them to manage the challenges and demands of an inclusive class of pupils.

2.12 Summary

The significant and recurring themes identified by the phase one literature review relate to:

- the identification of need and implementation of interventions;
- the monitoring and evaluation of interventions;
• parental concerns over the current system’s capacity to meet their children’s special educational needs; and
• initial teacher training and concerns surrounding the continuing professional development of teachers.

With regard to identification of need the message from the literature is that, although early action can make a difference, large numbers of children have not been having their needs recognised or diagnosed early enough – if at all. (Audit Commission, 2002; House of Commons Education and Skills Committee, 2004). If this is to be remedied, commentators suggest, action is needed at the school, local authority and national level. Pinney (2004), for example, highlighted the need for a clearer steer from Government.

Much of the debate surrounding the implementation of interventions focused upon inclusion and the disparity between theory and practice. Definitions of inclusion, for example, reflect the need for establishments to adapt and be flexible enough to accommodate each and every child (Mittler, 2000) whilst the findings of bodies such as OfSTED (2004) identify “serious faults” with regard to standards of provision and outcomes for pupils with SEN.

A significant barrier to the effective monitoring and evaluation of provision for pupils with SEN is a paucity of knowledge about how well children with SEN achieve (Audit Commission, 2002; OfSTED, 2006). This, together with
a lack of rigorous and systematic monitoring by schools and LEAs (Audit Commission, 2002; OfSTED, 2004; OfSTED, 2006) makes it difficult to recognise good practice and to identify and remediate poor practice.

Several sources refer to parental dissatisfaction over the provision in place to meet the needs of pupils with SEN. Of particular concern to parents was: a lack of willingness (on the part of schools) to listen to and acknowledge parental concerns (OfSTED, 1999), the considerable effort need to convince schools and LEAs of their children’s difficulties and, once needs had been identified, a lack of understanding and expertise within schools (House of Commons Education and Skills Committee, 2006). Evidence that these parental concerns are well founded comes from the Audit Commission (2002) and Peacey et al. ((2002) who highlight significant concerns, throughout the schools sector, over a perceived lack of appropriate knowledge and training.

Given the foregoing it is not surprising that, during the course of the phase one literature review, it became increasingly apparent that positive changes in the provision for pupils experiencing a SEN was dependent upon, firstly, developing the confidence and skills of serving staff to respond to the range of children’s needs found in classrooms today (Audit Commission, 2001; Peacey et al., 2002; Audit Commission, 2002) and, secondly, improvements in the initial and on-going training of teachers. With regard to the latter, a number of commentators voice concern over the nature and extent of the SEN related
input that student teachers receive during their training (Hastings et al., 1996; Bishop and Jones, 2002; OfSTED, 2006; House of Commons Education and Skills Committee, 2006).

2.13 Conclusion

Construction and discussion of the phase one literature review revealed that, although official publications and the academic literature agree that the present system for meeting the needs of pupils with SENs has its faults and that modification is needed, there is less agreement between the two on the form that these changes should take. The indications are that the present trend is towards even greater inclusion via the Personalised Learning agenda. The latter is certainly central to the Government’s proposals for the future. Paradoxically, however, reports suggest that the onus for implementing this would rest largely with individual schools – the very organisations that, the literature review suggests, are struggling with implementing elements of the present system, but will be key to the success of the Personalised Learning agenda.
CHAPTER 3

PHASE ONE DELPHI (SCOPING) STUDY: EXPLORING CURRENT THINKING IN RELATION TO THE EFFICACY OF THE SCHOOL-BASED PROVISION IN PLACE, IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS, TO ENSURE THAT THE NEEDS OF PUPILS EXPERIENCING SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ARE MET

3.1 Chapter overview

This chapter describes the Delphi study which was conducted as part of the first phase scoping component of my research. It is organised according to the headings listed in the contents.

3.2 Purpose of the phase 1 Delphi study

The phase one Delphi (scoping) study was conducted in parallel with the phase one literature review. Its aim and purposes were:

- to elicit the views of a cross-section of those (Appendix 2v) whose daily experiences brought them into contact with the school-based provision available for meeting the needs of pupils experiencing SEN;
- to enable the triangulation of data from a range of sources. By this I mean the identification of consistencies and inconsistencies between the contents of the phase one literature review (i.e. official (government) reports, the views of voluntary organisations, the academic literature) and the findings obtained from analysis of the responses obtained from administration of the Delphi; and
when considered alongside the findings of the phase one literature review (Chapter 2) to inform the focus and formulation of the research questions that needed to be asked to explore, in greater depth, the efficacy of the school-based provision made to meet the needs of pupils experiencing SEN.

3.3 Choice of method

Before settling upon the Delphi method a number of alternatives were considered, the main ones being Focus Groups and the Nominal Group Technique (NGT).

3.3.1 Focus Groups

Robson (2002) describes the focus group as an open-ended group discussion which, guided by the researcher, typically extends over at least an hour, possibly two or more. Focus groups can help to explore or generate hypotheses (Powell, 2003) and develop questions or concepts for questionnaires and interview guides (Hoppe et al, 1995). The factors that militated against choice of this method included: the logistics and expense of gathering a busy and geographically disparate group of people together (in the same place at the same time) for upwards of an hour (plus travelling time); Robinson’s (1999, p.909) perception that confidentiality can be a problem between participants when interacting in a group situation; and Robinson’s (1999, p.910) caution regarding the dangers of a perceived conflict of status by
participants which, Robinson goes on to suggest, could lead to power struggles or participants deferring to the views of members perceived to be of higher status.

### 3.3.2 Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

Developed as a decision-making and planning tool which allows a group to achieve consensus and establish a prioritisation of ideas and issues, an NGT session can be made totally anonymous (Delbecq et al. 1975); a feature that resolves issues regarding confidentiality and perceived conflict of status by participants (Chapter 3 Section 3.3.1). However, as with focus groups, significant factors that militated against choice of this method were the logistics and expense of gathering a busy and geographically disparate group of people together for the requisite period of time.

### 3.3.3 The Delphi technique

Described by Cohen et al. (2000, p. 238) as the written equivalent to the Nominal Group technique, the Delphi technique was conceived during the 1950s (by Helmer and Dalkey of the Rand Corporation) to address a specific military problem (Helmer, 1983, p. 134). Calling to mind the old adage two heads are better than one the object of the method is to educe a reliable response to a problem or question from a group of experts. Dalkey (1972, p.4) put it thus:
When faced with an issue where the best information obtainable is the judgement of knowledgeable individuals, and where the most knowledgeable group reports a wide diversity of answers, the old rule that two heads are better than one, or more practically, several heads are better than one, turns out to be well founded.

More recently Powell (2003, p.381) suggests that: “The (Delphi) technique benefits from being a democratic and structured approach that harnesses the collective wisdom of participants”.

Powell’s view is echoed by Stitt-Gohdes and Crews (2004) who, in advocating the Delphi method as a viable alternative to survey research, suggest that its most significant strength lies in its ability to garner opinion and seek consensus among a diverse group of participants.

In essence the Delphi process involves questions being sent to a group and, based on their response, a new questionnaire is developed and disseminated to the same group. This continues through several rounds, providing the group with the opportunity to re-evaluate their own answers in the light of the group response (Delbecq et al., 1975; Linstone and Turoff, 1975; Cochranm 1983; Dailey and Homberg,1990).

For pragmatic reasons, many Delphi studies restrict themselves to three rounds (Osborne et al., 2000) and examine what, if any, is the emergent consensus at the end of the third round.
Linstone and Turoff (1975) suggest that, typically, one of the following leads to the need for using the Delphi:

1. The problem does not lend itself to precise analytical techniques but can benefit from subjective judgements on a collective basis.
2. More individuals are needed than can effectively interact in a face-to-face exchange.
3. Time and cost make frequent group meetings infeasible.
4. Disagreements among individuals are so severe or politically unpalatable that the communication process must be refereed and/or anonymity assured.
5. The heterogeneity of the participants must be preserved to assure validity of the results i.e. avoidance of domination by quantity or by strength of personality.

For my study, for reasons of cost and time, a two-round Delphi was chosen with the first round giving participants the opportunity to contribute their views and the second round clarifying understanding of how the group viewed the issue.

3.4 Rationale for selection of the Delphi technique

The Delphi technique is well suited to the current research problem, that is, the identification of factors that impact upon the effectiveness of the school-based
provision made to meet the needs of youngsters experiencing SENs for the following reasons:

Firstly, the problem does not lend itself to precise analytical techniques but can benefit from subjective judgements on a collective basis (Linstone and Turoff, 1975).

Secondly, since those possessing the requisite knowledge and expertise come from a variety of backgrounds (professional and non-professional) and work for a disparate range of agencies (statutory and non-statutory) whose bases are widely scattered geographically, this method allows for input from knowledgeable individuals without the need for travel and with a minimal commitment of time on the part of those individuals.

Thirdly, the heterogeneity of the participants must be preserved to assure validity of the results, i.e. avoidance of domination by quantity or by strength of personality (Linstone and Turoff, 1975).

Fourthly, most of the panel, as educational professionals, were skilled in communicating their ideas in writing. Although a contingency plan was in place (in the form of a skilled, independent facilitator1) its implementation was not required.

Fifthly, panel members, as consumers or educational practitioners, would be motivated (at least in part) by their own existing commitment to the topic.
3.5 Delphi limitations and threats to validity

In education the Delphi approach has been used effectively to explore issues surrounding: the generation of education goals and objectives (Helmer, 1966; Adelson, 1967); and curriculum planning and development (Mrtorella, 1991; Petrina and Volk, 1992; Smith and Simpson, 1995).

According to Dalkey (1972, p.19-20), two significant advantages that the Delphi approach has over other forms of consultation (e.g. face-to-face discussion) are: the elimination of irrelevant or biasing communication on group interests, rather than the problem in hand; and peer pressure, or pressure to conform to the group, is not so much of an issue.

Similarly Helmer (1983, p.135) suggests that the absence of exposure to the “persuasively stated opinions of others” is more conducive to the generation of reasoned, independent and well-considered views.

Delbecq et al. (1975, p.34) consider the usual Delphi practice of obtaining ideas in writing to be an advantage. They report that (in their experience) the act of writing encourages participants to contemplate the subject thoughtfully and tends to produce a high volume of ideas.

From my perspective, a significant advantage of the Delphi technique is its efficiency and flexibility. Participants can be drawn from a diverse range of
backgrounds (and from a sizeable geographical area) while the demands made upon them can be kept manageable.

Table 3.1 explores the limitations and threats to validity associated with the Delphi approach and describes the measures taken to minimise the impact of these on the outcomes of the proposed study.

3.6 Ethical considerations

Phase one of the research was undertaken in accordance with the commonly agreed standards of good practice for bioresearch and adhered to the ethical guidelines agreed by the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004) and the principles of ethical research set out by the British Psychological Society (BPS, 2007). Table 3.2 summarises the requirements of good practice, possible challenges and the action taken to ensure compliance with the ethical requirements.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Limitations and threats to reliability and validity</th>
<th>Measures taken to minimise impact on the outcomes of the proposed study</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The composition of the Delphi Panel</strong></td>
<td>Importantly:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Potential pitfalls include:</td>
<td>• the purpose of the Delphi process was to elicit the views of an</td>
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<td>• bias arising from the over representation or under representation of</td>
<td>eclectic group of educationalists; all of whom have first-hand</td>
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<tr>
<td>a particular group or viewpoint (Linstone and Turoff, (1975);</td>
<td>experience of working with the system as it currently exists.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• the possibility of the dynamics of the panel’s membership influencing</td>
<td>Members, therefore, were selected because of their perceived</td>
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<td>the responses of panel members.</td>
<td>status as “experts” – not because their views were considered</td>
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<td></td>
<td>representative of a particular group; and</td>
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<td></td>
<td>the outcomes of the Delphi were not the sole source of evidence</td>
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<td>upon which the research questions were based. Its purpose was to</td>
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<td>contribute towards the process of triangulation (the identification</td>
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<td>of consistencies and inconsistencies in information gathered from</td>
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<td>a range of sources).</td>
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<td>The data gathering process was founded upon the principles of</td>
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<td>anonymity and confidentiality. The measures taken to ensure this</td>
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<td></td>
<td>include the following:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- at no point did the panel meet together as a group;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- at no point, during the administration of the Delphi, was</td>
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<td>the identity of panel members disclosed;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- all responses were treated in confidence; and</td>
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<td>- care was taken to ensure that responses could not be</td>
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<td></td>
<td>traced back to, or attributed to, a particular respondent.</td>
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</table>

(Continued)
- Illusory expertise e.g., experts tend to be specialists and may base their responses on a narrow view of the subject and fail to see the bigger picture (Linstone and Turoff, 1975 and Martino, 1978).

<p>| To ensure consideration of the IEP process from a variety of perspectives, efforts were made to ensure that panel members came from a range of backgrounds (academia, support services, voluntary agencies and schools). Furthermore, the outcomes of the Delphi process are not the sole source of evidence upon which the research questions are based. An important function of the Delphi findings was to enable the triangulation of data gleaned from a range of sources. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Limitation or Threat</th>
<th>Measures taken to minimise impact on the outcomes of the proposed study</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Questionnaire</strong></td>
<td>Although strenuous efforts were made to ensure that the questions used were crisp, to the point and unambiguous, it has to be accepted that misunderstandings and misinterpretations are always possible. At each point of feedback to the panel, participants were asked to check for (and report) any possible incongruity.</td>
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</table>

- The sensitivity of results to ambiguity in the questionnaire (Makridakis and Wheelwright, 1978)

**The Delphi Process**

Delbecq et al. (1972, p.84) identify the following, potential threats to validity:

- the time allowed to complete the study:
  - to ensure sufficient time to complete the Delphi process (i.e. a three stage process which, for each stage, requires the dispatch of questionnaires and the return and processing of responses) a period of 8 weeks (56 days) was allowed;
  - furthermore, in formulating the Delphi questionnaire, careful consideration was given as to how best the requisite information could be obtained without placing undue pressure on the panel members. To this end efforts were made to produce a questionnaire that lent itself, at each stage to:
    - if the respondent chose, completion in one sitting of 40 minutes or less; or
    - if the respondent chose, completion during “odd” moments.
- the communication skills of the participants:
• the degree of motivation of the participants:

Many of the panel, by the very nature of their position within their respective field, were articulate and skilled in communicating their ideas in writing. A contingency plan was in place but its implementation was not required.

It was anticipated that, as consumers or educational practitioners, panel members would (at least in part) be motivated by their own existing commitment to the topic. Also, from the outset, the nature and extent of the commitment and involvement required were made clear. This was reiterated, prior to despatch of the initial questionnaire, when prospective panel members were given a further opportunity to “opt-out”.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Limitation or Threat</th>
<th>Measures taken to minimise impact on the outcomes of the proposed study</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Data Gathering Process</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>The literature identifies potential threats to validity as:</td>
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<tr>
<td>• poorly worded or leading questions (Lang, 1998)</td>
<td>The questionnaire used was the result of a process that explored: fitness for purpose; clarity; and ease of completion.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>The Collation and Interpretation of Results</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>The literature identifies the potential threats to validity as:</td>
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<tr>
<td>• the possibility of manipulation i.e. responses can be altered by the monitors in the hope of moving the next round responses in a desired direction (Martino, 1978)</td>
<td>This study employed the technique (described by Lang, 1998) of using an objective facilitator to remove / merge duplicated items and collate the results from each round.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the selective interpretation of results (Lang, 1998)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Requirements</td>
<td>Possible challenges and proposed action</td>
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<td>----------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Beneficence and non-</td>
<td><em>The subject, meeting the needs of pupils experiencing special educational needs, may be emotive (at a professional level, a personal level or possibly, in some instances, both for participants:</em>)</td>
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<tr>
<td>malfeasance</td>
<td><em>• Sought supervision and guidance from university tutor.</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>• At each stage it was emphasised, to participants, that the purpose of the Delphi study was to gain insight into the workings of processes, not individuals.</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>• Trialled written correspondence and data collection instrument (with subjects independent of the research) to ensure that they conveyed the above messages.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informed consent</td>
<td><em>Respondents might not understand: the purpose of the study; and how the data might be used:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>• Potential participants approached, either face to face or by telephone (depending on ease of accessibility) and:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- informed of the aims and methods of the research;</td>
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<td>- offered the opportunity to ask questions and seek clarification;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- reassured that their participation was voluntary;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- assured participants that they were free to withdraw at any; and before completion of questionnaires</td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>• Followed up face to face / telephone contact with written information providing:</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>- details and aims of the research; and</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>- contact details of the researcher</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>• Participants self-selected from the initial field of potential participants</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Completion of Delphi questionnaires accepted as the respondent giving informed consent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Confidentiality and anonymity / secure data storage

Responses: might be traceable to respondents; or contain information that referred to third parties (whose consent for involvement in the research had not been sought):

- All questionnaires given a unique identifier
- Any features of completed questionnaires which identified the respondent were removed, by researcher, upon receipt
- Content that enabled the identification of third parties was removed
- Kept the data in a secure place

3.7 Identification and selection of panel members

3.7.1 Panel Qualifications

Taylor-Powell (2002), in emphasising that the success of a Delphi study is largely dependent upon the quality of the respondents involved in the process, highlights how important the careful selection of participants is.

The intended purpose of the Delphi study was explained to colleagues (within schools and the Inclusion Support Service) who were then asked to put forward the names of practitioners who, in their view, held the status of expert within the area of special educational needs. This process generated a list of fourteen individuals made up of practitioners, academics, consumers and representatives from the voluntary sector.

3.7.2 Panel selection

All fourteen candidates were contacted by letter (Appendix 2.iv) and asked if they would be willing to be a panel member for the proposed study. This
generated twelve responses with ten of the respondents indicating their willingness to participate.

3.7.3 Panel size

In the original Delphi experiment, carried out in 1953, Helmer and Dalkey used a panel of seven experts (Helmer, 1983). Delbecq et al (1975) suggest that a Delphi panel that consists of a homogeneous group (a collection of experts from the same general discipline area, for example) need only involve ten to fifteen people. Similarly Taylor-Powell (2002) observes that the number of participants depends upon the purpose of the Delphi and the diversity of the targeted (panel) population. Importantly, Dalkey et al. (1969) found that error decreased markedly as the group size increased from one to about thirteen; further small decreases in error continued to a size of about twenty-five people, at which point the error rate stabilised.

The panel selected for my study was made up of ten people and, therefore, fell within the parameters for effective practice outlined within the literature.

3.7.4 Panel composition

Appendix 2.v lists the membership of the Delphi panel along with their professional role. To preserve the anonymity of panel members, their names have been replaced with a letter of the alphabet.
3.8 The development of the Delphi questionnaire

The purpose of the development process was to explore the viability of specimen questionnaire formats by soliciting views regarding: fitness for purpose, the clarity of the questions, ease of completion, and other, more effective formats. The knowledge gained informed the choice and design of the test instrument that used in the Delphi study.

The steps taken, and the comments received, may be summarised as follows:

**Step 1**

A specimen questionnaire and a letter describing the purpose of the proposed research (Appendix 2.i) was circulated to educational practitioners who would not form part of the Delphi panel. These practitioners were then brought together, as a group, and asked to provide feedback regarding the draft questionnaire’s (Appendix 2.ii) fitness for purpose and ease of completion. They were also invited to suggest alternative formats that might be more effective at eliciting the requisite information.

The group response may be summarised as follows:

- The subject of the questionnaire (“… the efficacy of the school-based provision made to meet the needs of learners experiencing special educational needs”) was too nebulous and should focus on what, in the group’s view, was the principal school-based vehicle for addressing the
needs of pupils experiencing special educational needs - the Individual Education Plan (IEP).

- The “force-field” format of the questionnaire (Appendix 2.ii) could be dispensed with and replaced by straightforward questions i.e. “What are the strengths of the IEP process?” and “What are the weaknesses of the IEP process?”

- The survey should include items that asked respondents:
  - to identify the strengths and weaknesses of current procedures for measuring the efficacy of IEP targets;
  - to suggest how the effectiveness of the IEP process should be measured; and
  - what should be done to make the IEP process more effective.

Step 2

The feedback from Step 1 was used to inform the drafting of a revised questionnaire (Appendix 2.iii) which was then circulated to the same group of educational practitioners as previously. The group was then reconvened and their comments sought.

Although the feedback indicated that the questionnaire met with general approval, group members advocated (and offered suggestions for) a form of words that was “crisp, short and to the point”. This was taken on board and,
with their assistance, the questionnaire was modified and finalised (Appendix 2.vi).

3.9 The implementation of the Delphi process

The resources available (goodwill, time and funds) were considered sufficient for administration of a two round Delphi format.

Round 1

All members of the Delphi Panel were sent a copy of the finalised questionnaire (Appendix 2.vi) together with a covering letter (Appendix 2.vi) that asked them to draw upon their experience and expertise to:

- identify the strengths of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN;
- identify the weaknesses / limitations of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils experiencing SEN;
- suggest how the effectiveness of the IEP process can be measured; and
- suggest what should be done to improve the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN.

Round 2

Panel members were sent a second mailing that listed all of the responses obtained from the first round (with any duplication removed) and asked to draw upon their experience and expertise to refine and comment on the ideas
already received, and contribute any new ideas that might have occurred to them since initially completing the questionnaire.

Scrutiny of the responses to the two rounds of the Delphi process revealed that the issues raised by the Delphi panel were very much in accord with, and could be recorded using the same categories as, those derived from the literature review (identification, intervention, implementation, monitoring and evaluating progress) (Chapter 2 Section 2.11).

Each of the comments generated by the Delphi panel was considered and, then, allocated to the category that was judged to be most appropriate. The decision to use the categories derived from the literature review was made by myself, the researcher. The allocation of comments to a category was made by the group of practitioners who had assisted in Step 1 of the process. These practitioners reported two difficulties:

Firstly, given the composite nature of some comments (i.e. they made more than one point), it proved difficult to allocate them to just one category. I took the decision to keep each comment intact by asking the group of practitioners to, wherever possible, achieve a “best fit”. The rationale behind this decision was to ensure that the full context within which each point was made was retained.
Secondly, they felt that the wording of some comments necessitated their inclusion under more than one heading. An example would be the comment suggesting that: “Setting the right targets is dependent upon the knowledge, insight and skill of those setting them” (which appears under the headings of intervention and the initial training and CPD of teachers).

Following return of the second questionnaire, panel members were sent a third mailing which (using the categories identified during the literature review) summarised the responses received (Table 3.2).

3.10 Results

The process of bringing together and summarising the literature review revealed a number of recurring themes and the emergence of distinct categories under which these issues could be recorded (Chapter 2 Section 2.11). The categories identified were:

- the identification of need; the nature and quality of the interventions employed; the implementation of the measures employed to meet the identified need; the monitoring of progress / efficacy of interventions; and the evaluation of the process as a whole;
- parental concern; and
- the initial training and CPD of teachers.
Scrutiny of the responses to the successive rounds of the Delphi process revealed that the similarities between the themes identified by the literature review and the issues raised by the Delphi panel were such that the latter could also be recorded using these same categories. The outcome of this exercise is presented in Appendix 2.vii.

3.11 Discussion

This section compares and contrasts the findings of the scoping (Delphi) study with the content of the literature review (Chapter 2). The conclusions drawn were used to refine the focus of the research, facilitate formulation of the final title and inform the choice of research questions. The earlier described categories (identification, intervention, implementation, monitoring, evaluation, parental concerns and the initial and continuing professional development of teachers) (Chapter 2 Section 2.11 and Chapter 3 Section 3.10) are used to frame the discussion.

3.11.1 The identification of need

Panel members offered no comments relating to the perceived strengths of the IEP process. With regard to weaknesses, comments related to the drawbacks of learners being given a label that, when passed on at transition, encourages preconceptions that may not always be helpful; the drawbacks of a system that, rather than giving a holistic view of the pupil, focuses on areas of weakness; the perception that some children get identified because of the
school’s shortcomings (rather that the child’s actual need) and the need for all pupils (not just those identified as SEN) to be set goals.

Asked to comment on what should be done to improve this aspect of the IEP process, well-supported Delphi statements proposed a common system (based upon a continuum of support) for all children and a move away from “categorisation” of need. One comment read, quite simply, “Scrap it!”

The general tenet of these comments is consistent with the findings of the initial literature review in several respects:

Firstly, definitions of inclusion (UNESCO, 1994; Mittler, 2000; Booth et al., 2000) emphasise the need for schools to adapt and be flexible enough to accommodate each and every child.

Secondly, the views expressed sit well with the ambitions of proponents of personalised education who, like Barton (2005) stress that inclusion is a whole school issue and, as such, is concerned with challenging all forms of discrimination and exclusion. In brief, Barton (Chapter 2 Section 2.5) asserts, it is about the well being of all children.

The comments supporting a common system based upon a continuum of support for all children and the comment suggesting the scrapping of IEPs hint at a potential conflict between current arrangements and the likely direction of
travel of provision. Specifically, increasing prominence of the personalised learning agenda (NCSL, 2005) is indicative of the government’s future strategy for meeting the needs of all pupils whilst current guidance (DfES, 2001a) continues to emphasise the centrality of the IEP to the government’s strategy for meeting the needs of pupils experiencing SEN.

3.11.2 Interventions

Comments identified the strength of the IEP process as its potential to: bring together a team of people to work through (sometimes complex) decision making, encourage people to listen to each other, facilitate a plan-do-review approach (with a clear focus on needs) and focuses upon a shared set of goals.

With regard to the weaknesses of the IEP process, respondents raised concerns that were reminiscent of the criticism levelled, by Warnock (1978), against the deficit model of need that dominated thinking for a significant part of the twentieth century. Concern that the IEP process encourages the view that the problem lies with the child (as opposed to what is provided i.e. the learning environment), for example, suggests that Warnock’s efforts to get away from this dichotomous thinking have not met with the degree of success hoped for. Other comments refer to the importance of setting the right targets and ensuring that they are well constructed. In this regard, although the Code of Practice (DfE, 1994) calls for IEP targets to be constructed in accordance with the SMART (specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, time-bound)
principle, various sources suggest that the wording and construction of IEP targets can be barriers to their efficacy. Specific examples are offered by OfSTED (2000) (cited in Tennant, 2007), who found the imprecise wording of IEP targets to be a problem, and Catone and Brady (2005) (cited in Tennant, 2007), who reported that there is often a mismatch between IEP targets and the needs of the student.

Suggestions for improving the IEP process included: the need for more personalised learning, greater emphasis on the changes / adaptations that need to be made to the learning environment and the need for specific reference to be made to the role that home / parents have to ensuring the success of the plan. The first of these indicates that the Delphi Panel supported the notion of personalised education whilst, with regard to inclusion, the second suggests support for the principle of schools needing to be flexible enough to accommodate the needs of all learners (Mittler, 2000).

3.11.3 Implementation

With regard to strengths, the most strongly supported comments identified the capacity of the IEP process to: help focus on learning priorities, provide (if done well) a joint point of reference for all parties (pupil, parents, school and support services) to work together for the benefit of the child and individualise support to the needs of the child.
With regard to weaknesses, respondents suggested that: if targets are not implemented the IEP is nothing more than a piece of paper, effectiveness can be patchy and, sometimes, it becomes a process for the SENCo (with not everyone being included in the decision making process). Certainly, with regards to the latter, OfSTED (1997) (cited in Tennant, 2007) concede that IEPs can be written more for the benefit of inspectors than for the benefit of children.

3.11.4 Monitoring
The comments matched to this heading identify a perceived strength and two weaknesses. The former refers to the fact that the Code of Practice (DfES, 2001a) requires IEPs to be reviewed regularly whilst the latter both suggest that the requirement to review IEPs termly might not be frequent enough. Indeed, as one panel member wrote: “By the time parents have found that the IEP targets haven’t been met a term’s been lost – at least”.

3.11.5 Evaluating progress
Well-supported comments relating to evaluation of the efficacy of IEPs referred to the formulation of the targets (i.e. they should be SMART) and the importance of comparing the stated outcomes of an IEP with the actual outcomes of the pupil. Thoughts for improving the IEP process, and determining whether or not targets had been met, included the application of pre and post measures and the use of scaling and solution focused questioning.
A further comment asks who it is that decides whether or not adequate progress has been made; a comment that touches upon the OfSTED observation (July, 2006) that there was lack of agreement over what constitutes good progress for children with LDD.

### 3.11.6 Parental concerns

With regard to identification of need, one comment suggests that some children get identified because of the school’s shortcomings, not because of the child’s needs (i.e. due to a lack of tolerance / understanding of, or inability to manage, the child’s behaviour). On this point the House of Commons Education and Skills Committee (2006) reports concern over a lack of understanding and expertise within schools. Specifically it notes the concern, articulated by the parent representative group Network 81, who express concern over a perceived lack of understanding of conduct disorders, behavioural and emotional needs.

Other comments suggest that parents’ views are not necessarily considered a priority and that, where this is the case, steps need to be taken to ensure that they are actively involved in the IEP process. In this regard OfSTED (1999) notes a reported lack of willingness on the part of schools to listen to and acknowledge parental concerns. By way of evidence they note that several parents spoke of the effort needed to convince schools or LEAs of their children’s difficulties.
3.11.7 The initial training and continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers

Panel members recorded comments, under a number of headings, which can be considered to have implications for the initial training and / or CPD of teachers.

With regard to the identification of need, one panel member noted that some children get identified because of the school’s shortcomings (rather than a child’s actual need). As an example they suggested that such failings might include a lack of understanding of, or inability to manage, a child’s behaviour. They go on to suggest that there are instances where parents have been encouraged to move their child, who has then done well in another setting, a comment that has implications for both the professional development of teachers and the manner in which the concerns of parents are addressed.

Another comment suggests that interventions can only be effective if the right targets are chosen, and that setting the right targets is dependent upon the knowledge and skill of those setting them. Also under the heading of intervention is the suggestion that IEPs should contain a section noting the arrangements that a school needs to make to ensure that pupils don’t just get interventions chosen from a possibly narrow range that teachers know about or feel confident to deliver. Both of these signpost concerns which have implications for CPD.
Within the literature sources: stress the importance of accommodating each and every child (UNESCO, 1994; Mitterer, 2000; Booth et al., 2000), express concern over a lack of training for meeting the needs of individual pupils (Peacey et al., 2002), note that although a GTC requirement that teachers should be able to differentiate the curriculum for all pupils this was clearly not the case (SEN Third Report of Session 2005-2006), suggest that it is unrealistic to expect teachers to be able to meet the needs of children with SEN without appropriate training (SEN Third Report of Session 2005-2006), and that training in SEN should be a compulsory part of initial teacher training (SEN Third Report of Session 2005-2006).

With regard to the Implementation of IEPs, one panel member suggested that their effectiveness can be patchy and dependent upon the knowledge and skills of the teacher. The same panel member went on to ask what happens if a child with significant need finds themselves placed in an NQT’s class? Suggestions for improving this aspect of the IEP process included provision of a programme of awareness raising designed to encourage staff towards an increasing awareness of (and empathy towards) the needs of all children and a rolling programme of teacher improvement designed to ensure that teachers have the degree of skill necessary to implement the programmes that have been formulated. A third suggestion, ensure that SENCOs write clear, measurable targets, has implications for SENCO related CPD.
Under the headings of monitoring and evaluating progress, respondents specifically mentioned the importance of SMART targets (the tool for formulating IEP targets described in the SEN Toolkit (DfES, 2001b) and made reference to scaling and solution focused questions. It seems reasonable to suggest that, whatever strategies are chosen to ensure the efficacy of IEPs, schools need to ensure that staff are skilled in their use.

Finally, with regard to parental concerns, panel members suggested that child and family views are not always a priority and suggest the need to involve pupils and parents more. In schools where these was identified as issues they would be legitimate targets for CPD.

3.12 Summary

As the process of collating the responses to the successive rounds of the Delphi process progressed it became apparent that the similarities between the themes identified by the literature review and the issues raised by the Delphi panel were such that both could be organised and discussed using the same categories (Chapter 3 Section 3.10 and Appendix 2.vii).

With regard to the identification of need (Chapter 3 Section 3.11.1), panel members offered no comment on the strengths of the IEP process. Comments regarding weaknesses focused upon: the negative aspects of a learner being given a label, the perception that a child’s needs may be exaggerated by their
school’s shortcomings and the need for all pupils to be set goals. Suggestions about what should be done to improve the identification function of the IEP process sit well with the findings of the phase one literature review in a number of respects, including current definitions of inclusion and the need to accommodate every child, the ambitions of proponents of personalised learning who assert that inclusion is about the well being of all children. The main area of conflict was between comments calling for a continuum of provision for all children (and the scrapping of IEPs), supported by the increasing prominence of the personalised learning agenda, and guidelines which continue to emphasise the centrality of the IEP to current government policy.

With regard to interventions (Chapter 3 Section 3.11.2), the Delphi findings sit well with the findings of the phase one literature review. With both, the main strengths of the IEP process were considered to be its potential for: promoting team work, facilitating communication and encouraging the achievement of a shared set of goals. Weaknesses, common to both the Delphi findings and the phase one literature review, were: a propensity for focusing on the child rather than the learning environment, the impact (in terms of efficacy) of the imprecise wording and construction of IEP targets and a frequent mismatch between IEP targets and the needs of the student. Suggestions for improving the IEP process centred around the need for more personalised learning and
the need for schools to be flexible enough to accommodate the needs of all learners.

With regard to implementation (Chapter 3 Section 3.11.3), the capacity of the IEP process to focus support and encourage all parties to work together was identified as a strength. A major weakness, supported by the findings of the phase one literature review, was that the process can become nothing more than just a paper exercise.

With regard to monitoring (Chapter 3.11.4) it was felt that, whilst some Delphi respondents noted that the requirement for IEPs to be reviewed termly as a strength, others questioned whether this was frequent enough.

With regard to evaluation (Chapter 3 Section 3.11.5), a significant concern (common to both the Delphi findings and the phase one literature review) was the lack of evidence over what constituted satisfactory progress for children with LDD.

With regard to parental concerns (Chapter 3 Section 3.11.6) Delphi members expressed concerns, echoed in the findings of the phase one literature review, over: the possibility of children being identified as having a need because of their school’s shortcomings, a lack of understanding and expertise within
schools and a lack of willingness on the part of schools to listen to and acknowledge parental concerns.

Finally, Delphi members raised a number of issues that have implications for the initial training and continuing professional development of teachers (Chapter 3 Section 3.11.7). Significant concerns, supported by evidence gleaned from the phase one literature review, related to: the possibility of a child’s needs being exaggerated by the shortcomings of their school, the possibility of interventions being chosen from a narrow range that teachers feel confident to deliver, the implications of a child with significant need being taught by a teacher with limited experience and concern that parental views were not always a priority.

3.13 Conclusion

The literature review and the Delphi (scoping) study revealed several potentially fruitful lines of enquiry. However, what became increasingly apparent (and of increasing interest to the present author) was the importance of initial teacher training and the continuing professional development of teachers for ensuring that: new entrants to the profession are prepared for the challenges that await them in inclusive settings; staff are able to build upon and extend the skills needed to meet the needs of all pupils; and staff have the skills and knowledge needed to meet the needs of all pupils via whichever means the government chooses to adopt.
CHAPTER 4

PHASE TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

THE CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (CPD) OF TEACHERS

4.1 Chapter overview

The findings of the phase one literature review (Chapter 2) and the phase one Delphi study (Chapter 3) led to a refining of the research focus which resulted in the formulation of the following, revised title:

“An exploration of the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) processes in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster, to enable teaching staff to meet the needs of all pupils”

Whilst accepting the importance of effective CPD arrangements for support staff (OfSTED, 2006), the resources and goodwill available necessitated restriction of the research to teaching staff (Chapter 1 Section 2).

Accordingly, this, the main literature review of the study, explores the literature with regard to CPD. It is organised according to the headings listed in the Contents.
4.2 The process of the literature search

Figure 4.1 lists the electronic databases searched, together with the particular key words and phrases used.
**Figure 4.1: Search strategy for electronic databases**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dates of searches</th>
<th>Electronic databases</th>
<th>Key words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| All database searches were conducted during the period 2006 to 2008 | - British Education Index  
- EBSCO  
- The Education Resources Information Center | - (Keywords: continuing) and (Keywords: professional) and (Keywords: development)  
- (Keywords: teacher) and (Keywords: professional) and (Keywords: development)  
- (Keywords: staff and Keywords: development) and (Keywords: student and Keywords: achievement)  
- (Keywords: teacher and Keywords: training) and (Keywords: student and Keywords: achievement)  
- (Keywords: whole-school) and (Keywords: CPD) and (Keywords: policy)  
- (Keywords: CPD) and (Keywords: teacher) and (Keywords: improvement)  
- (Keywords: CPD) and (Keywords: school) and (Keywords: improvement)  
- (Keywords: professional) and (Keywords: development) and (Keywords: education)  
- (Keyword: job-embedded) and (Keywords: professional) and (Keywords: development)  
- (Keywords: educational psychologist) and (Keywords: CPD)  
- (Keywords: educational psychologist) and (Keywords: INSET) |
In addition, the professional journal of the Association of Education Psychologists was specifically targeted in order to ascertain the nature and extent of EP involvement in the development and delivery of whole-school CPD policies (Chapter 1 Section 1.5).

The sources that this literature review drew upon were:

- documents published by government departments;
- the findings of research carried out by government departments;
- the findings of research carried out by, or on behalf of, government agencies; and
- the research literature, i.e. primary sources in the form of research papers.

At this juncture I would signpost the reader to Chapter 2 Section 2.5, which makes a number of points regarding the validity and reliability of each of these sources.

4.3 Defining Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

Leaton Gray (2005) reminds us that, in teaching, staff development used to be called “in-service training” (or INSET), a term that, she asserts, placed the emphasis on delivery rather than outcome. The term “Continuing Professional Development” (CPD) was coined by Richard Gardner (Leaton Gray, 2005, p.5)
who, during the mid-1970s, was in charge of professional development for the building professions at the University of York. It was chosen because it did not differentiate between learning from courses and learning “on the job”. Now common to many professions, CPD embraces the notion that (following completion of the basic training initially required to carry out the job) individuals aim for continuous improvement in their professional skills and knowledge. Leaton Gray (2005, p.5) goes on to suggest that, for teachers:

(This) change in terminology signifies a shift in emphasis away from the provider and/or employer, towards the individual. In other words, the individual is now responsible for his or her lifelong career development, under the umbrella of the school or schools that employ the teacher.

Of the definitions that emerged from the educational literature, the one most commonly adopted is that formulated by Day (1999, p.4), who asserts that:

Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school, and which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, understanding, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives.

In 2004, England’s Teacher Training Agency (TTA) was asked to expand its remit and to bring its expertise to bear in three new areas: (a) to improve the
training and development of the wider workforce in schools; (b) to provide more support for the continuing professional development of teachers; and, (c) to link all its work to the emerging children’s agenda.

In its response to the Secretary of State (January 2005, p.5) the TTA noted that the term “Continuous Professional Development” (CPD):

Should be used to refer to a planned and sustained series of activities, designed to improve a teacher’s knowledge and skills. In this usage, CPD is not to be viewed as a ‘bolt-on’ or a short term experience, but as a continuous exercise in addressing individual teacher’s needs and in supporting improvements in their professional practice over time.

Bubb and Earley (2005) endeavour to build upon pre-existing definitions, and formulate one that includes all staff as well as teachers, by defining CPD as:

An on-going process encompassing all formal and informal learning experiences that enable all staff in schools, individually and with others, to think about what they are doing, enhance their knowledge and skills and improve ways of working so that pupil learning and well-being is enhanced as a result. It should achieve a balance between individual, group, school and national needs; encourage a commitment to professional and personal growth; and increase self-esteem, self-confidence, job satisfaction and enthusiasm for working with children and colleagues.

They go on to suggest that, put simply: “Continuing professional development is about creating opportunities for adult learning, ultimately for the purpose of enhancing the quality of education in the classroom”.

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The foregoing definitions clearly and directly relate to teachers and schools. The CPD certification website (www.cpduk.co.uk, introduction, p.2), on the other hand, provides a more general definition relating to any professional:

CPD is the systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of knowledge and the development of personal qualities necessary for the education of professional and technical duties throughout the practitioner’s working life.

Closer to home a document produced through a collaboration between three Local Authorities (including the Authority in which my research as conducted) and a Teacher Association, opens with the following definition:

Effective Induction and Continuing Professional Development (CPD) are processes by which the whole school workforce, including the Governing Body, are able to extend their knowledge, understanding, skills and confidence in order to carry out their professional duties and role more effectively, and thus make their contribution to the achievement of the School Improvement Plan. The ultimate purpose of CPD is to enhance the professionalism of the workforce through reference to recognised competency frameworks, to improve the quality of teaching and learning, raise standards and improve self esteem and overall performance in the workforce. (p.4)

(At the time of writing, this document was only available in draft form. The present author was provided with a copy in response to a personal request to one of the Authority contacts named in the report. (Its availability is subject to the ethical restriction noted in Chapter 5 Section 5.10. Confidential Appendix 2)
Despite their differing emphases, the key characteristics of CPD are reflected in all of these definitions: that it relates to the development of both the individual and the workplace, that it covers both skills and affective aspects and that it continues throughout working lives.

4.4 The function of Continuing Professional Development

According to Shulman and Sparks (1992; cited in Garet et al., 2001): “The continual deepening of knowledge and skills is an integral part of any profession. Teaching is no exception.”

Considering the issue from a broader perspective, Abdal-Haqq (1996) suggests that, for many years, teachers and other educators have used staff development as a vehicle for improving individual skills, qualifying for salary increases and meeting certification requirements. Professional development rewarded educators with personal and professional growth, greater job security and career advancement. Schools benefited, primarily at the classroom level, through whatever added value the learning experience gave to an individual teacher’s practice.

Over a decade ago Abdal-Haqq (1996) predicted a growing appreciation of the potential impact of professional development on the overall school, a prediction proven to have come true by such developments as the increasing interest in
within-school-variation (WSV) – the phenomenon described by Hopkins (cited by Conner, 2004, p.2) as: “… the variation in the attainment of pupils in any one school, after individual factors, such as socio-economic background, have been corrected for.”

Indicative of the strategic importance of CPD to school improvement, Reynolds (2004) suggests that the training and CPD-related factors that contribute towards WSV include:

- individual variation in teacher competence that is not sufficiently reduced by initial teacher training or subsequent CPD;
- unreliable implementation of national strategies, school improvement programmes and the like in which the gap between the “floor” of less competent teachers and the “ceiling” of more competent teachers widens as the programmes maximise pre-existing variation; and
- the effects of recent increased pressures in education leading to enhanced difficulties in “coping” for the less competent teachers, whilst the more competent “thrive on chaos”, generating enhanced differentiation between professionals.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2005) conducted an international study of policies for attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers in schools. Drawing on the experiences of
twenty-five countries around the world, and extensive data and research, the project analysed the key developments affecting teachers and their work.

With regard to the retention of effective teachers in schools the report notes that teachers place much emphasis on the quality of their relationships with students and colleagues, on feeling supported by school leaders, on good working conditions and on opportunities to develop their skills. With specific reference to the latter, the report notes that:

Able teachers are not necessarily going to reach their potential in settings that do not provide appropriate support or sufficient challenge and reward. Policies aimed at attracting and retaining effective teachers need both to recruit competent people into the profession, and also to provide support and incentives for professional development and ongoing performance at high levels. (OECD, 2005: p19)

The schools minister, Vernon Coker, recently gave an insight into the UK Government’s interest in this aspect of CPD when, in oral evidence given to the Commons Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families, he said:

We already have a high-quality workforce, and I want to know how to help them become even more skilled. I know continuing professional development is essential for the motivation of teachers and crucial to the development of schools. (Commons Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families, June 2009, Question 259)
4.5 Perspectives on Continuing Professional Development

Since 1985 schools in England and Wales have had the option to set aside up to five INSET days per academic year as Teacher Training Days. These are included within the school year to allow head teachers to bring their staff together for training purposes. Although I have obtained guidelines on the use of these five days from one Local Authority (Appendix 3.i) I have been unable to locate any national guidance or guidance from the Local Authority in which my study was conducted (Confidential Appendix 3(i)).

Teacher Training Days are not without their critics. Cited in The Guardian (2nd October 2007) and the Times Educational Supplement (5th July 2007), Professor Dylan Wiliam, deputy director of the Institute of Education (University of London), puts forward the suggestion that in-service training days should be replaced by “teacher learning communities” where up to 10 teachers meet for two hours a month with the aim of sharing ideas, offering each other peer advice, comparing results from teaching strategies that they have employed and, ultimately, improving their teaching. An exchange of e-mails with Professor Wiliam (Appendix 3(ii)) indicated that the content of these articles was based upon the findings of a trial (Wiliam et al., 2004) carried out with 24 secondary school teachers (2 science and 2 mathematics teachers, in each of 6 schools in two LEAs), the central tenet of which was that:

Teachers will not take up attractive sounding ideas, albeit based on extensive research, if these are presented as general principles which leave entirely to them the task of translating them into everyday
practice – their classroom lives are too busy and too fragile for this to be possible for all but an outstanding few. What they need is a variety of living examples of implementations, by teachers, with whom they can identify and from they can both derive conviction and confidence that they can do better, and see concrete examples of what doing better means in practice. (Black and Wiliam, 1998, p.15-16).

Before considering the findings of Wiliam et al. (2004), the following points need to be made:

Firstly, the schools in the study were not typical in that they had identified themselves as interested in participating in the project. On this point the authors argue that this was not necessarily so for the teachers, and that the final sample was representative of a range of experience and expertise.

Secondly, the authors sought to measure pupil progress via the results of whatever assessment instruments would have been administered by the school in the normal course of events. In many cases, these were the results of national Key Stage tests or the grades on the national school-leaving examination (GCSE). The use of externally mandated tests and examinations as input and output variables does have its weaknesses. Such tests might lack curricular validity in that they may not accurately reflect what the teachers were teaching in their classrooms. However, as the authors point out, to require teachers to develop additional assessments specifically related to
what they had been teaching would have been an unacceptable addition to their already heavy workload.

Bearing the limitations of the study in mind, Wiliam et al. (2004) found that pupils progressed at almost twice the normally expected rate because of their teachers’ exchange of ideas, a finding which, they suggest, makes this an area worthy of further investigation.

Lieberman (1996) identifies three settings that move teachers beyond simply hearing about new ideas and towards a greater understanding (and critical consideration) of these ideas in relation to their own practice. These settings, together with examples of learning opportunities that each might provide, may be summarised as follows:

- Direct Teaching (knowledge update, skill update, awareness sessions, initial conversations, speakers, conferences, courses and workshops and consultants).

- Learning in school (team teaching, peer coaching, action research, problem-solving groups, reviews of students, assessment development, case studies of practice, planning groups, writing for professional journals, school site management teams, on-line conversations, peer reviews of practice, performance management and mentoring).
• Learning out of school (networked learning, communities, school/university, partnerships, subject/phase networks, study groups and university courses).

More recently, Leaton Gray (2005) asked teachers to describe any types of CPD that they had been involved with during the course of their careers, and then, compared this to documents produced by a variety of organisations that listed frameworks for CPD. She found that on-going career development in schools takes many forms, among them the exploitation of: opportunities available within a teacher’s own school (e.g. whole-school training days and the induction, mentoring and assessment of individual teachers); networking opportunities with other professionals (e.g. visiting other schools and joining teacher networks); opportunities available outside of the school environment (e.g. study for higher degrees validated by universities and taking part in examination processes (by becoming an examiner); and opportunities within the wider community (e.g. taking part in outreach activities).

Both Lieberman (1996) and Leaton Gray (2005) allude to peer coaching and mentoring. During 2005, to help increase the impact of continuing professional development on student learning, the DfES adopted the National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching (DfES, 2005). Developed by the Centre for the Use of Research and Evidence in Education (CUREE), at the request of the DfES, it is
a resource that schools and education bodies can use either to develop mentoring and coaching practices or to compare these with other approaches. According to Lord, Atkinson and Mitchell (2008) the Teacher Development Agency (TDA) inherited this framework, from the DfES, in April 2005. In 2006 the TDA launched a mentoring and coaching extranet as a means of sharing effective practice, and this hosts the national framework.

Campbell (2002) explores the current context of the professional development of teachers in the UK, promotes the concept of teachers as practitioner researchers and promotes teacher research into thinking, practice and professional development. In brief, she highlights the relationship between doing research and developing professionally and argues that researching classroom and school contexts is a vital part of teachers’ professional development. Her premise is that, if we are to retain and sustain teachers in the profession in the future, then providing them with a voice and empowering them through active participation in research which allows them to investigate and shape the knowledge base of their teaching may be a key factor in defining their professionalism and underwriting their commitment to education. Teachers can, Campbell believes, take charge of the professional agenda and harness it to their own needs by engaging in research in their classrooms and schools. This does not mean regularly re-inventing the wheel or indulging in “navel gazing”. Ongoing research also involves using research. It means constructing informed
questions for research in classrooms and schools, questions informed by the research and practice of others.

In focusing upon the content of CPD provision, rather than the mode of delivery, Kennedy (1998) differentiates between four types of professional development:

Category 1. Professional development that focuses on teaching behaviours which apply, generically, to all subjects. The methods are expected to be equally effective across all school subjects.

Category 2. Professional development that focuses on teaching behaviours relating to a particular subject.

Category 3. Professional development that focuses on how students learn.

Category 4. Professional development, that focuses on how students learn and how to assess student learning.

Although starting with the premise that training needs to enable people to learn new knowledge and skills and to transfer these into practice, Joyce and Showers (2002) also put the case for training designed to help people become more effective learners. Joyce and Showers suggest that this is best achieved via a
process that, first, identifies the outcomes that the training is intended to achieve, and then selects those training components (e.g. knowledge and theory, modelling, practice and peer coaching) that are most likely to achieve these outcomes. The possible outcomes that they identify are:

- knowledge or awareness of educational theories and practices, new curricula or academic content;
- positive attitude changes, for example towards the participant’s own role, different groups of children and aspects of the curriculum;
- the development of skills, for example in designing and delivering questions; and
- transfer training and “executive control” – generating consistent and appropriate use of the new skills and strategies in classroom practice.

This, the authors stress, is the critical point at which staff development impacts on student achievement.

Of direct relevance to the schools that participated in my research (because the Authority in which they operate was one of those contributing to its formulation), the “Model School Workforce Professional Development Policy” (p.18) (Reference details are subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10, Confidential Appendix 2), identifies the following approaches:

- Practitioner Development, which includes participation in the mentoring experience (as a mentor and as a mentee), peer observation, job
shadowing and a team working approach. Such activities enable an analysis of both teacher and support staff practice and the consideration of alternative approaches.

- Professional Education, which consists of undertaking academic, award-bearing courses that emphasise the relationship between theory and practice. Progress is dependent upon the collation of evidence from the workplace. Enquiry and research demand careful planning and access to professional practices and to relevant and appropriate working situations.

- Professional Training, which is often related to the fulfilment of national standards (e.g. professional standards for classroom teachers, HLTA standards, National Occupational Standards), and often involves attending courses out of school.

- Professional Support, which may include coaching, mentoring and membership of working groups.

Moving away from the literature directly relating to CPD, there is evidence of a debate regarding the nature and depth of the knowledge required by teachers, a debate that is of relevance to those with an interest in the content and nature of CPD opportunities. Cowley (2001, p.x), for example, purports to offer:

> No academic theory – just lots of tips, advice and examples to show how the ideas really work in practice.
She continues:

After all, how many of us, snowed under with reports to write and lessons to plan, have time to wade through endless theory?

This stance, however, runs contrary to the views of those proffered by Solity (2000), Weare (2004), the House of Commons Education and Skills Committee (2006), Haydn (2007) and Adams (2009). Solity, in discussing effective implementation of the lessons learned from his Early Reading Research (ERR) project, strongly argues that “teachers require in-service training on the psychological principles of teaching and learning to implement the reading framework.” Also on the subject of reading, the House of Commons Education and Skills Select Committee (2006, paragraph 60) suggests that:

To be really effective, teachers of reading must have an understanding of the psychological and developmental aspects of the reading process and how children learn to read.

Turning to the subject of behaviour management, Weare (2004) argues that strategies for addressing behaviour need to go beyond familiarity with a collection of management rules and strategies (such as the need to establish clear expectations and knowledge of the mechanistic administration of rewards and punishments). The theory of emotional literacy is, she maintains, an integral part of understanding children’s behaviour. Similarly, Haydn (2007, p.15) emphasises the complexity of managing classrooms, behaviour and learning,
stating that these areas of teaching practice are neither straightforward nor “susceptible to simple solutions or quick fixes.” Remaining on the subject of behaviour management, Adams (2009, p.21) argues that, whilst behaviour management strategies are essential to survival in the classroom, knowledge of them does need to be underpinned by theory.

Finally, Bubb and Earley (2007, p.18) assert that, although much has been written about what constitutes effective continuing professional development, we must not underestimate the importance of how engaged or motivated staff are in the learning process, how collaborative or reflective they become through the process, or how much they enjoyed the professional development. In this regard, they suggest, schools should move towards a more personalised approach to staff development and professional learning. Thus, in the same way that there is talk of personalising learning for pupils, there must be the equivalent notion for the school workforce.

4.6 The impact of Continuing Professional Development

Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000, p.425) assert that, although problematic, the notion of “impact” obliges trainers to consider processes of translation within the recipient organisation which will result in more effective teaching and learning and hence higher achievements for all pupils. It is their contention that
the term “impact” refers to: “(the) … organisational translation of professional development into improved classroom learning and pupil performance”.

In this regard Barth (1990, p.49) asserts that:

Probably nothing within a school has more impact on students in terms of skills development, self-confidence or classroom behaviour than the personal and professional development of teachers.

Likewise, O’Brien and MacBeath (1999) report that the CPD of teachers is increasingly being regarded as essential if the national targets of creating more effective schools and raising the standards of pupil achievement are to be met.

Joyce and Showers (2002) pose the question, “how (my emphasis) does professional development affect student achievement?” They go on to observe that: “the connection seems intuitive. But demonstrating it is difficult.”

Likewise, Garet et al. (2001) assert that, despite the emergence of a considerable body of literature relating to professional development, teacher learning and teacher change, relatively little systematic research has been conducted on the effects of these on improvements in teaching or on student outcomes. By way of illustration they cite Hibert (1991) who, in a review of the research on mathematics teaching and learning conducted for the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, calls attention to the importance of high standards,
content focus and in-depth learning opportunities for teachers. According to Hibert (1999, p.15):

Research on teacher learning shows that fruitful opportunities to learn new teaching methods share several core features: (a) ongoing (measured in years) collaboration of teachers for purposes of planning with (b) the explicit goal of improving student achievement of clear learning goals, (c) anchored by attention to students’ thinking, the curriculum and pedagogy, with (d) access to alternative ideas and methods and opportunities to observe these in action and to reflect on the reasons for their effectiveness.

Garet et al. (2001) maintain that, although lists of characteristics such as these commonly appear in the literature on effective professional development, there is little direct evidence concerning the extent to which these characteristics relate to positive outcomes for teachers and students.

Following their decision to revise the Postgraduate Professional Development (PPD) programme, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) commissioned Robinson and Sebba (2004) to carry out a review of the literature. The purpose of this review was to inform the new programme by drawing on research and evaluation from both inside and outside education. As the reviewers’ remit was to focus specifically on empirical findings relating to the effectiveness of CPD, their report does not address issues of either a theoretical or discursive nature— which, the authors maintain, are tackled elsewhere in the literature. An electronic search (focusing on postgraduate professional development relating to
teachers and other professionals since 1994) initially identified almost 1,000 references. Sifting for relevance (on the basis of the titles and/or abstracts), together with difficulties obtaining articles within the timescale to which the authors were required to work, reduced the number of papers, covered by the review, to 76.

It needs to be noted that the authors do not give an indication of the number of articles that the timescale did not allow them to review. This, together with the fact that many international studies were excluded because of insufficient time to secure translation, does raise questions over how complete the study is and suggests that the resulting conclusions do need to be considered with those significant limitations in mind.

In summarising their findings, Robinson and Sebba (2004) emphasise the importance of distinguishing clearly between the assumption that CPD leads to changes in professional practice and the assumption that this changed practice will necessarily lead to improved learner outcomes. They go on to assert that, in their experience, many more studies comment on the improvement in the knowledge, understanding and practice of teachers and other professionals than on improved pupil performance. Robinson and Sebba (2004) summarise the more significant barriers to measuring the impact of teachers’ CPD on pupil outcomes as:
the problem of timescale, i.e. that any changes in teachers’ practice are likely to take longer to impact on pupil outcomes, in particular outcomes such as test scores; and

the difficulties of attributing any changes to the CPD itself, e.g. given the multiple initiatives taking place in the system.

It is for these reasons, Robinson and Sebb (2004) assert, that the impact of CPD tends to be reported in terms of improved knowledge, understanding and practice of teachers and other professionals, on the assumption that these will, in time, lead to pupils’ improved performance, and hence be considered “proxy” measurements of improvement.

A literature review carried out by Coombs et al. (2007) further highlights the problematic nature of the assessment of impact in the area of CPD. They found that many authors, in an attempt to frame the effects of impact, have constructed a typology of the effects of professional development. Joyce and Showers (1980), for example, proposed the following framework of outcomes:

1. Awareness of new skills;
2. Concepts and organisation underlying concepts and theories, ordering knowledge;
3. Development of new skills;
4. Application of concepts, principles and skills to practice.
Building upon the Joyce and Showers model, Harland and Kinder (1997) proposed a nine-point typology of INSET outcomes (a model that I expand upon in Chapter 4 Section 4.7.2 and Table 4.2).

Turning their attention to the benefits of CPD for students, Joyce and Showers (1980) present the findings of a study that focused on the measurement of “effect size” on pupil learning; their research was designed to explore the direct effects of teacher training on pupil achievement. They proposed that by assessing pupils’ learning and producing marks on a set of curves of distribution it is possible to note mean and standard deviations. It would therefore be possible that the effect of training could be shown as an improvement in mean and standard deviations. In criticising this model Powell and Terrell (2003) (cited by Coombs et al. (2007) p.5) argue that:

This apparently neat and tidy, cause and effect relationship ought to be treated sceptically. It suggests a simplistic conceptualisation of teaching as a technical-rational pursuit, which can be understood solely, in this case, through a scientific lens.

Likewise, Coombs et al. (2007) argue that systems of quantitative measurement do not take into account the wealth of qualitative data that is generated as a result of professional development and is indicative of the problem of trying to adapt procedures and conventions of quantitative methods to qualitative analysis.
as discussed by Seidal (1991) and Miles and Hubermann (1994). Therefore, they go on to argue, it is essential that consideration of the place of both qualitative and quantitative types of data should be given and protected within a study of the impact of a professional development programme.

The foregoing argument has significant implications for the work of authors, like Yoon et al. (2007), who assert that the difficulties they experienced (in identifying studies for inclusion in their review) attest to the paucity of rigorous research that directly examines the impact of teachers’ professional development on student achievement. Yoon et al. (2007) report that, despite identifying over 1,300 studies that claimed to address the effect of teacher professional development on student achievement, they found only nine that met the stringent, empirically based standards laid down by the United States Government’s What Works Clearing House (WWC)\(^1\).

Chapter 4 Section 5 introduces the notions of mentoring and coaching. Commissioned by the TDA to review the evidence on approaches to mentoring and coaching in schools (and to highlight some headline findings on mentoring and coaching in social care), Lord et al. (2008):

- describe the systematic identification and auditing of sources of evidence

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\(^1\) The WWC was established in 2002, by the U.S. Department of Education’s Institute of Education and Science to provide educators, policymakers, researchers and the public with a central and trusted source of scientific evidence of what works in education.
obtained from library database searches, an e-mail request to key organisations and website searches;

- describe the process employed to identify a representative sample of thirty local authority websites; and

- describe and report on the systematic evaluation of the comprehensive range of evidence identified.

Focusing on empirical and practice-based evidence on mentoring and coaching from the previous five years (i.e. since 2003) Lord et al. suggest that:

- for schools, the reflection promoted by effective monitoring and coaching approaches in turn encourages a collaborative learning culture in organisations. Lord et al. (2008) consider this to be particularly important as it may alleviate some of the sense of professional isolation;

- the finding in the Teacher Voice Survey (NFER, 2008) that mentoring and coaching activities relate commonly to classroom practice should be encouraging for school leaders. This resonates with the new professional standards for teachers, whereby mentoring and coaching are now an expected part of teachers’ everyday skill set, and a key aspect of continuing professional development and performance management; and

- an understanding of mentoring and coaching appears to be more limited in the education sector than is in the social care sector.
4.7 The circumstances and conditions necessary for the delivery of effective CPD

4.7.1 The whole-school CPD policy

Rowell (2006), in discussing policies in general, emphasises the need for them to be current, clearly written and accessible to all stakeholders. Effective policies, he continues:

- provide the foundation for consistent practice and decision making;
- ensure that everyone has the same understanding and expectations about what happens; and
- provide protection for stakeholders.

Rowell (2006) goes on to stress that, although time constraints and limited resources can make “filling in the blanks” on a generic policy template appear a tempting option, such a practice is unlikely to result in a workable, effective policy that meets the unique needs of a specific organisation and its stakeholders.

This sits well with guidance offered by the TDA (2007). According to the TDA (2007 p.2) each school will have its own approach to CPD. Each school will also have its own particular view of the nature and role of CPD and the form that it will take in that school. The policy, therefore, if it is to be useful, will need to be reasonably detailed and specific: “An off-the-shelf policy which
could be applied to any school is not likely to be very meaningful. A worthwhile policy is one which sets out the school’s own distinctive approach to CPD.”

Such sentiments are generally echoed by those Authorities that provide sample CPD policies for their schools. Appendix 3.iii, for example, contains a draft policy downloaded from the Dudley Authority’s website (http://www.edu.dudley.gov.uk/CPD/Document/cpd_toolkit/Supporting%20documents/CPD%20policy.pdf), which cautions that:

As with all model policies, there is little value in simply filling in your school name and adopting it as presented. Value comes from discussion of its content with relevant people within your school to obtain a common understanding and approach.

Confidential Appendix 4.i contains a copy of a specimen CPD policy (this reference subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10) provided by the home Authority of the schools in my sample. It does not provide a warning of the type illustrated above.

4.7.2 Factors that impact upon the efficacy of CPD opportunities

Harland and Kinder (1997, p.73) propose a nine-point typology of CPD outcomes. In the same paper they move on to propose a tentative hierarchy of these outcomes through a study of teachers’ accounts of in-service (INSET)
experience and observation of classroom practice. They conclude that: “It was apparent that the presence of certain outcomes was more likely to achieve developments in practice than others”. The assumption was made that the ultimate goal of INSET was to influence and improve classroom practice with situated learning changes linked to pedagogical impact and the following order of CPD outcomes (Figure 4.2) was proposed:

**Figure 4.2: Relating CPD outcomes to Orders of Impact (Harland and Kinder, 1997 p.73)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CPD Order</th>
<th>CPD outcome types linked to impact as Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3rd Order</td>
<td>Provisory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Order</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Order</td>
<td>Value Congruence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Impact on practice

According to Harland and Kinder (1997, p.73):

- “provisory services” refers to the physical resources resulting from participation in a CPD activity;
- “informational” outcomes refers to the state of being briefed or cognisant
of background facts;

- “new awareness” refers to a perceptual or conceptual shift from previous assumptions;
- “institutional” outcomes acknowledges that CPD can have an impact on the organisational context in which practitioners work;
- “affective” outcomes refers to the emotional response to learning;
- “motivation” refers to the enthusiasm for the ideas received during the CPD activity and the motivation to implement them;
- “value congruence” refers to the match between individual perceptions of good practice and those promulgated by the CPD activity;
- “knowledge and skills” refers to deeper levels of understanding; and
- “impact on practice” refers to the explicit intention to bring about changes in practice.

Evidence from Harland and Kinder’s evaluation (1997, p.73) suggests that:

CPD experiences which focus on (or are perceived as offering) only third order outcomes are least likely to impact on practice, unless other higher order outcomes are also achieved or already exist. The presence of changes in value congruence and knowledge and skills constantly coincided with substantial impacts on practice although these in turn might well require the presence of other lower order outcomes … to achieve sustained implementation.
It is Harland and Kinder’s (1997) conclusion that, in order to maximise the chances of CPD leading to change in classroom practice, all nine outcomes need to be present as pre-existing conditions or be achieved by the INSET activity.

Guskey (1994) asserts that the effectiveness of professional development is context-specific and that, over time, there is need for an optimal mix of CPD experiences which take teachers’ life-stage, teachers’ career development and school-identified needs into account.

Goodall et al. (2005) advise that a key factor in ensuring effective CPD is ensuring an accurate match between provision and need. This fit between the developmental needs of the teacher and the selected activity is critically important in ensuring that there is a positive impact at the school and classroom level (Hopkins and Harris 2001). Where staff development opportunities are poorly conceptualised and insensitive to the concerns of individual participants and make little effort to relate learning experiences to workplace conditions, they make little impact upon teachers or their pupils (Day, 1999).

Developing this theme further, Bubb and Earley (2006) suggest that (as well as dividing responsibility for auditing, planning, managing and evaluating staff development on a departmental, key stage / year group basis) members of the “school workforce” can be categorised in many other ways (Appendix 3.iv);
among them: newly qualified teachers, more experienced teachers, overseas trained teachers, supply staff, returnees, governors and support staff.

Turning their attention to what happens following participation in a CPD event, Joyce and Showers (1987) studied 200 INSET programmes for teachers, each of which was designed with the specific aim of changing classroom practice. They found that, even when teachers were given an opportunity to practice the new approach, they quickly slipped back into their customary ways. It is Joyce and Showers’ contention that this happened because of the lack of structured feedback on their practice and lack of assistance in working out what to do next to improve their approach. To overcome this, Joyce and Showers offer the following five step training model which incorporates a coaching element:

   Step 1. Theory (explain and justify the new approach).
   Step 2. Demonstrate (show / model how it can be done in practice).
   Step 3. Practice (let the participants try doing it this new way).
   Step 4. Feedback (give the participants feedback on their use of the new way).
   Step 5. Coaching (help teachers work out what to do next to improve their new approach).

Although a number of publications (Joyce and Showers, 1984, 1995, 1996) allude to the testing of Joyce and Showers’ theories (relating to the efficacy of
coaching), none of them contain sufficient detail on the basis of which one can reach a judgement regarding the reliability of their findings.

Campbell (2002) identifies an increasing emphasis (encouraged by the Government’s national strategy for Continuing Professional Development) on evidence-based practice, opportunities to apply for funding for classroom and school-based research and a focus on raising standards through teacher research. Although attempts to encourage teacher research are not new (Campbell (2002) goes on to note that, during the 1970s and 1980s, teachers were often funded to undertake research-based courses at universities and colleges), a long-standing and lively debate concerning the rigour, reliability and validity of teacher research initiatives continues unabated. Foster (1999), in a paper describing his methodological assessment of teacher research, voiced criticism of small-scale classroom research by teachers, and argued that much of the research examined was not research. He also identified flaws in data collection and analysis.

Similarly, Pirrie (2001) suggests that the desire to find evidence to support classroom practice generates a belief in “toolkits” for teachers as a legitimate outcome of research. Pirrie also cautions that a further danger lurking in teacher research approaches is that teachers may overlook the complexity of what they are researching and arrive at conclusions that are actually overly simplistic and naïve.
Flecknoe (2000) describes a Teacher Training Agency (TTA)-funded evaluation of a continuing professional development programme (run by Leeds Metropolitan University) which is founded upon the premise that local research by teachers is more likely to improve teaching than the application of external research to teachers. 58 teachers took part in the programme, which covered school improvement, school effectiveness issues and the processes of action research. They then undertook an intervention (designed to raise pupil achievement in their own schools) and evaluated its success.

Flecknoe’s research took the form of interviews (carried out by a researcher to ameliorate the bias which might have been present had Flecknoe, a tutor on the course, interviewed the participants himself) with as many teachers who had taken the course as possible plus triangulating interviews with other teachers in the schools where these teachers served.

At the time that the research was carried out, 58 participants had started out on the programme and completed the taught element. Of these, eighteen had completed assignments, 25 were still working within an acceptable time frame and twelve had either withdrawn or ceased to be in touch with the university. Of the group of 58, Flecknoe’s report deals with 31 with whom interviews had been held or whose assignments were still available for inspection. This group of 31
did not include any of the twelve who had ceased to have any contact with the university. A chi-square test revealed that those interviewed were representative of those who remained on the programme on the characteristics of gender, phase and responsibility.

In interpreting Flecknoe’s findings it does need to be borne in mind that those participating in the CPD programme were not necessarily a representative sample of teachers. They were a group that was sufficiently keen to improve their professional competence that they were prepared to give up a considerable amount of time to study at Leeds Metropolitan University and, in some cases, to pay for the privilege.

Flecknoe reports that most participants in the programme had had positive experiences and presented evidence that something had changed for the better, whether this was pupil attitude or achievement or some change on the part of teaching staff. More than 80% of the teachers whose work had progressed to a conclusion of some sort were able to present evidence that their participation in the programme raised pupils’ achievements. Some of this evidence was in the form of controlled experimental results of varying degrees of validity and reliability, whilst some was in the form of affective judgements which, Flecknoe asserts, would be equally significant if they were able to be justified.
Following on from the latter, Flecknoe suggests that the difficulty that teachers had in demonstrating that their intervention was successful, was threefold:

Firstly, it is difficult to show that any pupil is gaining more against some criterion than s/he would have done under a different educational influence. Participants had used either a control group that was a parallel group or, more often, a previous cohort. Frequently data were not available in the same form for the previous cohort and there were difficulties demonstrating that the data were compatible. There are ethical difficulties in maintaining a control group of pupils.

Secondly, it is difficult to demonstrate causality because of the many influences on a pupil that may have nothing to do with the intervention of the teacher.

Thirdly, if causality can be demonstrated, it is difficult to argue against the influence of the temporary Hawthorne effect\(^2\); that is, when teachers intervene in their own practice of teaching to improve standards, they stand a very good chance of raising the achievement of their pupils whatever they do.

Thus, Flecknoe suggests that even if there is no other outcome from his study, it demonstrates the difficulty of judging a teacher once the importance of the

\(^2\) Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000 p.127) note that medical research has long recognised the psychological effects that arise out of mere participation in drug experiments, and placebos and double-blind designs are commonly employed to counteract the biasing effects. Similarly, so-called Hawthorne effects threaten to contaminate experimental treatments in educational research when subjects realise their role as guinea pigs.
easily measurable has been exposed for its inadequacy. However, he concludes, even though it is difficult to demonstrate that the programme of continuing professional development raised the achievement of the pupils affected by it, this is no reason for not disseminating the evidence that has been produced – a huge amount of money, he asserts, is spent each year on university-provided programmes for teachers and, unless it can be shown that these programmes have some impact on the pupils, there will be those who advocate removing or cutting the provision. Any pointers that indicate benefit are worthy of peer examination.

OfSTED (2006b, p.2) describes the CPD arrangements in schools with good practice in CPD management as:

A logical chain of procedures which entails: identifying school and staff needs; planning to meet those needs; providing varied and relevant activities; involving support staff alongside teachers; monitoring progress; and evaluating the impact of the professional development.

However, even in these schools, concerns were raised regarding: the lack of rigour in identifying and meeting the CPD needs of individual teachers, inadequate identification at the planning stage of the intended outcomes of the CPD (largely because of this few schools evaluated the impact of CPD effectively) and the inability of head teachers to evaluate the value for money of their CPD policy.
4.8 Evaluating the effectiveness of Continuing Professional Development

4.8.1 Current practice

The last decade has seen the introduction of continuing professional development (CPD) portfolios. The purpose of these, according to the Teacher Development Association (TDA, 2003), is to help staff reflect on their CPD needs (through recording their achievements and considering how they can build on them by setting targets for future learning) and to provide a form of record keeping (enabling the CPD portfolio to be used for performance management or for establishing whether or not threshold criteria have been met).

Information published by the TDA (2010) ([http://www.tda.gov.uk](http://www.tda.gov.uk) Retrieved 8th January, 2010) suggests that many schools are beginning to move from paper-based portfolios to electronic versions (sometimes called e-portfolios). At this juncture it does need to be noted that attempts to determine the source(s) upon which the TDA’s information was based (Appendix personal communication dated 10.01.2010) failed to elicit a response. Bearing this shortcoming in mind, the TDA make observations regarding the impact that a transition to e-portfolios has had upon the nature and purpose of the documents these contain. They suggest, for example, that e-portfolios often have a different character from paper versions. Whilst the paper version is usually seen as a private document (that no one else would examine unless invited to do so) information on a computer network tends to be seen as valuable material for others to access.
(including managers who might wish to exploit it for strategic purposes). Making portfolios electronic, therefore, could be seen to diminish their value as a device for promoting CPD, in that they may be seen as a bureaucratic, managerial device as opposed to a personal, private document. Misappropriating the term “case-study” (Chapter 5 Section 5.5.2) to describe what is, in essence, no more than one school’s brief description of their own practice, the TDA (2010) refers to a school that endeavoured to capitalise upon the managerial potential of e-portfolios whilst, at the same time, retaining their confidential, reflective function for individuals, by making some sections of the portfolio private and others public.

OfSTED (2004) reviewed the impact of a number of award-bearing in-service training courses on school improvement. Of the fifteen providers inspected, almost all monitored the impact of training on participants, but fewer than a quarter made any attempt to evaluate the impact on pupils. Many courses required participants to review the content of their training with other staff and to evaluate the impact of the course on their teaching and on the curriculum. A few courses expected participants to produce portfolios of pupils’ work to demonstrate how the course had led to improvements in pupils’ performance. In about a quarter of the courses, regular reviews of participants’ progress included an evaluation of their contribution to school improvement, and in about a third
the assessment criteria for assignments and school-based tasks included an evaluation of their contribution.

A few courses in the OfSTED review assessed their effectiveness by comparing participants’ initial needs analysis with what they had achieved by the end of the course. Other providers used end-of-course evaluations, but these were largely used to evaluate course content and delivery. About one third did not include any evaluation of the course’s impact on the participants’ practice or on their school. In about one in ten courses, although there was an expectation that LEA advisers would undertake some monitoring of longer-term impact through their visits to schools, the reality was that CPD was unlikely to be prioritised in these visits.

According to Bubb and Earley (2006), the evaluation of CPD has proved a problematic area in schools for many years. They go on to report that, although various studies have shown that CPD can have an impact on teachers’ attitude, knowledge, skills and practice, and affect various aspects of school improvement, it is much more difficult to demonstrate its impact on pupils’ learning.

Similarly, Kelly (2008, p.1) maintains that: “evaluating the impact of CPD has to be the one task that gives CPD leaders most anxiety”. Drawing upon the work
of Goodall et al. (2005), she suggests that, all too often, evaluating impact comes in the form of a participant satisfaction questionnaire. Whilst accepting that this can be valuable in gauging positive or negative attitudes to CPD, Kelly considers that there are far more diverse ways of evaluating impact. First she suggests that, before any formalised CPD activity takes place, it makes sense to engage the participants in the process of considering:

1. What targets or objectives the CPD activity is designed to meet.
2. What the expected impact of engaging in the CPD activity will be.
3. What the outcomes will be in terms of the impact on classroom skills/strategies/knowledge, and how this will affect the learning of students.
4. How the above can be measured.

Kelly then suggests that, to facilitate the development of effective evaluation tools (rather than tools that merely gauge what participants thought of an activity) schools should consider the use of such paradigms as Guskey’s five levels of impact evaluation (Guskey, 2000).

In his overview of the evaluation of CPD in the USA, Guskey (2000) points to three major weaknesses in evaluative practice:

1. Evaluation may often amount to no more than the documentation of activities completed over a period of time.
2. Evaluation often does not go deeply enough, being limited to “happiness questionnaires” after the event.
3. Evaluation is often too brief. Just as professional development should be an ongoing process, so should its evaluation.

In an attempt to structure and improve the evaluation process, Guskey (2000) suggested there are five levels, each of which is more complex than the preceding one. These he identified as:

1. Participant reaction.
2. Participant learning (cognitive, affective and behavioural).
3. Organisational support and change.
4. Participant use of new knowledge and skills.
5. Pupil learning outcomes.

Having identified these five levels, Guskey suggests that (to ensure that the final goal, that of improving students’ learning and achievement, is central to the CPD process) those evaluating the efficacy of CPD initiatives should work backwards, i.e. starting with level 5.

Connected to the above, OfSTED (2006b) found that (in their view) few schools evaluated the impact of CPD on teaching and learning effectively, largely because they failed to identify its intended outcomes and suitable evaluation methods at the planning stage.
The London Centre for Leadership in Learning (in endeavouring to act upon findings such as those obtained by OfSTED (2006b) (http://www.ioe.ac.uk/research/365.html Retrieved 8th January, 2010) and incorporate the views of scholars like Guskey into practice) has developed an approach to impact evaluation structured around the following questions:

- For whom do you want to make a difference?
- By when?
- What is your baseline, and what evidence do you have for this?
- What is the impact you anticipate (change in practice), and what evidence will show the positive difference you have achieved?
- What CPD activity will help you achieve this difference?

Goodall et al. (2005) report the findings of a two-year project (funded by the Department for Education and Skills and undertaken by a research team from the Universities of Warwick, Nottingham and Newcastle-upon-Tyne) designed to:

- investigate the range of evaluative practices for CPD, in use in schools, against the model proposed by Guskey (2000); and
- provide materials which would aid schools in evaluating CPD in the future.
The research team reported that, for the purposes of their study, they adopted a definition of CPD proposed by Day (1999, p.4) (Chapter 4 Section 4.3) which focuses upon the teachers’ learning within their broader change purposes and highlights the complexities of these.

To achieve their aim (of establishing current arrangements for evaluating professional development) the research team employed a mixed approach involving the qualitative and quantitative collection of data which involved a survey (a questionnaire) and follow-up fieldwork. The sample was made up of teachers and CPD leaders in 1,000 randomly selected schools. With regard to the questionnaire, the appendix to the report contains copies of the pro-forma used. The report does not, however, provide details about the formulation and trialling of these instruments. This made it difficult to arrive at an informed decision regarding the reliability of the questionnaires and the validity of the findings. In the absence of information regarding the steps taken to mitigate their effect, the following are examples of some of the concerns that could be considered threats to the reliability of the questionnaires to which they apply:

- although the survey element of the data collection process relies heavily upon self-reports, it is not clear how the weaknesses associated with this form of data gathering were addressed;
- some items incorporate more than one descriptor (e.g.
“Mentoring / Critical Friendships”), implying that the terms are interchangeable. The literature (Swaffield, 2004; DfES, 2005; QIA, 2006), however, attaches specific meaning to each of these terms. Such aspects make it difficult for the respondent who, for example, finds “Mentoring” “Somewhat Effective” but “Critical Friendships” “Highly Effective” to respond accurately;

- the steps taken to ensure that respondents understood the specific meaning of the descriptors employed are not clear. The descriptors used, for example, could well have meant different things to different respondents; and

- the rationale underpinning the choice of scales is not explained.

The terms “Often”, “Sometimes”, and “Rarely”, for example, give significant scope for individual and subjective interpretation.

With regard to the fieldwork, the research literature supports the assertion of Goodall et al that cases are a powerful means of understanding complexity; sharing knowledge about processes, practices and outcomes; and understanding the relevance of local context (Robson, 2002; Wengraf, 2001; Shkedi, 1998). It does need to be noted, however, that the report does not include a description of the “random” selection process, an omission that impinges upon the reader’s ability to make an informed judgement regarding the reliability of the study and the validity of the findings.
Bearing the foregoing in mind, the report details findings which may be summarised as follows:

**Needs Identification**

- CPD was understood by staff to meet a variety of needs: personal needs, policy needs and organisational needs. There were sometimes tensions between these three types of need within a school, tensions that could be compounded by a tendency for the resources available for CPD to be limited.
- The personal CPD needs of staff were most often identified, in schools, through the performance management process.

**Provision**

- Opportunities to engage in CPD vary considerably between schools and local authorities.
- In many schools, although alternative models are gaining ground (e.g. mentoring, observation and professional discussion), CPD is equated primarily with in-service courses. Because of this, many teachers’ experiences of CPD are heavily dependent upon the school and the local authority within which they work.
- There is a trend towards “in-house” provision of CPD. Schools
cited a number of reasons for this, including: perceived cost effectiveness; direct applicability (focus on teaching and learning); and an acknowledgement of (and desire to utilise) the expertise available within the school.

- The most frequently cited barriers to the provision of effective CPD were time, cost and the identification of providers. Schools express particular concern over CPD opportunities that take staff away from their teaching duties. In this regard, the notion of non-disruptive CPD is considered an important one to explore (the report, however, is not clear as who schools feel should be conducting this exploration, i.e. themselves or other agencies).

**Effectiveness**

- Those in management positions within schools perceive in-house INSET, workshops, mentoring/critical friendships and informal networking to be the most effective forms of CPD. Teachers, on the other hand, consider that observation and professional discussion have the greatest impact on professional growth and change.

**Evaluation of CPD**

- The study found that the vast majority of evaluation practice in schools
remains at the level of participant reaction and learning (i.e. levels 1 and 2 of the Guskey (2000) five-level model).

- In the survey, the most frequently evaluated component was participant satisfaction (i.e. level 1 of the Guskey (2000) five-level model).

- Value for money was the second most frequently evaluated element, with over 51% of respondents claiming that this element was evaluated “usually” or “always”.

- Survey data indicated that changes in pupil attitude were “usually” or “always” evaluated by only 24% of schools, making it the least frequently evaluated aspect.

- Schools felt that they were generally not skilled in the processes of evaluation and lacked the experience and tools necessary to consider the impact of CPD at all five levels of the Guskey (2000) model.

- There was a high degree of confusion amongst those in schools between dissemination and evaluation. This confusion meant that, very often, dissemination was equated with evaluation. Schools, for example, frequently responded to questions about the evaluation of impact with examples of dissemination.

- In the interview phase the study found that the most widely used evaluation tool was a survey or questionnaire. The use of this method across schools, however, was found to be highly variable. In many cases the completion of the questionnaire was viewed as an end in itself.
On the positive side, many schools identified a need for focused professional development and training that would assist them in evaluating CPD more effectively.

Foster (2006) reports on an analysis of 177 questionnaire responses from CPD coordinators in primary and secondary schools in the North-West of England. The research aimed to discover how the school’s CPD programme was planned, how it related to school and/or individual priorities, how the impact on teachers’ thinking, planning and practice was evaluated and what evaluation of pupil impact took place. He found that the schools split roughly into three groups, namely:

- those (26%) which had rigorous and evaluated processes;
- those (58%) whose processes were less formal and structured, though still linked to developmental priorities and where evaluation tended to be mainly linked to the CPD events/activities themselves; and
- those (16%) which tended to approach CPD rather more haphazardly and where evaluation was rare.

However, teachers seldom had “hard data” to quantify the effects of changing practice on students, and student outcome reports about motivation
or performance were often anecdotal. Foster (2006) points to the variables that inevitably intervene between the CPD and the formal attainment data available from the testing regime. The study did reveal that the more strategic schools were developing a broad approach to the collection and evaluation of a range of evidence. He also found that one of the key factors distinguishing “the most coherent practice from the rest” was the level of “planning for impact” linked to identified needs and clearly articulated intended outcomes.

4.9 Challenges to providing high quality Continuing Professional Development opportunities

4.9.1 Support from senior management and colleagues

Hustler et al. (2003) report that support for (and a positive attitude towards) CPD from the senior management and other colleagues in school are factors not only in decisions to participate in CPD but also in the extent to which participants can implement initiatives in their school. OfSTED (2004) noted that the level of support given by head teachers, senior managers and other colleagues is a major factor in determining the extent to which participants are able to make use of what they have learned, especially their ability to implement initiatives linked to the training programme in their schools. The review went even further in suggesting that positive and sustained impact of the training across the whole school is more likely where the participants
include the head teacher or senior managers. It was noted that, while whole school improvement is most effectively achieved when groups of staff from the same school undertake a course together, opportunities for this may be limited by teacher shortages, lack (and cost) of supply staff and teachers’ reluctance to leave their class.

4.9.2 Conflicting priorities

Soulsby and Swain (2003) conducted a study that examined an award-creating INSET scheme provided by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). This scheme offered teachers the opportunity to carry out their own research into specific subject areas. Soulsby and Swain argue that this type of subject-based training is vital to stimulate the intellectual interest of a highly qualified graduate workforce. However, recently this type of training has often been overshadowed by centralised training initiatives, aimed at whole school improvement, and linked to Government policy. Soulsby and Swain make a connection between this, teacher workload difficulties, and the need for subject-based professional development activities:

The evidence of decline in the take-up of award-bearing INSET suggests that the recent reduction in enrolments is not caused by any diminution in the popularity or relevance of award-bearing courses, but more probably by external factors such as teachers’ workloads and the large volume of training required by other central initiatives. (p.3)
School improvement should be defined widely enough to include courses aimed at subject knowledge and pedagogy. (p.5)

Their position is clear; whilst it might be expedient for schools and governments to tailor professional development according to their perceived short-term needs, this is not a sustainable position; CPD should be seen as a long-term investment in developing teachers’ skills and professionalism.

MacBeath and Galton (2004), in a report commissioned by the National Union of Teachers (NUT) found that subject-based professional development opportunities for many teachers were being severely curtailed. They discovered that, on average, teachers were spending three days a year on training for national initiatives, with one day a year allocated to all other initiatives. Furthermore, the report records the concerns of several teachers about the teaching requirements of the National Curriculum, suggesting that teachers are finding it increasingly difficult to challenge the existing orthodoxies of subject teaching within current institutional structures.

4.9.3 Career phase and identity

A paper, originating from The University of Nottingham School of Education (http://networkedlearning.ncsl.org.uk/knowledge-base/research-papers/effective-continuing-professional-development.doc Retrieved 29th May, 2008) notes the importance of taking account of career phase in relation to maintaining and raising standards of teaching and learning. The author suggests that, whilst this
is difficult to take into account in CPD which focuses upon knowledge and skill building, it is an important consideration when it comes to capability and capacity building. The paper goes on to identify the following five career phases:

- Launching a career (“novice” teachers).
- Stabilization (“advanced beginner” teachers).
- New challenges, new concerns (“competent” or “proficient” teachers).
- Reaching a professional plateau (“expert” teachers).
- The final phase (contraction of professional interest and activity).

Day et al. (2006) describe the VITAE project, a four-year endeavour designed to explore the work and lives of a purposive sample of 300 Key Stage 1, 2 and 3 teachers at different phases of their careers in 100 primary and secondary schools in different socio-economic contexts, drawn from seven local authorities in England. Publishing their findings in a peer-refereed journal, the authors employed an integrated mixed-method approach to identify variations in different aspects of teachers’ lives and work and examine possible connections between these and their effects on pupils, as perceived by teachers themselves and as measured by value-added national test scores.

From their work Day et al. (2006) distilled the following five key messages:
1. Teachers do not necessarily become more effective with experience.

2. Many teachers in the 8-15 years phase of their career are facing increasing work-life management tensions which are likely to increase in the years ahead and may adversely affect their commitment and effectiveness. With regard to CPD this needs to be targeted at teachers in this professional life phase, with particular focus upon sustaining commitment and quality in the context of the management of the more complex roles which many are now taking in their work and lives.

3. Age and experience alone do not contribute to teachers’ effectiveness.

4. There are specific influences that impact upon teachers’ Effectiveness. With regard to CPD, learning and development programmes should differentiate between the needs of:
   a. teachers in primary and secondary schools;
   b. teachers in schools of different kinds of socio-economic contexts; and
   c. teachers who are at vulnerable points in their personal and professional life phases.

5. Creating positive work conditions, meeting teachers’ professional
and personal needs and minimising teacher burn-out are key to encouraging teachers’ resilience, promoting teacher well-being and positive professional life trajectories, improving the conditions for teachers’ effectiveness in relation to pupils’ performance and, ultimately, school performance.

Recently, due to the work of the Commons Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families (which, at the time of writing, was carrying out an enquiry into teacher training), a further group, under-performing teachers, has come under the media spotlight (TES, 19th June 2009). Speaking to the Committee the Schools Minister, Vernon Coker, suggested that:

The most important thing is that we first support these teachers in school, as it’s clear even those who are excellent have struggled in the first instance; and there is no need for them to leave the profession. (Uncorrected transcript of evidence given to the Commons Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families, June 2009, Q. 261)

As part of its vision for teaching in 2012 (http://www.gtce.org.uk.gtc.teaching2012vision/ Retrieved 5th January, 2010) the General Teaching Council for England (GTC) is engaged in an ongoing project on the future of accountability in teaching. As part of this work the GTC commissioned a small-scale, qualitative study which set out to create a better understanding of the potential barriers to professional development for supply
teachers (GTC, 2009). Following a literature review, six case studies were conducted in six schools. These case studies consisted of interviews with supply teachers in all schools and head teachers in five of the six schools.

A significant omission, that makes it difficult for the reader to arrive at a judgement regarding the extent to which findings may be generalised, is that the report does not make it clear whether the schools in the sample were primary, secondary or a mixture of both. The report itself notes that access to supply teachers, and those who support their professional development in local authority contexts, proved particularly challenging. This was largely because many local authorities did not run supply services, played a limited role in organising supply, and relied largely upon private agencies. The report’s findings, which need to be considered in this context, may be summarised as follows:

- access to, and participation in, CPD for supply teachers is limited; and
- addressing access to effective CPD is problematic for a variety of reasons, not least of which are the diversity of supply teachers and the range of circumstances in which they work.

By way of a conclusion the report suggests that, if the practice of all teachers is to be supported and if (as the Government has indicated (DCSF, 2009))
(Chapter 1 Section 1.4), a system of licensing which requires teachers to demonstrate their competence is to be introduced, the unique CPD requirements of supply teachers need to be met.

4.9.4 Funding

Two studies, Joyce and Showers (2002) and Yoon et al. (2007) recognise that, in order to provide useful and effective professional development, funds need to be directed towards the provision of high-quality professional development experiences. Both studies also recognise that a major challenge to providing high-quality professional development is cost, and they acknowledge the dilemma that, although school managers feel a responsibility to reach large numbers of teachers, a focus on breadth in terms of the number of teachers served comes at the expense of depth in terms of quality of experience. However, Yoon et al. (2007) are clear in their assertion that, in order to provide useful and effective professional development that has a meaningful effect on teacher learning and fosters improvements in classroom practice, funds must be directed towards providing high-quality professional development experiences – a course of action that necessitates the focusing of limited resources on fewer teachers or the investment of sufficient resources to allow more teachers to benefit from high quality professional development.
Soulsby and Swain (2003), in their report on the Award Bearing INSET Scheme, found that, on some courses, as many as 60% of the participants were self-funded. Although this, they speculated, reflected the commitment of individual members of staff, it also reflected the fact that schools (particularly those in the primary sector) often cannot make the requisite long term financial commitment.

4.9.5 Time

A major theme in Prisoners of Time (NECTL, 1994) is that students and teachers are victims of inflexible and counter-productive school schedules. Professional development and collaboration generally must take place before or after school or in the summer, thus imposing on teachers’ personal time; during planning or preparation periods, which cuts into time needed for other tasks; or on the limited number of staff development days. The report goes on to suggest that teachers who sacrifice personal time or preparation time often experience burn-out from trying to satisfy competing demands on their time.

More recently, Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000) sought the perceptions of senior managers regarding barriers to organisational translation of professional development into improved pupil performance. Although the authors do not describe their selection process in detail, they do report that
their sample was chosen to include schools deemed to be highly effective, effective and underperforming on the basis of external inspection and published league table data. Following validation of their interview protocol, via a pilot study, they presented senior managers (head teachers and deputy head teachers) from 15 secondary schools with a combination of open and closed questions.

Asked to identify their perceptions regarding barriers to the impact of professional development within the classroom:

- an overwhelming majority (n=14) of the 15 schools indicated that time was a problem, specifically identifying that there was insufficient time to consolidate initiatives and see them through before a new one appears;

- lack of time was identified as the major detractor restricting the potential for staff development to impact on classrooms. In this context, four schools reported the necessity to respond to other, often urgent, priorities such as OfSTED and the administrative workload; and

- a small minority of the fourteen schools (n=2) expressed direct concern about the potential burn-out of teachers who may be motivated to engage in changes with immediate results, but would be far less enthusiastic and able to engage in projects
requiring substantial time input.

Additional barriers identified were concerned with the potential for staff inertia and resistance to change for reasons other than overload (n=5) and with inappropriate or bad training which missed teacher need (n=3).

As Rhodes and Houghton-Hill’s (2000) study focused upon the secondary school sector, and their findings relate to only one group of stakeholders within the schools studied, caution needs to be exercised when considering the implications of their findings for phase 2 of this research (whose focus is on schools in the primary sector). Having said that, the work was school-focused, and does signpost possible actions for further study concerning the individual learning of teachers and its transmission into enhanced learning for all pupils.

In similar vein to Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000), Hustler et al. (2003) note that, where lack of time or supply cover has led to provision outside school hours, teachers felt too tired to concentrate during twilight sessions, and this led to less effective outcomes.

With regard to the more wide-ranging demands imposed by CPD, Robinson and Sebba (2004) assert that time is probably the single most commonly
identified barrier to effective CPD and, in particular, to implementing change stimulated by CPD. Teachers need to understand new concepts, learn new skills, develop new attitudes, research, discuss, reflect, assess, try new approaches and integrate them into their practice; and time to plan their own professional development (Watts and Castle 1993; Troen and Bolles, 1994; Camborne, 1995; Corcoran, 1995). Camborne (1995) points out that teachers, as adult learners, need both time set aside for learning (e.g., workshops and courses) and time to experience and digest new ideas and ways of working. Rhodes et al. (2000) noted that nearly all the teachers in the 15 schools in their study considered there was insufficient time to consolidate on new initiatives and see them through before a new one appears.

With regard to collaborative forms of CPD (i.e. coaching and mentoring) the EPPI review (Cordingley et al., 2003) concluded that, if such processes are to be effective, time is needed for discussion, planning and feedback.

4.10 EP research into CPD practice

Following an unproductive advanced search of the Education Resources Information Centre, British Education Index and EBSCO electronic databases I conducted a manual search (covering the ten year-period beginning in June 2000) of the journal “Educational Psychology in
Practice”. This uncovered one example of EPs working directly with schools to promote a CPD model for sustainable change that could be used regardless of subject matter (Balchin et al., 2006) and three examples of EPs delivering CPD on specific topics: group work to help pupils avoid exclusion (Burton, 2006), cooperative learning (Davison et al., 2008) and collaborative action research to develop the use of solution-focused approaches (Simm and Ingram 2008).

Balchin et al. (2006) describe a pilot study carried out by a Local Authority Educational Psychology Service, Burton (2006) describes an initiative that grew out of consultative work in secondary schools with which she worked, Davison et al. (2008) describe a project that was commissioned by the headteacher of a school that had attended an INSET on learning styles given by one of the authors, and Simm and Ingram (2008) describe a project delivered as part of a joint Children’s Fund, Local Authority and Child and Adolescent Mental Health Service Initiative. Therefore, only one of the pieces of work described was carried out by an educational psychologist working in schools that formed part of their own patch.

4.11 Summary

The three main sources that this review drew upon were:

- official publications, i.e. documents published by government
departments and the findings of research carried out by, or on behalf of, government agencies;

- the findings of Parliamentary committees; and
- the research literature, i.e. primary sources in the form of research papers.

At this juncture I would refer the reader to Chapter 2 Section 2.11 that makes a number of points regarding the validity and reliability of each of these sources.

Of the many definitions of CPD that emerged from the educational literature, the most commonly adopted was that formulated by Day (1999, p.4). The key characteristics, reflected in the majority of the definitions found (Day, 1994; TTA, January, 2005; Bubb and Earley, 2005; West Midlands CPD Research and Development Group, Appendix), were that CPD relates to the development of both the individual and the workplace, covers both skills and affective aspects and continues throughout working lives. An exception was the more general definition, proffered by the CPD certification website (www.cpduk.co.uk).

The literature noted that, traditionally, CPD was viewed as a vehicle for improving individual skills, qualifying for salary increases and meeting
certification requirements with schools benefiting (primarily at classroom level) through whatever added value the learning experience gave to the individual teacher’s practice (Abdal-Haqq, 1996; West Midlands CPD Group, 2007). Documenting a move away from this stance, the literature recorded a growing appreciation of the strategic importance of CPD for:

- school improvement, e.g. with regard to reducing within-school-variation (Reynolds, 2004); and
- attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers in schools (OECD, 2005; Coker, 2009; Commons Select Committee for children, Schools and Families, 2009).

Since 1985 schools in England and Wales have had the option to set aside five INSET days per academic year as Teacher Training Days. Teacher Training Days are not without their critics. William et al. (2004) and William (2007) put forward the suggestion that such days should be replaced by teacher learning communities where up to ten teachers meet for two hours a month with the aim of sharing ideas, offering each other peer advice, comparing results from teaching strategies that they have employed and, ultimately, improving their teaching.

Leaton Gray (2005) asked teachers to describe any types of CPD that they had been involved with during the course of their career. She found that, broadly
speaking, on-going career development embraced four settings: within school (whole school training days or peer observation, for example); beyond a particular school (visiting other schools or joining teacher networks, for example); outside the school environment (attending short courses or studying on-line courses, for example) and within the wider community (taking part in outreach activities, for example).

In focusing upon the content of CPD provision rather than mode of delivery, Kennedy (1998) differentiated between four types of professional development: that which focused on teaching behaviours that applied, generically, to all subjects; that which focused on teaching behaviours that applied to a particular subject; that which focused on curriculum and pedagogy; and that which focused on how students learn and how student learning is assessed.

Turning his attention to the needs of the teacher as a learner, Guskey (1994) suggested that there was a need for an optimal mix of experiences that that took account of teachers’ life stage, teachers’ career development and school need; Day (1999) stressed the importance of relating learning experiences to workplace conditions and Goodall et al. (2005) advised that a key factor was ensuring an accurate match between provision and need. Similarly, starting with the premise that training needs to enable people to learn new knowledge and
skills and to transfer them into practice, Joyce and Showers (2005) argued the importance of helping people to become more effective learners.

Moving away from the literature directly relating to CPD there was evidence of a debate regarding the nature and depth of the knowledge required by teachers, a debate of relevance to those for whom the nature and content of CPD opportunities was important. Typical of the points discussed is the assertion, made by the House of Commons Education and Skills Select Committee (2006, paragraph 60), that, with regard to reading:

To be really effective, teachers of reading must have an understanding of the psychological and developmental aspects of the reading process and how children learn to read.

Turning their attention to what happens following participation in a CPD event, Joyce and Showers (1987) found that teachers quickly reverted to their customary practice. To overcome this they offered a five-step training model that included: explaining and justifying the new approach; demonstrating how it can be implemented in practice; letting the participants practice the approach; giving the participants feedback on their use of the new way; and helping participants work out what to do next to improve their implementation of the new approach. Others (Harland and Kinder, 1997. Chapter 4Section 4.7.2) have put forward designs for a typology of CPD outcomes intended to facilitate
measurement of the impact of CPD whilst Joyce and Showers (1987 Chapter 4 Section 4.7.2) offer a training model designed with the specific aim of changing classroom practice.

Focusing upon the management of CPD at a school level, OfSTED (2006) describe the arrangements in schools with good practice as a logical chain of procedures which begins with the identification of school and staff needs and ends with the evaluation of impact. However, even in these schools, OfSTED identified a lack of rigour at each stage of the process.

With regard to the evidence available to support decision making, commentators refer to the paucity of systematic research into the impact of CPD on either teaching or student outcomes (Garet et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2007) whilst others highlight difficulties associated with quantifying such outcomes. Flecknoe (2000), for example, suggests that the difficulties teachers experience in demonstrating that an intervention was successful are threefold, namely the difficulty (methodological and ethical) of showing that any pupil was gaining more against some criterion than s/he would have done under a different educational influence; the difficulty of demonstrating that causality was not the result of influences that had nothing to do with the teacher; and the difficulty of arguing against influences such as the Hawthorne effect (Chapter 4 Section 4.7.2).
There is also evidence for the slow take-up of initiatives. Citing mentoring and coaching activities as examples, Lord et al. (2008) point out the importance of CPD strategies that encourage a collaborative learning culture in organisations. Paradoxically, however, they go on to report that, although mentoring and coaching activities resonate with the new professional standards for teachers (whereby mentoring and coaching are now an expected part of a teachers’ everyday skill set), the understanding of mentoring and coaching appear to be more limited in the education sector than in other sectors.

Finally, the literature identifies a number of factors that have implications for ensuring the effective implementation of CPD initiatives, the most commonly cited being: support from senior management and colleagues which has implications for accessing training opportunities (Hustler et al., 2003) and the extent to which new initiatives can be implemented (OfSTED, 2004); the conflicting priorities with which schools and teachers are faced (Soulsby and Swain, 2003; McBeath and Galton, 2004); the need to tailor CPD opportunities to career phase and identity (Day et al., 2006); funding (Joyce and Showers, 2002; Soulsby and Swain, 2003; Yoon et al., 2007); and time (NECTL, 1994; Rhodes and Houghton-Hill, 2000; Cordingley et al., 2003; Robinson and Sebba, 2004).
4.11 Conclusions

Traditionally viewed as a vehicle for improving individual skills and career prospects (with schools benefiting through whatever added value the learning experience gave to the individual teacher’s practice), CPD is shown by the literature to be of strategic importance for such areas as the reduction of within-school-variation (Reynolds, 2004) and attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers in schools (OECD, 2005; Coker, 2009; Common Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families, 2009).

In attempting to distil the essence of good CPD practice researchers have variously explored: the nature of the activity and the setting in which it takes place (Leaton Gray, 2005); the content of the provision as opposed to its mode of delivery (Kennedy, 1998); the needs of teachers as learners (Guskey, 1994); the importance of relating learning experiences to workplace conditions (Day, 1999); and ensuring an accurate match between provision and need (Goodall et al., 2005).

What is apparent from the literature is the increasing recognition that effective CPD is the product of a logical chain of procedures that begins with the accurate identification of school and staff needs and ends with the effective evaluation of impact (OfSTED, 2006). The literature, however, also identifies a number of potential weak links in this chain, including: a lack of rigour (on the part of
schools) in implementing each stage of the process (OfSTED, 2006); a paucity of systematic research into, for example, the impact of CPD (Garet et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2007); and a range of other factors, including the support of senior managers (Hustler et al., 2003), funding (Joyce and Showers, 2002; Soulsby and Swain, 2003; Yoon et al., 2007) and time (NECTL, 1994; Rhodes and Houghton-Hill, 2000; Cordingley et al., 2003; Robinson and Sebba, 2004), that have implications for the effective provision, implementation and evaluation of CPD activities.

At this juncture I would note the work of Rowell (2006) and the TDA (2007) and, to the areas identified by OfSTED (2006), add the need for a written CPD policy. Table 4.1 lists (with the addition of the need for a school CPD policy) each of the components of OfSTED’s (2006) logical chain and uses the findings of the phase 2 literature review to provide examples of what one might see, in each area, in a school that was delivering best practice.

It is this logical chain (i.e. the extent to which schools in the sample cluster achieved it, the barriers they experienced to implementing it and the extent to which they overcame these barriers), and the degree to which school practice reflected the practice described in the literature, that formed the basis of my research.

**Table 4.1: The logical chain (OfSTED, 2006) and the delivery of best CPD practice**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logical Chain Component</th>
<th>Example of Best Practice</th>
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<tbody>
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156
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Desirable features identified within the literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School CPD policy</td>
<td>CPD policy should be:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- sufficiently detailed to provide the foundation for consistent practice and decision making (Rowell, 2006); and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- unique to the specific organisation (i.e. not compiled by “filling in the blanks” on a generic policy template) (Rowell, 2006; TDA, 2007)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Identifying school and staff needs</td>
<td>- Senior managers who:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- appreciate the potential for CPD to impact on the wholeschool (Abdal-Haqq, 1996); - understand the potential of CPD for raising standards (OfSTED, 2006) and reducing within-school variation; and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- are committed to using CPD as a key driver for school improvement (Hustler et al., 2003)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CPD policy should incorporate:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- effective arrangements for identifying the needs of the school (OfSTED, 2006); - effective arrangements for identifying the individual needs of staff (OfSTED, 2006);</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Continued)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- the use of Professional Development Portfolios to help</td>
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</table>
staff reflect on their CPD needs (through recording their achievements and considering how they can build on them by setting targets for the future (TDA, 2003)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planning to meet school and staff needs</th>
<th>CPD policy should incorporate strategies for ensuring:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- that CPD is based on accurate identification of need (Goodall et al, 2005; Hopkins and Harris, 2001);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- the effective use of the five professional development days to support school improvement;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- the effective management of financial resources to provide the CPD necessary to meet school and staff needs (Joyce and Showers, 2002; Soulsby and Swain, 2003; Yoon et al., 2007);</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- an accurate match between provision and need (Goodall et al., 2005; Hopkins and Harris, 2001);</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- that participants are engaged with planning process (Kelly, 2008);</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- that CPD relates learning experiences to workplace conditions (Day, 1999);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- that sufficient time is allocated to each CPD opportunity to ensure the acquisition, integration, reinforcement and consolidation of new skills (NECTL, 1994; Rhodes and Houghton-Hill, 2000; Cordingley et al., 2003; Robinson and Sebba, 2004); (Continued)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- that CPD is adequately funded</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Providing varied and relevant activities | CPD policy should:  
- incorporate a process that, first, identifies the outcomes that the training is intended to achieve and, then, select those training components that are most likely to succeed in achieving this (Guskey, 2000; Joyce and Showers, 2002);  
- enable the provision of CPD opportunities that relate learning experiences to workplace conditions (Day, 1999) and  
- facilitate the provision of CPD that moves teachers beyond simply hearing about new ideas towards a greater understanding (and critical consideration) of these ideas for participants’ own practice (Lieberman, 1996) |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| Involving support staff alongside teachers | CPD policy should:  
- recognise the full part that support staff can play in raising standards (OfSTED, 2006); and  
- provide support staff with good and varied opportunities for training and professional development (OfSTED, 2006). |
| Monitoring progress | CPD planning should incorporate strategies for ensuring transfer of |
| Evaluating the impact of professional development | CPD policy should:  
- Demonstrate a clear understanding of the term “impact” (Rhodes and Houghton-Hill, 2000); and  
- incorporate effective evaluation tools (Kelly, 2008) |
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<tr>
<td>executive control (Camborne, 1995; Corcoran, 1995; Troen and Bolles, 1994; Watts and Castle, 1993)</td>
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CHAPTER 5
PHASE TWO RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 Chapter overview
This chapter is presented in nine sections (including this overview). It is organised according to the headings listed in the contents.

5.2 The focus and purpose of the research
Chapter 1 section 1.3 describes the purpose of the research, whilst Figure 5.1:

- provides an overview of the evolution and design of the study; and
- illustrates how the subject was explored, in increasing depth, to identify and address those issues that are fundamental to the cluster’s endeavours to meet the needs of all pupils.
Table 5.1 The evolution and design of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase one</th>
<th>Phase two</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preliminary working title: An exploration of the efficacy of the school-based provision in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster, to ensure that the needs of all pupils experiencing special educational needs are met.</td>
<td>Formulation of phase two research questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Phase one scoping literature review</td>
<td>▪ Formulation and trialling of:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Phase one scoping Delphi study: n=10</td>
<td>- SENCo questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Refocusing of the research (informed by the findings of the phase one scoping literature review and the Delphi study).</td>
<td>- Semi-structured interview schedule</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Collection of data. Data collected from 4 of the 5 primary schools in the selected cluster (Schools A, B, C and D):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Whole-school CPD policy: n=2 (Schools C and D)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- CPD feedback sheet: n=1 (School B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Provision Map: n=1 (School B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Visitor’s evaluation form: n=1 (School C)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Continued)
The final focus of the research, and the formulation of the research questions, was informed by the findings of:

- an initial (scoping) literature review (Chapter 2); and
- a Delphi (scoping) study (Chapter 3).

Consideration of these findings led to the working title of the research project being modified to read:

“An exploration of the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) arrangements in place in primary schools in one local authority cluster.”

The specific research questions were:
1. What forms of CPD activity do those teaching in primary schools in the sample cluster engage in?

2. What practices do the primary schools in the sample cluster use to:
   - identify school and staff needs;
   - plan to meet those needs;
   - monitor the implementation of the knowledge gained from CPD activities;
   - evaluate the impact of their professional development programme.

I endeavoured to answer these questions by:

- using artefacts (school CPD policies and CPD related documents), a SENCo questionnaire and a semi-structured interview with the head teacher (or their nominated representative) to explore how the primary sector, in one cluster of schools, organised and evaluated their Continuing Professional Development (CPD); and

- comparing and contrasting the practices identified with those described in the literature.

5.3 The context within which the exploration took place

5.3.1 The Local Authority

The Authority’s website, downloaded 06.10.2009 (reference subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section10. Confidential Appendix 5(i)), reported that schools came under the auspices of the Directorate for Children, Young People and Families. The page went on to report that the aim of the Directorate was to deliver services in accord with the five key outcomes
identified in the Children Act 2004. These five outcomes ensured that children and young people were able to: “Be healthy; Stay safe; Enjoy and achieve; Make a positive contribution; and Achieve economic wellbeing”.

With specific reference to Continuing Professional Development, the Authority provided information, but:

- locating it proved difficult and necessitated the sending of several e-mails;
- details of a number of the authority’s CPD contacts were no longer current; and
- locating one, comprehensive source of information proved difficult.

Attempts to establish a comprehensive picture of the available information necessitated considerable searching of the Authority’s intranet and the internet in general.

(Documentation evidencing the foregoing is subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 6)

I did, however, locate websites and web pages that provided information regarding:

- the Authority’s Teachers’ Career Map, a device formulated to support career development and professional development by providing advice and guidance matched to each stage of a teacher’s career (reference
details subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 5(iii));

- a specimen whole-school CPD policy (Confidential Appendix 4); and
- links to other websites.

The most detailed and informative document uncovered via the web search was a Model School Workforce Professional Development Policy, the result of a piece of collaborative work between three local authorities (including the Authority in which the schools participating in this research are located) and a teacher’s union. Subsequent enquiries indicated that the policy had already been launched in one of these authorities, but did not clarify its status within the Authority within which the present research was being conducted. (Documentation evidencing the foregoing is subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 2).

5.3.2 The cluster

My intention was to seek the involvement of all of the primary schools in one Authority cluster. In the selected cluster this would have involved five schools. Four schools agreed to participate in my research. The newly appointed head teacher of the fifth school felt that, although she considered CPD important, there were other, more pressing, issues that she wanted to address.
5.3.3 The schools

5.3.3(i) School A

School A, a Church of England Aided Primary School, was situated in a residential area. An interview with the assistant head teacher revealed that, with 353 pupils on roll, it was larger than the average primary school. Although the majority of pupils (approximately 75%) were White British, the population was made up of a number of ethnic minority communities. The percentage of pupils whose first language was believed not to be English was below the national average. The proportion of pupils identified with learning difficulties and / or disabilities and those eligible for free school meals was above the national average.

The contents of an OfSTED report dated June 2007 (reference details subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10 Confidential Appendix 7(i)) indicated that, at this time, the school was given a notice to improve: “ … because it was performing less well than could reasonably be expected.”

The most recent report, dated September 2008 (reference details subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 7(i)), noted that:

(School A) is a satisfactory school. Since the previous inspection, the head teacher and staff have worked effectively with a range of external consultants
to raise standards and accelerate progress. Pupils’ achievement between Years 1 to 6 is now satisfactory and the decline in standards by the end of Year 2 has been halted. In accordance with Section 13(5) of the Education Act 2005, Her Majesty’s Chief Inspector is of the opinion that the school no longer requires significant improvement.

5.3.3(ii) School B

School B served a housing estate comprising largely social housing. An interview with the head teacher revealed that, with 205 pupils (98 boys and 107 girls) on roll, it was slightly smaller than the average primary school. However, numbers were rising and there was a waiting list in Reception. Although the large majority of pupils were White British, the population was made up of a number of minority ethnic communities. The proportion of pupils known to be at an early stage of learning English as an additional language (EAL) was broadly average. The proportion of children with learning difficulties and / or disabilities was well above the national average, as was the proportion of children eligible for free school meals. In some year groups, the proportion eligible for free school meals and having learning difficulties and / or disabilities exceeded 50%.

The contents of an OfSTED report dated July 2005 (reference details are subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential
Appendix 7(ii) indicated that, at that time, School B was judged to require special measures:

… because although the school is being supported by the local education authority and new systems and procedures are being implemented, it is in a very precarious state and is currently failing to provide its pupils with a satisfactory education.

Following this inspection, the school was led by a seconded head teacher for two terms, with the deputy head teacher sharing the leadership with the seconded head teacher during the third term. A new head teacher was appointed in September 2006 with a new deputy head teacher being appointed shortly afterwards.

Following the 2005 inspection the school was monitored, on a regular basis, by HMI and the most recent report, dated June 2008 (Reference details subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 7(ii)), noted that:

(School B) is now a good school. In accordance with section 13(5) of the Education Act 2005, HMI is of the opinion that the school no longer requires significant improvement. Although pupils’ starting points are mostly well below what is expected on arriving at the school, pupils are now making satisfactory progress in Key Stage 1 and good progress in Key Stage 2, attaining broadly average results by the time they leave in Year 6. The data the school has shows that these standards are likely to be sustained and may even be improved, but the school is not complacent.
5.3.3(iii) School C

School C was situated in an area that an OfSTED report dated July 2006 (Reference details subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 7(iii)) described as being of high economic deprivation. An interview with the head teacher indicated that, with 203 pupils on roll, it was slightly smaller than most primary schools. The school had a high proportion of pupils with learning difficulties / and or disabilities and an above average proportion of pupils eligible for free school meals. Attainment on entry to the school was below average, especially in communication, language and literacy. The school had a small percentage of pupils who were at the early stages of learning English as an additional language. A high percentage of pupils either entered or left the school at other than the usual times.

The most recent OfSTED report, dated July 2006 (reference details subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 7(iii)), reported that the school needed to:

- improve the quality of teaching and learning so that tasks set in lessons meet the needs of higher-attaining pupils; and
- develop the role of subject leaders so that they have a better understanding of how to raise standards in their subjects.
5.3.3(iv) School D

School D was situated in a residential area that served a catchment area described, in an OfSTED report dated October 2006 (reference details subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10. Confidential Appendix 7(iv)), as “deprived”.

An interview with the head teacher revealed that, with 205 pupils (98 boys and 107 girls) on roll, School D was slightly smaller than the average primary schools. The proportion of children eligible for free school meals was above the national average. Thirteen different ethnic groups were represented in the school, of which the largest was White British. The proportion of children speaking English as an additional language (EAL) was above the national average. The main additional language spoken was Somali. Around 5% of the children were at an early stage of learning English. An above average percentage of children had learning difficulties. Children started school in Reception with knowledge and skills well below those expected for their age. Between September 2006 and February 2007 32 new children joined the school.

The most recent OfSTED report, dated October 2006 (reference details subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section10. Confidential Appendix 7(iv)), reported that the head teacher and deputy head teacher carried a huge workload because the role of middle managers was underdeveloped. As a
result, aspects of good practice were not being identified and spread as quickly as they could have been in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning. This led to OfSTED’s recommendation that the school:

Raise the quality of teaching and learning, by ensuring that middle managers take greater responsibility for the monitoring of pupils’ and teachers’ performance and thus spread consistently good practice.

5.3.4 The respondents

I endeavoured, within the resources and goodwill available, to seek the views of more than one professional group. Although the original intention was to seek completion of two questionnaires, a SENCo questionnaire and a teacher questionnaire, several head teachers indicated that they did not wish to burden their staff with the latter. Thus, the respondents, for each school, were:

- the Special Educational Needs Coordinator (who completed the SENCo questionnaire); and
- the head teacher (or their representative) who participated in a semi-structured interview.

With regard to the former, three of the four were also members of their school’s senior management team. With regard to the latter, two head teachers put themselves forward to be interviewed, whilst one nominated their deputy head teacher and one nominated an assistant head teacher.
5.4 The research audience and the expected outcomes of the research for them

5.4.1 The research audience

It was anticipated that this research and its findings would be of interest to:

- myself and, through me, other professionals and members of the school communities and organisations with whom, and for whom, I work; and
- the Senior Management Teams of the school in the cluster in which the research was conducted.

5.4.2 The audience’s expectation of research outcomes

With regard to the first audience (myself):

- to enable me to compare my own CPD practices with the best practice described in the literature; and
- to enable me to encourage other school communities, professionals and organisations with which, and for whom, I work, to evaluate their CPD practices against the best practices described in the literature and to ask germane questions about how these might be improved.

The second audience, the Senior Managers with whom the data gathering process was negotiated, understood that the purpose the research was:

- to describe (in as much detail as the available resources and goodwill allowed) existing CPD practices within the cluster and compare these with the best CPD practices described in the literature; and
• enable them, should they wish, to assess their CPD practices in a new light and to ask questions about how these practices might be improved.

5.5 Methodology and methods proposed for the current study

5.5.1 Methodological considerations

Deciding on a research strategy presented me with challenges, opportunities and pitfalls in terms of the goodwill and resources available, the direction of the research and the usability of subsequent research outcomes. This section considers the issues with which the researcher was faced and describes the thinking that underpinned the selection of the methodology and methods that were employed in my own research.

According to Robson (2002, p.18): “The task of carrying out an enquiry is complicated by the fact that there is no overall consensus about how to conceptualise the doing of research.”

Within social research there is a long-standing and ongoing debate over the appropriateness of models of research.

In essence there are two main approaches to social science research, each of which represents (and is constructed on) strikingly different ways of looking at and interpreting social reality – the established, traditional quantitative
approach which “supported by the positivist or scientific paradigm, leads us to regard the world as made up of observable, measurable facts” (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992, p.6) and the historically more recent interpretative approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings, such as “the real world setting [where] the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest” (Patton, 2001, p.39). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000, p.5):

The former holds that social sciences are essentially the same as the natural sciences and are therefore concerned with discovering natural and universal laws regulating and determining individual and social behaviour; the latter view; however, while sharing the rigour of the natural sciences and the same concern of social science to describe and explain human behaviour, emphasises how people differ from inanimate natural phenomena and, indeed, from each other.

Positivist research refers to the scientific approach to research, in that the researcher is concerned with objective reality and absolute truths. The major assumption is that most knowledge is objectively measurable. This demands that the researcher adopts an observer role (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Inherent in the approach is the expectation that other researchers handling similar data will come to similar conclusions. Positive research usually involves a hypothesis being devised and tested empirically in a setting. This paradigm is usually regarded as starting with a theory and following a clear, linear sequence of data collection and then analysis. The principal concerns in
this paradigm are the concepts themselves, their measurement (predominantly qualitative) and the identification of underlying behavioural patterns.

Cohen and Manion (1994) state that there are many advantages to positivist research: it yields useful information; it is possible to eliminate extraneous causal factors; it allows generalisation of social activity; and it facilitates prediction. However, some difficulties may be encountered. These are: some effects may be difficult to test; results may be ecologically invalid as the research occurs in artificial settings; the approach does not attempt to understand culture; and there may be ethical dilemmas (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

In contrast, those engaged in anti-positivist research view knowledge as personal, subjective and unique, and impose on the researcher a legitimate involvement with research participants (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

McLeod (2001 p.2) summarises the nature of qualitative research thus: “The primary aim of qualitative research is to develop an understanding of how the world is constructed.”

Qualitative research often intertwines data collection and analysis; frequently with each informing the other in a recursive cyclical process. The principal concern is an understanding of the way in which the individual creates,
modifies and interprets the world in which he or she finds himself or herself. The advantages of this approach are that the results can help make sense of an organisation or situation in a meaningful way. However, this advantage raises a debate regarding the issue of subjectivity. In order to balance the subjectivity of the researcher’s perspective, triangulation may be used to provide a means of validation.

Regardless of the debate over subjectivity, qualitative research is, according to Walker et al. (2005 p.90): “primarily an inductive process that provides fresh information about ‘taken-for-granted’ issues, or areas where little is known.”

Despite its strengths, qualitative research is often perceived as less prestigious than quantitative research. McLeod (2001) suggests a number of reasons as to how this situation has arisen. Primarily, he argues, quantitative research is perceived as a more effective way of building legitimacy. This is largely because the majority of past research has been dominated by disciplines where hypothesis testing and experimental research designs are considered the norm. McLeod also suggests that the majority of researchers have not received adequate or sufficiently supportive training in discovery-orientated research. On this point Yin (1987, p.26) observes that (although methods associated with discovery-orientated research have traditionally been considered as “soft” research) the “softer” a research technique, the harder it is to do.
Notwithstanding these controversies, Bell (1987, p.6) notes that:

Each approach has its strengths and weaknesses and each is particularly suited for a particular context. The approach adopted and the methods of data collection selected will depend on the nature of inquiry and the type of information required.

Indeed, in some cases, a combination of the two approaches might be more suitable (Scott, 1996).

More recently Crompton (2006) has suggested that, although the descriptions commonly encountered imply that the scientific (positivist) approach and the illuminative (post-positivist) approach are polarised at either end of a continuum, it is possible to make use of both within the complexity of educational research.

In considering choice of methodology within the context of the need to resolve the complex problems with which educational psychologists are frequently faced, Miller (2006) asks:

Do educational psychologists need to try harder to become scientist practitioners? does scientific, psychological research need to change to address (and meet) the concerns (and needs) of practitioners? or do both have to move forwards towards some new fusion?
Ultimately, the overriding factor in choice of approach has to be “fitness for purpose” (Cohen et al. (2002, p.42).

The richness and vividness of the description of events pertinent to a study is dependent upon the researcher being able to:

- sample a comprehensive range of informants (Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) suggest that, in an ideal world, the researcher would be able to study a group in its entirety);
- explore multiple sources of evidence; and
- employ a comprehensive range of data-gathering techniques.

Ideally, with regard to the CPD processes in place to meet the needs of staff in primary schools in a Local Authority cluster, my data-gathering would have included the acquisition of a comprehensive range of documentation (including whole-school CPD policy, CPD portfolios, CPD feedback sheets and Provision Maps); seeking the views of a comprehensive and representative sample of the school community (teaching and support staff via surveys, questionnaires and interviews); and observing CPD processes in action (including tracking CPD events from inception, through to the evaluation of their efficacy). With regard to the latter, for example, Appendix 5.iv contains a questionnaire devised (by the present author) in consultation, and for use, with schools at stage 2 (identifying school and staff needs) of the logical chain presented in Table 4.1. However, as a piece of real-world research, I had to
square my desire to achieve the foregoing with the resources and goodwill that were available to me (Chapter 5 Sections 5.6 and 5.6.1). Consequently, the following approaches were considered and the practicalities of implementation assessed against the real world constraints with which I was faced.

5.5.2 Case study

Yin (1994; cited in Robson, 2002 p178) describes case study as:

A strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence.

Although this definition suggests that my own research might be described as a case study. However, in describing the features of an exemplary case study, Yin (1984 p.141-3) provided a tighter description by suggesting that:

- the case study must consider alternative perspectives; and
- the case study must be complete.

Furthermore, Gerring (2004) suggested that a case study is best defined as an intensive study of a single unit with an aim to generalise against a larger set of units.

Seen in this light, describing the methodology underpinning my research as a case study starts to become problematic. Specifically, Chapter 5 Section 5.5.3
of this study records that ambitions for the research needed to be moderated according to the individual school circumstances and the goodwill and resources available and that this:

- impacted upon the range of perspectives that could be sampled; and
- limited the extent and nature of the data that could be accumulated.

5.5.3 Evaluation

Mertens (1998, p.219) suggested that, although many definitions of evaluation have been proposed, the following is one that seems to persist over time: “Evaluation is the systematic evaluation of the merit or worth of an object (program) for the purpose of reducing uncertainty in decision-making”.

This was borne out by Robson’s definition (2002, p.202), which describes an evaluation as a “study which has a distinctive purpose”, that purpose being to “assess the effects and effectiveness of something, typically some innovation, intervention, policy, practice or service.” In similar vein Morrison (1993, p.2), in placing the emphasis upon its usefulness for assisting with decision-making, described evaluation as: “the provision of information about specific issues upon which judgements are based and from which decisions for action are taken.”
Chelinsky and Mulhauser (1993, p.54), in raising “the inescapability of politics”, suggested another dimension that should be woven into a comprehensive, working definition of the term “evaluation”.

Favouring a fuller description, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000, p.40) considered that a comprehensive definition of evaluation should include reference to most of the following key features: answering specific, given questions; gathering information; making judgements; taking decisions; and addressing the politics of a situation.

In summarising its uses, Scriven (1967; cited in Mertens, 1998, p.232) suggested that an evaluation can perform either a formative or a summative function. More recently, Patton (1994; cited in Mertens, 1998, p.232) suggested that evaluations can also play a developmental role.

Summative evaluations, according to Mertens (1998), provide judgements about a programme’s worth or merit. Similarly, Robson (2002, p.208) described summative evaluations as concentrating on assessing the effects and effectiveness of a programme. This, he suggested, is likely to cover the total impact of the programme: not simply the extent to which stated goals are achieved, but all the consequences that can be detected.
Formative evaluations, according to Mertens (1998), are conducted during the operation of a programme to provide information useful for improving that programme. This is very much in accord with the definition given by Robson (2002) who suggested that: “Formative evaluation is intended to help in the development of a programme, innovation or whatever is the focus of the evaluation”.

Developmental Evaluation, according to Patton (cited in Stockdill et al., 1992, p.26):

… is pre-formative in the sense that it is part of the process of developing goals [Patton’s emphasis] and implementation strategies. Developmental evaluation brings the logic and tools of evaluation into the early stages of community, organisation, and program development.

Although aspects of the present study could be considered to embrace elements of the foregoing, according it the status of an evaluation is precluded for much the same reasons that preclude it from being considered a case-study (Chapter 4 Section 4.5.2) i.e. the range of perspectives sampled and the nature and extent of the data collected – both of which were restricted by the constraints within which the researcher was operating (Chapter 4 Section 4.2).

5.5.4 Exploration

Robson’s classification of the purpose of enquiry (Robson, 2002, p.59) identifies the following functions of exploratory research:
• To find out what is happening.
• To seek new insights.
• To ask questions.
• To assess phenomena in a new light.
• To generate ideas and hypotheses for new research.

It is Robson’s description of the functions of exploratory research that most closely matches the focus (Chapter 5 Section 5.2), purpose and expected outcomes of this study (Chapter 5 Sections 5.3 and 5.4.2). This, considered in conjunction with the limitations that excluded the study from being considered a case study or an evaluation, led to the adoption of the descriptor “exploration”.

5.6 The research design of the present study

With regard to my study I sought to construct an illuminative approach (Chapter 5 Section 5.5.1) that endeavoured, within the resources and goodwill available (Chapter 5 Section 5.6.1), to explore the CPD processes in place in the sample schools. Specifically, Chapter 5 Section 5.2 describes the focus of the research and Chapter 5 Section 5.4 describes the research audience and the expected outcomes of the research for them. Given the limitations that excluded the study from being considered a case study or an evaluation, I opted for the descriptor “exploration”.
5.6.1 Possible constraints and sources of disruption

Robson (2002, p.208) highlights the fact that researchers who engage in “real world” research are also working in “real time” and that:

This means that there is a tension between doing something “cheap and nasty” (and quick), of likely low reliability and validity, and better-quality work where the findings come too late to meet important decision points in the development of the project.

With regard to my research, I was not working to a specific time limit. The main concern was the securing of reliable information upon which to provide feedback to schools. However, the research was conducted in competition with the significant number of other demands that compete for the finite amount of time available both to schools and to practising psychologists.

Managing this very real constraint necessitated early negotiation, the purpose of which was to achieve a balance between the nature and extent of the data-gathering process that the participating schools considered reasonable (e.g. access to informants and documents, the number and length of questionnaires and the form and duration of interviews) and the extent to which I needed to observe and immerse myself in the workings of the school in order to achieve the purposes of my research. With regard to all schools in the sample, the consensus was that head teachers did not want their staff to be burdened with questionnaires or interviews, and that interviews with senior staff should be time-limited.
Ambitions for the research also had to be moderated according to individual school circumstances and the goodwill and resources available. This impacted upon the range of perspectives that could be sampled and limited the extent and nature of the data that could be accumulated. Specifically, given that two of the schools had experienced critical OfSTED reports (Chapter 5 Section 5.3.3), which had triggered scrutiny and input from a number of quarters, I was anxious to avoid creating additional stress or adding unreasonably to their workload.

The strategies employed to overcome these possible sources of disruption and sabotage included:

- endeavouring to alleviate any perceived threat, and enabling potential participants to make an informed decision about whether to participate or not, by being clear and transparent about the purpose and intended outcomes of the research;
- ensuring that participants understood that participation was voluntary and that they had the right not to opt in and the right to opt out, at any point, should they choose to do so; and
- taking, and allowing participants to take, the steps necessary to ensure the anonymity of the schools and individuals taking part.

To accommodate the foregoing the data collection process negotiated and agreed with the schools consisted of: the provision of documents, the
completion of a SENCo questionnaire and participation (by each headteacher) in an individual, semi-structured interview of between 45 and 60 minutes duration.

5.6.2 Reliability

Robson (2002, p.551) describes reliability as the extent to which a measuring device, or a whole research project, would produce the same results if used on different occasions with the same object of study. According to Miles and Huberman (1994, p.278) the underlying issue, with regard to reliability, is whether the process of the study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods. Citing Goetz and LeCompte (1984) they suggest that we can, in effect, speak of “quality control” or, in Miles and Huberman’s own words, “Have things been done with reasonable care?”

When judging (testing) qualitative work, Strauss and Corbin (1990, p.250) suggest that the “usual canons of ‘good science’ … require redefinition in order to fit the realities of qualitative research”.

To widen the spectrum of conceptualization of reliability and revealing the congruence of reliability and validity in qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.316) states that: “Since there can be no validity without reliability, a demonstration of the former [validity] is sufficient to establish the latter [reliability]”. Patton (2001), with regard to the researcher’s ability and
skill in any qualitative research also states that reliability is a consequence of the validity of a study.

Kirk and Miller (1986) pointed to the danger of “quixotic” reliability (what happens when multiple respondents give a monolithic party-line answer) and, by way of illustration, called attention to the fact that a broken thermometer is 100% reliable – but not very valid. In this regard, although I sought information from different professional groups (SENCOs and head teachers) and from different sources (questionnaires, interviews and policy documents), it has to be borne in mind that:

- three of the SENCOs were also a member of their school’s senior management team; and
- the content of the policies and documents provided by schools will have been subject to management approval.

5.6.3 Validity

5.6.3(i) Construct validity

According to Robson (2002, p102) the crucial issue here is: does each measuring instrument measure what you think it measures? At its simplest, he suggests, one might look for what seems reasonable (sometimes referred to as “face validity”) i.e. asking the question: does it seem that we are measuring what we claim to be measuring?
Robson goes on to advise that, given that any one way of measuring or gathering data is likely to have its shortcomings, consideration should be given to the use of multiple methods.

My research employed a strategy known as triangulation, an approach that involves the use of multiple sources to reduce threats to validity and enhance the rigour of the research. According to Miles and Huberman (1994, p.267), the term “triangulation” seems to have been coined by Webb et al. (1965) who spoke of validating a finding by subjecting it to “the onslaught of a series of imperfect measures.”

According to Golafshani (2003, p.630) Triangulation is typically a strategy (test) for improving the validity and reliability of research or evaluation of findings. Mathison (1988, p.13) elaborates upon this by saying:

Triangulation has risen an important methodological issue in naturalistic and qualitative approaches to evaluation [in order to] control bias and establishing valid propositions because traditional scientific techniques are incompatible with this alternative epistemology.

Patton (2001, p.274) advocates the use of triangulation by stating:

Triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data, including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

- data triangulation: the use of more than one method of data collection (e.g. observation, interviews, documents);
- observer triangulation: using more than one observer in the study;
- methodological triangulation: combining quantitative and qualitative approaches;
- theory triangulation: using multiple theories or perspectives.

Of these, this study:

- endeavoured to elicit the views of more than one professional group (i.e. SENCOs and head teachers);
- employed data triangulation, specifically the use of artefacts, questionnaires and interviews; and
- employed methodological triangulation, specifically, by combining quantitative and qualitative approaches.

5.6.3(ii) Internal validity

Citing Van Maanen (1988) and Connelly and Clandinin (1990), Miles and Huberman (1994, p.278) associate the term “internal validity” with such descriptors as credibility, authenticity, plausibility and adequacy.
Warner (1991) speaks of natural validity – the idea that the events and settings studied are not contrived and remain unmodified by the researcher’s presence and actions.

In these regards, this study:

- endeavoured, within the resources and goodwill available, to provide a context-rich and meaningful description of the CPD process in place in the schools studied;
- gave each interviewee the opportunity to check their interview transcript (Appendix 4.v), and give an opinion on, its accuracy;
- identified areas of uncertainty, i.e. those worthy of further investigation (Chapter 7); and
- identified where findings were replicated in more than one part of the database (Chapter 6).

5.6.3(iii) External validity

Miles and Huberman associate the term “external validity” with such descriptors as transferability and fittingness. Put simply: “We need to know whether the conclusions of a study have any larger import” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.279). Citing Lincoln and Gubba (1985) they go on to suggest that, in general terms, the questions that need to be asked include the following:

- Are they (the findings) transferable to other contexts?
• How far can they be “generalized”?

To enable the reader to make an informed decision regarding these issues I endeavoured to:

• describe the characteristics of the original sample of settings, respondents and processes in sufficient detail to enable adequate comparisons with other samples;

• include enough thick description for readers to assess the potential transferability and appropriateness for their own setting; and

• provide sufficient detail to allow replication efforts to be mounted.

5.6.3(iv) Pragmatic validity

According to Miles and Huberman (1994, p.280), even if a study’s findings are “valid” and transferable, we still need to know what the study does for its participants – researcher, researched and consumer. Citing Kvale (1989), they report that we simply cannot avoid the question of “pragmatic validity”; it is an essential addition to more traditional views of “goodness”.

5.6.4 Selecting design (methods of enquiry)

By way of conclusion, this study could best be described as an exploration (chapter 4 section 5.5.4). Given that the methods employed encompassed both qualitative and quantitative approaches, the design was of mixed methodology.
5.7 The data collection process

Table 5(i) details the research questions and the instruments used to collect the information required to answer these questions. It then highlights significant issues specific to the data gathering techniques employed in this study.

5.7.1 The purpose of the data collection process

The purpose of the information (data) gathering process was, within the constraints of the resources and goodwill available to me, to create as complete a picture as possible of the CPD practices in place in primary schools in one local authority cluster of schools.

In putting together the data gathering process, efforts were made to minimise the burden upon participants by determining the most efficient and least disruptive way of gathering the requisite information. To this end a three stage approach was negotiated.

5.7.2 Stage 1 of the data collection process

Each school was asked if they would be willing to share CPD related documents and artefacts. The purpose of this was to:

- contribute to the process of building up a detailed picture of the CPD procedures in place in the schools in the sample cluster; and
- form part of the triangulation process (chapter 5 section 5.6.3(i)).
A specific request was made for a copy of the school’s CPD policy and an example of a CPD portfolio. Table 6.1 (Chapter 6 Section 6.2) details the documents and artefacts that were provided.

5.7.3 Stage 2 of the data collection process

This entailed the administration of a Special Educational Needs Coordinator questionnaire designed to survey current practice and attitudes, in relation to the provision and evaluation of CPD activities, which would:

- add depth to the process of building up a detailed picture of the CPD procedures in place in the schools in the sample cluster;
- inform the agenda for the next, more probing (structured interview) phase of the data gathering process; thereby
- enabling the best use to be made of the limited time available for phase 3 of the process; and
- forming part of the triangulation process (chapter 5 section 5.6.3(i) ).

Although the original intention was to seek the completion of two questionnaires, a senior management questionnaire and a teacher questionnaire, several head teachers indicated that they did not wish to burden their staff with the latter.
5.7.4 Stage 3 of the data collection process

This consisted of semi-structured interviews designed to:

- add further depth to the process of building up a detailed picture of the CPD procedures in place in the schools in the sample cluster;
- explore ambiguities that arose during the first and second phases of the data gathering process;
- create as complete a picture as possible of the CPD practices in place in the participating primary schools.
- Form part of the triangulation process (Chapter 5 Section 5.6.3(i)).

5.8 Development of the data collection instruments

5.8.1 The special Educational Needs Coordinators’ questionnaire

5.8.1(i) Choice of format

Questionnaires can utilise an open question format or a closed question format. The former allows the respondent to formulate their own answer; the latter provides a number of alternative answers from which a choice has to be made (Cohen et al., 2000). Although an open question format has the advantage of not superimposing responses or expectations, their completion can be time-consuming and analysing and summarising their results can be a lengthy and difficult process (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Cohen et al., 2000; Robson, 2002). Following discussion with the head teacher of each school in the sample it was decided to use a closed question format. The perceived
advantages of this approach were that, being comparatively quicker and easier to answer, it minimised the burden on respondents and, being quicker and easier to analyse, it minimised the burden on the researcher. The foregoing, in the context of the resources and goodwill available, were important considerations. With regard to the disadvantages of the closed question format, Chapter 5 Section 5.7 considers the threats to reliability and validity inherent in the approach and summarises the steps taken to overcome these.

5.8.1(ii) Development and trialling of the Special Educational Needs Coordinator questionnaire

A pilot questionnaire was produced which contained seven questions:

- Question 1 endeavoured to identify the range of types of CPD provided; and
- Questions 2 to 7 endeavoured to explore attitudes and practices surrounding the evaluation of CPD activities.

Question 1

Listing twenty types of CPD activity, question 1 sought information regarding the frequency with which staff engaged in each of these activities. The content of the list was informed by the findings of Leayton Gray (2005) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5), who asked teachers to describe any type of CPD that they had been involved with during the course of their careers.
Questions 2 to 7

One of the research purposes (Chapter 1 Section 1.3) was the comparison of the findings of my study with those described in the literature. To facilitate this, permission was sought from one of the authors (Appendix 3.1) to use the relevant parts of a questionnaire devised by Goodall et al. (2005) for the largest single investigation into the evaluation of the impact of CPD in UK schools. Based upon their work, this part of my questionnaire comprised of six questions:

1. How do you evaluate the effectiveness of a CPD event?
2. When evaluating the effectiveness of a CPD event, which aspects do you assess?
3. How important is it to evaluate the impact of CPD?
4. How confident are you in evaluating the impact of CPD?
5. Which methods do you use for evaluating CPD events?
6. Which methods do you consider to be the most useful for evaluating CPD events?

Each question was presented in the form of a grid that offered respondents a range of possible answers (presented in the form of adverbs ordered by degree of intensity).

Piloting the questionnaire

As noted by Borg et al. (1993), if one plans to use an existing instrument, it is important to describe the efforts made by its authors to establish its validity.
and reliability. Although Goodall et al. (2005) provide a copy of their questionnaire, their paper does not describe the formulation and trialling of the instrument. Also, when one modifies an instrument or combines instruments in a study, the original validity and reliability may be distorted, and it becomes important to re-establish validity and reliability (Borg et al., 1993). For these reasons a draft version of the questionnaire was given to two SENCos whose schools would not be part of the final study. An accompanying sheet asked the following questions:

1. With regard to question 1, are there any types of CPD that you are aware of but are not listed on the questionnaire?
2. How long did it take you to complete the questionnaire?
3. Were the instructions clear?
4. Was the layout clear and easy to follow?
5. Were any questions ambiguous?
6. Did you find any questions objectionable?
7. Please comment on the ease with which you were able to complete the questionnaire and note any difficulties that might be encountered by future respondents.

Analysis of the feedback:

- revealed some forms of CPD that were not included in the list based upon Leaton Gray’s (2005) findings;
suggested that some respondents might not fully understand the meaning of some of the terms used (e.g. coaching and mentoring);

reported that some of the descriptors were no longer relevant. It was pointed out that the Beacon Schools initiative, having ended in 2005, no longer exists. The current vehicle for encouraging schools to work together and share learning are the Primary Strategy Learning Networks;

reported uncertainty over the meaning of the wording e.g. does “engage in” mean as a recipient of CPD, as a deliverer of CPD, or both?;

indicated a completion time of approximately 30-40 minutes.

In response to the above:

the forms of CPD not covered by the list based upon Leayton Gray’s findings were added to the questionnaire;

terms that were no longer relevant (e.g. Beacon Schools) were removed;

a glossary was drawn up for circulation with the questionnaire; and

the wording was amended to include the words “as recipients”.

Appendix 3.iii contains a copy of the questionnaire as it appeared in its final form.
5.8.2 Development of the Senior Management Structured Interview Schedule

5.8.2(i) Choice of format

Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000) describe a study based upon the premise that part of the role of senior managers is to influence the translation of teacher learning into classroom experience, and that they have perceptions about how they do this. To enable them to explore these perceptions they developed an interview protocol constructed around the following six questions:

1. Why is professional development sought within the organisation?
2. What constitutes good professional development?
3. How are the outcomes of professional development disseminated?
4. How does the organisation evaluate the effect of professional development within the classroom?
5. What are the perceived barriers within the organisation to the impact of professional development within the classroom?
6. What are the perceived barriers within the organisation to the impact of professional development within the classroom experience of pupils?

These six questions were adopted as the starting point for the development of my senior management interview schedule. At this juncture it is important to note that, because modification of a measuring instrument can lead to distortions (Borg et al., 1993), it is important to re-establish the instrument’s
validity and reliability. What follows describes the measures taken to achieve this.

5.8.2(ii) Development and trialling of the Senior Management Structured Interview Schedule

Each question was examined to ensure that the responses built upon and enriched the description of CPD practices in my sample cluster. This led to: a modification of the wording of some questions; the addition of supplementary questions; and the formulation of additional questions.

The resulting interview schedule was discussed with two head teachers whose schools would not be part of the final study. They were specifically asked to comment on: the face validity of the interview; how long they felt an interview would take; whether any questions were ambiguous; whether any questions were objectionable; the ease with which they felt they would able to answer the questions; and any difficulties that might be encountered by future respondents.

The feedback suggested that the face validity of the schedule was high and that, if answered diligently, the responses would provide a valuable insight into the theory and practice underpinning a school’s CPD policy.
Although none of the questions was considered objectionable, the schedule (considered as a whole) was considered challenging. The point was made that this was not a bad thing (quite the reverse, in fact) but, for the “faint-hearted”, a little “softening” might be prudent. The examples given related to questions 4 and 5, whose wording, it was suggested, assumed that there were going to be concerns. Whilst any experienced head teacher knows that there are always going to be issues that need to be addressed, the items might be made more “user-friendly” by adding the words “if any”, i.e., by changing “What are the barriers to providing effective CPD?” to “What are the barriers, if any, to providing effective CPD” and “What are the barriers that prevent the knowledge gained from CPD being translated into practice?” to “What are the barriers, if any, that prevent the knowledge gained from CPD being translated into practice?”

It was felt that the questions were clearly worded and couched in a language appropriate for their target audience of senior managers. However, to ensure that “all eventualities” were covered, it was suggested that it would be worth thinking up some prompts in advance so that (if the meaning or purpose of a question was not clear to a respondent) these were readily to hand and would be the same ones given to other respondents that might need them.

More problematic was the estimation that, to answer all of the questions fully, a whole session (i.e. a morning or an afternoon) would be required. The
actions suggested to overcome this, which were adopted, were to time-limit each interview but to provide respondents with a transcript of their interview and give them the opportunity to examine it, amend it and comment on its accuracy.

Interviewees’ responses were recorded in the form of contemporaneous notes which were written up as soon as possible after the interviews had taken place. Respondents were then asked to examine the transcript and comment on its accuracy (Appendix 4.iv).

5.9 Data analysis

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992, p.157):

Analysis involves working with the data, organizing them, breaking them into manageable units, synthesizing them, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned, and deciding what to tell others.

For this study:

- I used semi-structured interviews to collect the data from respondents; and
- responses were recorded in the form of contemporaneous notes which were written up as soon as possible after the interviews had taken place (with respondents being given the opportunity to examine the notes and comment on their accuracy).
According to Creswell (2002, p.267), coding is the process of labelling text and segmenting it to form broad themes. The themes are then “aggregated codes” and are used “to form a major idea of the database”.

Macmillan and Schumacher (2006, p.364) suggest that: “Qualitative analysis is a relatively systematic process of coding, categorizing and interpreting data to provide explanations of a single phenomenon of interest”

For this study, the data (the individual responses of a member of each participating school’s senior management team) were organized so as to identify themes relating to the CPD arrangements in place to enable staff to meet the needs of all pupils.

To achieve this, the data were coded and themes were identified according to three categories: consensus themes, supported themes and individual themes. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), consensus themes are when the majority of the respondents state the same theme; supported themes are when approximately half of the respondents state the same theme; and individual themes are when one or two respondents state a theme. Given the small number of respondents (n=4), consensus themes were considered to be those supported by three or more respondents, supported themes were considered to be those supported by two respondents, and individual themes those supported
by one respondent. In reporting the data, I identified each theme with the number of respondents who identified that theme.

5.10 Ethical considerations

As with Phase 1 (and as described in chapter 3), Phase 2 of the research was undertaken in accordance with the commonly agreed standards of good practice for bioresearch and adhered to the ethical guidelines agreed by the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004) and the principles of ethical research set out by the British Psychological Society (BPS, 2007). Table 4.1 summarises the requirements of good practice, possible challenges and the action taken in order to ensure compliance with the ethical requirements.

With regard to issues that needed to be considered whilst planning and implementing the research, Chapter 5 Section 5.2 describes its focus and purpose whilst chapter 5 section 5.4 describes its audience and the negotiated outcomes for them. Achieving these outcomes did not involve participants who were particularly vulnerable or were unable to give informed consent. It is also necessary to note that, although my original intention was to involve teaching staff in the data-gathering process, several headteachers indicated that they did not want their staff to be burdened with this.
With regard to the collection of data, respondents had control over what they chose to share or not to share. Furthermore (with regard to the semi-structured interviews) respondents were given the opportunity to examine the transcript of their interview, amend it and comment on its accuracy (Appendix 4.v).

During the course of the research I did identify an issue that had implications for the confidentiality and anonymity of participants. In brief, in describing the local authority climate in which the sample schools operated, it was necessary to make reference to internal authority documents, the authority’s website and personal communications in the form of e-mails. The dilemma was that:

- if I failed fully to reference my sources it would prove difficult for others to check their authenticity and my interpretation of their content, which has implications for making judgements about the validity and reliability of my research;
- if I did fully reference the sources (and put copies of the relevant documents in the Appendix), it could lead to the Authority, schools and individuals being identified.

Following consultation with a member of the University of Birmingham’s Ethics Committee (Appendix 4.vi) it was decided to retain information that might identify organisations or individuals but refrain from including it in the references or appendix. However, should other researchers be interested in following up or verifying any unreferenced aspect of my research they are
welcome to make contact with me to discuss whether full disclosure of the references or documents is appropriate.

Table 5.3: Possible ethical challenges and the actions taken to address them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirements</th>
<th>Possible challenges and proposed action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficence and non-malfeasance</td>
<td><em>Being asked to participate in an exploration of the processes for which you (as a member of the school’s management team) are responsible could be perceived as threatening by participants.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Sought supervision and guidance from university tutor</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- At each stage it was emphasised to participants that the purpose of the research was to gain insight into the workings of processes i.e. not to focus on individuals or to investigate individual cases.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Trialled written correspondence and data collection instruments (with subjects independent of the research) to ensure that they:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- conveyed the above messages;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- were not judgemental or critical; and</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- adhered to the principle of minimal intrusion (BERA, 2004), i.e. only asked those questions that provided the data required to address current research questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informed consent</td>
<td><em>Respondents might not understand the purpose of the study and how the data might be used:</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Potential participants were approached face-to-face and:</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>- informed of the aims and methods of the research;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- offered the opportunity to ask questions and seek clarification;</td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>(Continued)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- reassured that their participation was voluntary;
- assured that they were free to withdraw at any time before completion of questionnaires or participation in interviews

- Followed up face-to-face contact with written information providing:
  - details and aims of the research; and
  - contact details of the researcher

- Participants self-selected from the initial field of potential participants

- Completion of phase 2 questionnaires and participation in the phase 2 interview process was accepted as the respondent giving informed consent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confidentiality and anonymity / secure data storage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Responses</strong>: might be traceable to respondents; or contain information that referred to third parties (whose consent for involvement in the research had not been sought):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Sought advice and guidance from a member of the University’s Ethics Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>- All questionnaires given a unique identifier</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Any features of completed questionnaires which identified the respondent were removed, by researcher, upon receipt</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Content that enabled the identification of third parties was removed</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Kept the data in a secure place</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Respondents were given a copy of their interview transcript and asked to:</td>
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<tr>
<td>- take any steps considered necessary to ensure anonymity;</td>
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<tr>
<td>- make any amendments or additions that would enhance the accuracy of the transcript; and</td>
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<tr>
<td>- give an indication of how accurately the transcript reflected the CPD processes in place in their school</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

It was this, amended, transcript that informed the final discussion (Chapter 7)
CHAPTER 6
PHASE TWO FINDINGS

6.1 Chapter overview

This Chapter presents the findings of the data gathering process (Chapter 5 Section 5.7). It is presented in four sections (including this overview):

- section 6.2 describes the practice of the schools in the sample as identified through the collection of documents and artefacts;
- section 6.3 describes the practices of the schools in the sample as identified through the SENCo questionnaire; and
- section 6.4 describes the practices of the schools in the sample as identified through the semi-structured interviews.
6.2 Documents and artefacts

Table 6.1: Documents and artefacts provided by schools in the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document / artefact</th>
<th>School A</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>School C</th>
<th>School D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Whole-school CPD policy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example of a CPD portfolio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD feedback sheet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision Map</td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitor’s Evaluation Form</td>
<td></td>
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<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the start of the research project schools were asked for any CPD-related documents that they felt able to share with the researcher. The whole-school CPD policy and an example of staff CPD portfolios were specifically mentioned. With regard to the CPD portfolios the consensus was that these were the personal property of each individual member of staff, and that it would not be appropriate to share these.
Rowell (2006), in discussing policies in general, emphasised the need for them to be current and accessible to all stakeholders. With regard to:

- the latter, neither policy (Confidential Appendix 3.i and 3.ii) was dated nor provided a specific review date (although School C’s policy did contain a sentence to the effect that it would be reviewed annually by the Governing Body);

- the former, School C’s policy offered no clue as to who had been provided with, or how staff accessed, a copy, whilst School D’s policy, in support of the interviewee’s assertion that staff were familiarised with the school’s CPD policy during the course their annual performance management interview, incorporated provision for staff to sign to show that they had received a copy of the policy.

Both Rowell (2006) and the TDA (2007) emphasise the need for a policy to be detailed and specific. In this regard, the policy provided by School C varies from being reasonably specific and detailed to being unclear. With regard to principles, values and entitlements, for example, the policy makes it clear that the central emphasis will be on improving standards and the quality of teaching and learning and goes on to identify the information used to link and integrate CPD with the school’s improvement plan.
In other areas, wording is more akin to a statement of intent rather than unambiguous guidance for staff. An example of this is the assertion that “Quality assurance mechanisms will ensure that school accesses provision of a consistently high standard”—a statement which, however, does not give the reader an indication of what these quality assurance mechanisms are.

6.3 The findings of the Special Educational Needs Coordinator questionnaire

The Special Educational Needs Coordinator questionnaire (Appendix 4.11) consisted of two parts: Part 1 (Provision) explored the forms of CPD in which staff engaged, and Part 2 (Evaluation) explored issues surrounding the processes employed to appraise the efficacy of CPD activities.
### Table 6.2: Summary of CPD activities that cluster staff: 1. most often engage in as recipients, 2. occasionally engage in as recipients, and 3. rarely or never engage in as recipients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CPD activities that staff most often engage in as recipients n=4</th>
<th>CPD activities that staff occasionally engage in as recipients N=4</th>
<th>CPD activities that staff rarely or never engage in as recipients n=4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Conferences / lectures (3);</td>
<td>- Peer coaching</td>
<td>- Secondments /sabbaticals (0);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Single workshops (half-day / twilight) (3);</td>
<td>- Mentoring</td>
<td>- HE courses /programmes (1);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- INSET days (4);</td>
<td>- Action-research projects</td>
<td>- and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Short (one-day) training programmes (4);</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Best Practice research scholarships (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Critical friendships (3);</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Key stage meetings (convened for skill development, not administrative purposes) (3);</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Staff meetings convened for skill development, not administrative purposes) (4); and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Extend training programmes(e.g. provided by LEA/NCSL) (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results obtained from this section of the questionnaire beg the question: Why was staff participation in some types of activity more prevalent than participation in other types of activity? Are the activities that staff engaged in:

- A product of their schools’ perceptions of the purpose of CPD?
- Related to their schools’ perception of what constitutes good professional development?
- Dictated by factors and pressures outside their schools’ control? or
- Are there other issues or barriers that impact upon and influence the choice of activities?

The foregoing were considered worthy of consideration for further exploration during the third (structured interview) phase of this project.
6.3.2 Part 2 - Evaluation

With regard to evaluating the effectiveness of CPD (Question 2.1):

(n=4)

- three schools reported that they always or usually evaluated the
effectiveness of a CPD event;
- two schools reported that their evaluation arrangements differed for
different types of CPD;
- one school reported that it involved participating staff in designing the
evaluation of CPD events; and
- one school reported that the findings of the evaluation were fed back to
  staff.

Asked how important it was to evaluate the impact of CPD on a range of
outcomes (Question 2.3) all four schools reported that it was very important or
important to evaluate:

- participant satisfaction;
- changes in participant views (i.e. attitudes / confidence to deliver);
- improvements in participant knowledge / skills;
- organisational change; and
- student outcomes.
However, asked which aspects of a CPD event they actually assessed (Question 2.2), only participant satisfaction and change in participant views (i.e. attitudes / confidence to deliver) were cited by all schools.

Although the responses to question 2.4 (which asked respondents to indicate their level of confidence in evaluating the impact of a range of CPD outcomes) had the potential to provide one possible explanation for this discrepancy, this was not the case, as all schools maintained that they were confident in evaluating:

- changes in participant behaviour;
- organisational change; and
- student outcomes.

Table 6.3 summarises the responses to questions 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4 in a format that highlights the inconsistencies between what schools considered it important to assess, their perceived levels of confidence to assess, and what they actually assessed in practice.
Table 6.3: Summary of responses to Q2.2, Q2.3 and Q2.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q 2.3 Those aspects of CPD that schools consider it important to assess n=4</th>
<th>Q 2.2 Those aspects of CPD that schools always or usually assess n=4</th>
<th>Q 2.4 Those aspects of CPD that schools feel very confident or confident at assessing n=4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Participant satisfaction</td>
<td>• Participant satisfaction</td>
<td>• Changes in participant behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Changes in participant views e.g. attitudes, confidence to deliver</td>
<td>• Changes in participant views, e.g. confidence to deliver</td>
<td>• Organisational change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Improvement in participant knowledge/skills</td>
<td>• Organisational change</td>
<td>• Student outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Student outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The anomalies are clear:

Firstly, schools consider it important to evaluate the impact of CPD at a range of levels that broadly equate to those proffered by Guskey (2000).

Secondly, schools indicate that they only evaluate the first two levels as a matter of course.
Thirdly, the areas that they evaluate regularly are those that they rate themselves as least confident in measuring, whilst those areas that they purport to be confident in are neglected.

Given the anonymous nature of the administrative process, and the researcher’s inability to revisit respondents to seek clarification, these findings provide a timely reminder of the limitations of questionnaires as research tools. However, the anomalies were targeted for exploration during the third (structured interview) phase of the project. The findings of this stage of the process are discussed in Chapter 7 Section 7.2.12.

Consideration of the responses to questions 2.5 (which methods do you use for evaluating CPD events?) and 2.6 (which methods do you consider to be the most useful for evaluating the impact of a CPD event?) raised further anomalies in that very few of the methods that schools consider to be very useful / somewhat useful for evaluating the impact of a CPD event appear to be used, by them, in practice.

Table 6.4 summarises the responses to these questions in a format that emphasises these inconsistencies.
Table 6.4: Summary of responses to Q2.5 and Q2.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q 2.6 Methods considered very useful/somewhat useful for evaluating the impact of CPD n=4</th>
<th>Q 2.5 Methods always/usually used for evaluating the impact of CPD n=4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Interviews with staff</td>
<td>• Interviews with staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Classroom observation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pupil outcome measures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Interviews with pupils</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pupil attitude or other non-cognitive measures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Collection of documentary evidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The anomaly is clear. Although schools considered a range of methods to be useful for evaluating the impact of CPD, it was reported that only one (interviews with staff) was used on a regular basis.

Given the anonymous nature of the administrative process, and the researcher’s inability to revisit respondents to seek clarification, these findings (along with those noted in Section 6.2=3.1) provide a reminder of the limitations of questionnaires as research tools.

This anomaly was targeted for further exploration during the third (structured interview) phase of the project (Section 6.4.8). The findings are discussed in Chapter 7 Section 7.2.12.
6.4 The findings of the semi-structured senior management interviews

This section summarises the findings, obtained from the semi-structured senior management interviews, in the form of tables that show consensus, supported and individual themes (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) (Chapter 5 Section 5.9). Appendix 6.ii contains tables recording individual school responses, the purpose of which is to enable individual schools to compare their practice with other cluster practice.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), consensus themes occur when the majority of the respondents state the same theme; supported themes are when approximately half of the respondents state the same theme; and individual themes are when one or two respondents state a theme. Given the small number of respondents (n=4): consensus themes were considered to those supported by 3 or more respondents, supported themes were considered to be those supported by 2 respondents, and individual themes those supported by 1 respondent.
6.4.1 Q.1 Why is Continuing Professional development (CPD) sought within your school?

Table 6.5: Summary of the responses to Question 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n-4</th>
<th>Improve individual teacher / classroom practice</th>
<th>Improve teacher confidence</th>
<th>Enable staff to develop their interests</th>
<th>Career advancement</th>
<th>A practical demonstration of staff worth</th>
<th>To benefit / improve the performance of pupils</th>
<th>Organisational change / school improvement</th>
<th>To meet local / national needs</th>
<th>Recruitment / retention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totals:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Primary purpose</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Consensus theme</td>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supported theme</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individual theme</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary and tertiary purposes</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Consensus theme</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supported theme</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individual theme</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The primary purpose of CPD

The consensus theme was that the primary purposes of CPD are organisational change and school improvement, with individual themes being: to improve teacher confidence, and to benefit / improve the performance of pupils. It needs to be noted that the total number of responses adds up to 5, one more than the number of schools in the sample. This is because the respondent for School C (Appendix 4) offered two themes (To benefit / improve the performance of pupils and Organisational change and school improvement), both of which were considered to be of primary importance.

Secondary and tertiary purposes of CPD

The consensus themes (proffered by three respondents each) were that the secondary and tertiary purposes of CPD were: the career advancement of staff, the practical demonstration of staff worth, to improve individual teacher / classroom practice and to enable staff to develop their interests.

This suggests that, within the sample schools, the majority of schools consider the primary purpose of CPD to be organisational change and school improvement with its secondary and tertiary purposes being recognition of the needs of individual staff.
Individual responses added the meeting of national and local needs and the recruitment and retention of teachers to the themes already mentioned.

6.4.2 Q2. What does good CPD look like?

Table 6.6: Summary of the responses to Question 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n-4</th>
<th>Results from accurate evaluation of need</th>
<th>Mode of delivery appropriate for achieving the required learning outcome</th>
<th>Standard of delivery fitting for an audience of professional educators</th>
<th>Does what it says it’s going to do</th>
<th>Presenter(s) with whom the recipient(s) can identify</th>
<th>Content that is relevant and grounded in good practice i.e. relates learning to workplace conditions</th>
<th>Content differentiated according to the needs of all recipients</th>
<th>Transfers “executive control”, i.e. incorporates follow-up, monitoring of implementation and feedback on how Balance between theory and practice</th>
<th>Cost effective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totals:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Consensus theme</td>
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<td>Supported theme</td>
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<td>Individual theme</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

223
The consensus theme was that the content of CPD should be relevant and grounded in good practice, i.e. should relate learning to workplace conditions. Supported themes included the need for CPD: to do what it says it is going to do, to provide differentiated content so as to meet the needs of all recipients, and to be cost-effective.

Individual responses referred to the importance of ensuring: that the mode of delivery was appropriate for achieving the required learning outcomes, a standard of delivery appropriate for an audience of professional educators, delivery from presenters with whom the recipients can identify, and a balance between theory and practice.

Table 6.6 also shows two themes that did not register a responses from schools, both of which are areas that the literature review identified as important to the delivery of effective CPD, namely that CPD should result from an accurate identification of need (Goodall et al., 2005; Hopkins and Harris, 2001) (Chapter 4 Section 4.7.2), and should incorporate strategies for ensuing transfer of executive control (Camborne, 1995; Corcoran, 1995; Troen and Bolles, 1994; Watts and Castle, 1993) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5).
6.4.3 Q3. What are the barriers, if any, to providing effective CPD?

Table 6.7: Summary of the responses to Question 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N=4</th>
<th>Time – Balancing conflicting priorities</th>
<th>Time – for embedding</th>
<th>Time – Work-life balance</th>
<th>Funding</th>
<th>Reaching all staff</th>
<th>Disruption to pupils’ learning</th>
<th>Attitude / motivation of participants</th>
<th>Inadequate grasp of the school’s needs</th>
<th>Lack of support from senior management and colleagues</th>
<th>Poor appreciation of staff needs – career phase and identity</th>
<th>Availability of quality providers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consensus theme</td>
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<td>Supported theme</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual theme</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The consensus themes, with regard to the barriers to providing effective CPD, were: time (specifically with regard to balancing the array of conflicting priorities with which schools are faced), and funding. Supported themes included: the difficulties that schools experience reaching all staff, the possibility of disruption to pupils, and the availability of quality providers.
Individual responses identified barriers relating to: time (for embedding CPD initiatives and with regard to work-life balance), and the attitude/motivation of participants.

Table 6.7 also shows that three themes did not register a response from schools. All three of these are areas that the literature review identified as possible barriers to the delivery of effective CPD; namely: an inadequate grasp of the school’s needs, a lack of support from senior management and colleagues, and a poor appreciation of staff needs (with regards to career phase and identity).
6.4.4 Q4. How are decisions made regarding the provision of CPD?

Table 6.8: Summary of the responses to Question 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n=4</th>
<th>School need (as identified in the SDP)</th>
<th>Performance Review Process (PRP)</th>
<th>OfSTED recommendations</th>
<th>Local initiatives</th>
<th>National initiatives</th>
<th>Pupil need e.g. school’s Provision Map</th>
<th>Opportunistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consensus theme</td>
<td>Totals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supported theme</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual theme</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.8 shows that the consensus themes that had the greatest impact on decisions regarding the provision of CPD were: school need (as identified in the school development plan (SDP), the School’s performance review process, national initiatives, local initiatives and OfSTED recommendations.
Individual responses referred to were: pupil need (as identified by the school’s Provision Map), and the need/expediency of taking advantage of opportunistic CPD activities.

6.4.5 Q5. Is it necessary to make specific arrangements for specific groups e.g. according to career phase or identity?

Table 6.9: Summary of responses to Question 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consensus theme</th>
<th>Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs)</th>
<th>More experienced teachers e.g. teachers having completed 4/5</th>
<th>Middle managers</th>
<th>Senior managers</th>
<th>Part-time staff</th>
<th>Supply staff</th>
<th>Staff that are struggling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n=4</td>
<td>Total:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consensus theme</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supported theme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual theme</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The consensus themes, with regard to those groups that needed specific arrangements, were: Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs), and more experienced
teachers (i.e. those having completed 4/5 years in the profession). The CPD needs of middle managers were identified as a supported theme, whilst an individual response identified the CPD needs of senior managers.

Four categories of staff did not register a response from respondents, all of which the literature review identified as groups requiring specific CPD arrangements, namely: teachers in their first five years, part-time staff, supply staff, and staff that are struggling (GTC, 2009).

6.4.6 Q6. How are the outcomes of CPD activities disseminated?

Table 6.10: Summary of responses to Question 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n=4</th>
<th>Feedback sheet / pro-forma</th>
<th>Cascading</th>
<th>Coaching / mentoring</th>
<th>Staff / Key stage meetings</th>
<th>Informal conversations / discussions</th>
<th>Handouts</th>
<th>Sharing practice / Observing colleagues</th>
<th>Feedback to other organisations e.g. schools and colleges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totals: Consensus</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The consensus themes, with regard to how outcome of CPD activities were disseminated, were: the use of a feedback sheet / pro-forma, and staff / key stage meetings. Coaching / mentoring and informal conversations between staff were identified as supported, themes whilst cascading, sharing practice with / observing other colleagues and feedback to other schools and colleges were identified as individual themes. One theme, the use of handouts, did not register a response.

With regard to the first of the consensus themes (the completion of a feedback sheet / pro forma) I would draw attention to Section 6.1.1, Table 6.1, which indicates that one school (School B) volunteered a copy of its feedback sheet.
6.4.7 Q7. What are the barriers, if any, that hinder the dissemination of the knowledge gained from CPD activities?

Table 6.11: Summary of responses to Question 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Consensus theme</th>
<th>Supported theme</th>
<th>Individual theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totals:</td>
<td>n=3*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* In one school (School C), the pre-arranged time limit of 45 minutes expired before it was possible to ask this question

The consensus theme, with regard to barriers to the dissemination of knowledge gained from CPD activities, was time.
6.4.8 Q8. How does your organisation evaluate the impact of professional development?

Table 6.12: Summary of responses to Question 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n=4</th>
<th>Participant reaction, e.g. feedback sheet / pro-forma</th>
<th>Pupil outcome data</th>
<th>Classroom observation / learning walks</th>
<th>Examining pupils’ work</th>
<th>Recording and reporting systems e.g. for behaviour</th>
<th>Professional Development Process (including P.D.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total:</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consensus theme</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supported theme</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual theme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The consensus themes, with regard to the evaluation of the impact of CPD activities, were: the use of pupil outcome data, classroom observation, and the Professional Development Process (including the use of Professional Development Portfolios). Participant reaction (e.g. the use of a feedback sheet / pro-forma) was identified as a supported theme, whilst the examination of pupils’ work was identified as an individual theme. One theme, the use of
recording and reporting systems (e.g. for behaviour) did not register a response. With regard to the latter, however, I would draw attention to Section 6.1.1 Table 1, which records that one school, School D, did provide a copy of a Visitor’s Evaluation Form (Confidential Appendix 3(iii)) that could, in the context of this question, be considered to perform an evaluative function.
6.4.9 Q9. Which changes / impacts are the most difficult to measure?

**Table 6.13: Summary of responses to Question 9**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Qualitative aspects of change e.g. participant attitude / confidence</th>
<th>Improvement in participant knowledge / skills</th>
<th>Changes in participant behaviour</th>
<th>Student outcomes</th>
<th>Organisational change</th>
<th>Tracking back change to a particular CPD event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n=3*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Totals:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consensus theme</td>
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<td>Supported theme</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individual theme</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*In one school (School C), the pre-arranged time limit of 45 minutes expired before it was possible to ask this question

With regard to the impacts / changes that are most difficult to measure, only two themes were noted (both at the individual level): organisational change and tracking back change to a particular CPD event. Four themes did not register a
response: qualitative aspects of change, improvement in participant knowledge and skills, changes in participant behaviour, and student outcomes.
7.1 Chapter overview
This chapter discusses the purposes of my research (Chapter 1 Section 1.3) in the light of the findings of the phase two literature review (Chapter 4). It is structured according to the headings listed in the Contents.

7.2 A comparison of the CPD practices of the schools in which the research was conducted with the best practice described in the literature
This section is structured according to the modified logical chain (OfSTED, 2006) (Chapter 4 section 4.11) as depicted in Table 4.1.

7.2.1 The school CPD policy
With regard to the first link of the logical chain, Table 6.1 indicates that two schools (School C and School D) provided a copy of their CPD policy (availability subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10, Confidential Appendix 3(i) and 3(ii)).
Rowell (2006) (Chapter 4 Section 4.7.1), in discussing policies in general, emphasised the need for them to be current and accessible to all stakeholders. With regard to:

- the latter, neither policy was dated nor provided a specific review date (although School C’s policy did contain a sentence to the effect that it would be reviewed annually by the Governing Body);

- the former, School C’s policy offered no indication as to who had been provided with, or how staff accessed, a copy, whilst School D’s policy, in support of the interviewee’s assertion that staff were familiarised with the school’s CPD policy during the course their annual performance management interview, incorporated provision for staff to sign to show that they had received a copy of the policy.

Both Rowell (2006) and the TDA (2007) (Chapter 4 Section 4.7.1) emphasise the need for a policy to be detailed and specific. In this regard, the policy provided by School C varies from being reasonably specific and detailed to being unclear. With regard to principles, values and entitlements, for example, the policy makes it clear that the central emphasis will be on improving standards and the quality of teaching and learning, and goes on to identify the information used to link and integrate CPD with the School’s improvement plan.
In other areas, wording is more akin to a statement of intent rather than unambiguous guidance for staff. An example of this would be the assertion that “Quality assurance mechanisms will ensure that school accesses provision of a consistently high standard”, made without any indication of what these quality assurance mechanisms are.

7.2.2 Identifying school and staff needs

The second link of the logical chain is the identification of school and staff needs. In this regard Table 6.6 shows the primary and secondary reasons given by interviewees for seeking CPD within their school.

7.2.2(i) Primary purpose

The consensus theme, supported by 3 interviewees (Schools B, C and D), was that the primary purpose of CPD was to support organisational change that leads to school improvement. One interviewee (School A) felt that the primary purpose of CPD was to improve teacher confidence (with a view to achieving the secondary purposes of improving the performance of pupils, school improvement and the meeting of local and national needs).

Thus, responses reflected two opposing views. On the one hand, organisational change leads to school improvement (top-down); on the other
hand, improved teacher confidence leads to school improvement (bottom-up).

The former (the consensus view that the primary purpose of CPD was to support organisational change that leads to school improvement) sits well with both Abdal-Haqq’s (1996) forecast of a growing appreciation of the potential impact of professional development on the overall school and the literature that identifies the importance of managers who understand the potential of CPD for raising standards (OfSTED, 2006) and are committed to using CPD as a key driver for school improvement (Hustlet et al., 2003). The latter (the assertion that the primary purpose of CPD was to improve teacher confidence) contains echoes of the view, held for many years (Abdal-Haqq, 1996), that schools benefited through whatever added value the CPD experience gave to an individual teacher’s practice.

7.2.2(ii) Secondary purposes

Consensus themes, each supported by 3 interviewees, identified the secondary purposes of CPD as: career advancement, and a practical demonstration of staff worth.

Supported themes, each supported by two interviewees, identified the secondary purposes of CPD as: improving individual teacher / classroom practice, and enabling staff to develop their own interests.
Individual themes identified the secondary purposes of CPD as: improvement in pupil performance, organisational change / school improvement; and the achievement of local / national initiatives. Thus (in suggesting such areas as improving individual teacher practice, enabling staff to develop their own interests, facilitating career progression and a practical demonstration of staff worth) interviewees stressed the importance of CPD to individual staff. This, viewed in conjunction with the consensus view that the primary purpose of CPD was the “top-down” function of supporting organisational change, implies that interviewees, whilst acknowledging the importance of CPD to individual teachers, considered its principal function to be strategic.

Although interviewees talked about the purposes of CPD in varying degrees of detail, responses to questions tended to be given in general terms, and specific examples proved elusive. Asked about the primary purpose of CPD, for example, the interviewee responding on behalf of School D suggested that this was to move the school forward. Asked to elaborate, the interviewee suggested: “Addressing issues, e.g. new developments and areas of weakness”. Asked for a specific example, the interviewee suggested: “Identifying and building upon strengths”. Thus, there was an absence of explicit reference to individual issues, e.g. within-school-variation Reynolds, 2004 (Chapter 4 Section 4.4).
Although not referred to by any of the respondents during the interviews, one school’s CPD policy (School C) acknowledged the role of CPD in assisting recruitment and retention. With regard to the latter (and illustrative of the interdependence of the needs of the school, the needs of the staff and the need for effective CPD) the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2005) found that teachers place a great deal of emphasis on opportunities to develop their skills.

7.2.3 Planning to meet school and staff needs

During each semi-structured interview the interviewee was asked: how decisions were reached regarding the provision of CPD and if their school made specific arrangements for specific groups of staff. Table 6.8 shows those factors reported to have an influence upon senior managers decisions with regard to the provision of CPD.

7.2.4 How are decisions reached regarding the provision of CPD?

Consensus themes (each reported by at least 3 respondents) included: school needs (as identified in the School Development Plan), the needs of individual teachers (as identified through the Performance Review Process), OfSTED recommendations, actions needed to ensure the success of national initiatives and actions needed to ensure the success of local initiatives.
Balancing these pressures presents senior managers with a number of challenges, one of which is achieving a balance between short-to medium-term need and medium-to long-term need. According to Soulsby and Swain (2003) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.2), for example, whilst it might be expedient for schools and Government to tailor professional development to their perceived short-term needs, this is not a sustainable position—CPD should be viewed as a long-term investment in developing teachers’ skills and professionalism.

The literature suggests that CPD practice should incorporate strategies for ensuring: that CPD is based on accurate identification of need (Goodall et al., 2005; Hopkins and Harris, 2001), an accurate match between provision and need (Goodall et al., 2005; Hopkins and Harris, 2001) and that participants are engaged with the planning process (Kelly, 2008). All interviewees reported that the principal vehicle for linking school and staff need to training opportunities was the school’s Performance Management process. Although implementation varied slightly from school to school, the common components were an annual target-setting meeting (that usually included a review of the previous year’s targets) with follow-up meetings (sometimes formal, sometimes informal) taking place during the intervening year.
Individual themes, each identified by one respondent, were: individual pupil need (as identified via the school’s Provision Map) and opportunistic CPD.

7.2.5 Does school make specific arrangements for specific groups, e.g. according to career phase?

The literature specifically refers to the importance of CPD that takes account of career phase and identity (Guskey, 1994; Day et al., 2006) including the needs of supply teachers (GTC, 2009). Table 6.9 shows the groups for which the cluster’s schools make specific CPD arrangements.

The interviewee responding on behalf of School A reported that the purpose of the school’s performance management process was the meeting of the needs of each member of staff as well as those of the organisation. By doing this it was felt that, by implication, the needs of groups would be adequately met.

The interviewee responding on behalf of School B reported that school was guided by the Authority’s Teachers’ Career Map; a model that, using the National Standards for Teachers and Head Teachers, follows through chronologically from career to experienced school leadership. Asked if it was possible to see a copy of the model I was shown a chart displayed on the wall of the staffroom and directed to the Authority’s intranet (reference details
subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 5.10. Confidential Appendix 5(iii)).

Those groups explicitly referred to during the interview process were:

7.2.6(i) Newly Qualified Teachers

Not all schools were currently employing an NQT, but all had comparatively recent experience of working with one. With regard to the £1,000 that schools receive for each NQT that they employ, the consensus view was that this barely covered the minimum requirement of 10% non-contact time and that schools had to be creative in ensuring that induction and training needs were adequately met. One interviewee (School B) indicated that meeting the needs of new entrants to the profession was the responsibility of all staff and, therefore, a whole-school issue.

7.2.6(ii) Teachers in their first five years

The interviewee responding on behalf of School C felt, as with pupils, that:

It was important to look at individual need rather than assume that, because a member of staff belonged to a particular grouping, they would need x, y or z”. Having said that the interviewee went on to say that the school did have procedures in place to ensure that members of certain groups are encouraged to think about the direction of their career and do not “drift”.
Asked to give an example he suggested a dedicated discussion with those coming up to the end of four or five years in the teaching profession, the purpose of which would be to encourage them to think about the direction in which they see their career developing.

**7.2.6(iii) Underperforming teachers**

One interviewee (School D) alluded to those teachers struggling (or experiencing significant difficulty) with some aspect of the work, a group that, due to the work of the Commons Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families (2009) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.3), has come under the media spotlight (TES, 19.06.2009). They did not wish to elaborate on this other than to say that, in their view, the primary function of the Performance Management process was to support as much as was practicably possible whilst ensuring that the effectiveness of the school was not compromised – a view in accord with that of the schools minister, Vernon Coaker, who, in oral evidence to the Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families, reported that:

> The most important thing is that we first support these teachers in school, as it is clear even those who are excellent have struggled in the first instance; and there is no need for them to leave the profession. (Uncorrected transcript of evidence given to the Commons Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families, June 2009, Question 261).
With regard to the second part of this statement (the possibility of new entrants to the profession experiencing difficulties) the interviewee responding on behalf of School B pointed out that, if a NQT failed in a particular area, the school was obliged to provide evidence of the nature and extent of the support given.

7.2.7 Providing varied and relevant activities

Evidence regarding the provision of relevant and varied activities comes from both the Special Educational Needs coordinator questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews.

7.2.8 The findings of the Special Educational Needs Coordinator questionnaire

Based upon the work of Leaton Gray (2005) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5), SENCos were asked to identify the extent to which staff engaged in a range of CPD activities as participants. Prior to Leaton Gray, Lieberman (1996) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5) identified three settings that moved teachers beyond simply hearing about new ideas towards a greater understanding (and critical consideration) of these ideas for their own practice. These are: direct teaching (via conferences/lectures, single workshops, INSET days and short (one day) training programmes); learning in school (via peer coaching, mentoring,
critical friendships and action research) and learning out of school (via participation in learning networks).

Given that the only activities that staff rarely or never engage in (as recipients) are reported to be secondments or sabbaticals, higher education programmes and BEST Practice research scholarships (Table 6.2), findings suggest that, despite the small sample of schools, activities representative of a broad range of the activities identified by Leaton Gray, and of all three areas of Lieberman’s classification, are practised within the cluster.

Since 1985 schools in England and Wales have had the option to set aside up to five INSET days per academic year as Teacher Training Days. These are included within the school year to allow head teachers to bring their staff together for training purposes. It is perhaps not surprising, therefore, that schools identified CPD activities delivered in the form of INSET and short (one day) training programmes as those which staff engaged in most often.

With regard to the apparent paucity of staff participating in higher education courses and programmes (Table 6.2), Soulsby and Swain (2003) postulate that:
• this form of development is being overshadowed by centralised training initiatives that are aimed at whole-school improvement and linked to Government policy; and

• schools, particularly those in the private sector, are often unable to make the requisite long-term financial commitment.

Given that there is now a national framework for coaching and mentoring (DfES, 2005 (Chapter 4 Section 4.5 and Chapter 4 Section 4.6), and that these activities are now an expected part of our teachers’ everyday skill set and a key aspect of CPD and performance management (Lord et al., 2008) (Chapter 4 Section 4.6), it would seem reasonable to expect CPD activities based upon these to be well represented. However, these (Table 6.2) only featured as activities that staff occasionally participated in. Of relevance at this juncture is the observation, made by Lord et al. (2008) that, compared with the social care sector, an understanding of mentoring and coaching appears to be limited in the education sector.

7.2.9 The findings from the Semi-structured interviews

Table 6.6 shows the factors that interviewees considered contributed towards the success of a good professional development activity. Although views were generally expressed in an ad hoc as opposed to a structured manner (i.e. not in
accordance with a previously thought-out philosophy or paradigm), the cluster of factors proffered by several schools is similar to those detailed in the five-step training model put forward by Joyce and Showers (1987) (Chapter 5 Section 5.6).

Asked to identify the primary feature of good CPD, responders mentioned the importance of achieving the right balance between theory and practice (School A and School D) and the importance of the training being provided by “leading edge” practitioners (School C). The interviewee responding on behalf of School B considered it inappropriate to identify just one factor and suggested that: “… to be described as ‘high quality’ a CPD event had to deliver on a number of criteria”.

Examining each of these responses in depth, the respondent for School A asserted that:

Class teachers want to come away with something practical that they can apply to their work – not to be bogged down with theory. We need evidence-based practice but, as long as the trainer knows there’s a strong evidence base for what they’re saying, how much does the teacher really need to know? I’m not saying that theory isn’t important, but there needs to be a balance that isn’t always there.
Within the literature, this view is lent support by authors like Cowley (2001, p.x) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5) who asks: “How many of us, snowed under with reports to write and lessons to plan, have time to wade through endless theory?”

The importance of achieving a balance between theory and practice was also raised by the person responding on behalf of School D. This interviewee, however, viewed the dilemma from the other end of the telescope by suggesting that:

The successful implementation of many approaches is dependent upon understanding the theory that they’ve grown out of. I’ve seen lots of approaches fail, or not be as successful as they should have been, because they’ve not been implemented in the way that they should have – before you cut corners you need to know which that you can cut safely and those you can’t.

She went on to say that an important function of any CPD activity is to ensure that participants have a firm grasp of the principles upon which a strategy or intervention is founded. This view is in accord with those of Adams (2009), Haydn (2007), the House of Commons Education and Skills Select Committee (2006), Weare (2004), and Solity (2000) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5).
With regard to behaviour, Weare (2004) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5) argues that strategies for addressing behaviour need to go beyond mere familiarity with a collection of management rules and strategies. The theory of emotional literacy is, she maintains, an integral part of understanding children’s behaviour. Similarly, Haydn (2007, p.15) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5) emphasises the complexity of managing classrooms, behaviour and learning, stating that these areas of teaching practice are neither straightforward nor “susceptible to simple solutions or quick fixes”. Remaining on the subject of behaviour management, Adams (2009 p.21) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5) argues that, whilst behaviour management strategies are essential to survival in the classroom, knowledge of them does need to be underpinned by theory.

Changing his focus from the management and teaching of behaviour to learning, Solity (2000) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5), in discussing effective implementation of his Early Reading Research (ERR) project, strongly argues that: “Teachers require in-service training on the psychological principles of teaching and learning to implement the reading framework.” In similar vein, the House of Commons Education and Skills Select Committee (2006, Paragraph 60) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5) asserts that, to be really effective, teachers of reading must have an understanding of the psychological and developmental aspects of the reading process.
The interviewee responding on behalf of School B reported that s/he did not feel able to identify just one factor. To be described as “high quality” a CPD event had to meet a number of criteria, including delivery, which must:

- be professional, effective and appropriate for an audience of professional educators;
- be fit for purpose e.g. with regards to its mode of delivery, a lecture format might be appropriate for the giving of information but not appropriate for skill development (where coaching sessions might be more appropriate);
- meet the needs of the recipient(s); and
- differentiate between the varying needs of all recipients regardless of starting point, e.g. the participants’ knowledge base and career stage.

School C’s primary notion of “high quality” was that schools need input from: “… leading edge practitioners – not from those that are running to catch up!” In this regard the respondent reported that some of the most effective CPD that he has commissioned has been delivered by his own staff to his own staff. The great strength of this approach, he suggested, was that: “Training is being delivered by ‘home grown’ specialists in their field, on a subject that they know, in a school that they know, to staff that they know and about children that they know.” The respondent went on to say that: “Importantly, the people
that delivered the training are there to follow it up and help it to become embedded as part of teacher and school practice.”

The latter point is very much in accord with the stance taken by Black and Wiliam (1998) and Wiliam et al. (2004) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5), who, in acknowledging that (given the many pressures they are under) teachers have very little time to devote to working out how to translate theory in to practice themselves, argue that teachers need to:

- experience examples of research-based practices being implemented by teachers with whom they can identify (and from whom they can derive both conviction and confidence that they can do better); and
- see concrete examples of what doing better means in practice.

7.2.9(i) What are the barriers, if any, to providing effective CPD?

Table 6.7 shows the factors received by respondents as posing barriers to the effective planning and delivery of CPD, namely: time, funding, the need to minimise disruption to pupils’ learning, the availability of quality providers and the motivation and attitude of participants.
7.2.9(ii) Time

The consensus issue, cited by all schools as the primary barrier to providing effective or sufficient CPD, was time. Interviewees separated the difficulties caused by time into three areas:

Firstly, time as a finite resource, i.e., given a school’s many priorities, physically finding the time to fit in a comprehensive programme of CPD activities;

Secondly, the timing (logistical) aspect of timetabling CPD activities in a way that does not pose too great a burden on staff and minimises the disruption caused to pupils, parents and the organisation of the school; and

Thirdly, time with regard to work-life balance.

These findings have parallels with those reported in the literature in a number of respects. With regard to the first point, for example, the findings of Robinson and Sebba (2004) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5) led them to assert that time is probably the single most commonly identified barrier to CPD.

With regard to the second point, a major theme in “Prisoners of Time” (NECTL, 1994) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5) is that students and teachers are
victims of inflexible and counter-productive school schedules that restrict the
time available for CPD activities.

With regard to the third time-related area, work-life balance, the interviewee
responding on behalf of School A felt that it was a duty of management to be
aware of the possibility of “burn-out” and ensure that staff were not put under
(or did not put themselves under) undue pressure, whilst the interviewee
responding on behalf of School B considered that the vehicle for “ensuring a
balance between what is needed and what is practicable” is the Performance
Management Process.

Within the literature the NECTL (1994) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5) warns that
teachers who sacrifice personal time or preparation time often experience
burn-out from trying to satisfy competing demands for their time, and Hustler
et al. (2003) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5) note that, where lack of time or supply
cover has led to provision outside school hours, teachers felt too tired to
concentrate during twilight sessions and that this led to less effective
outcomes.

The only data specifically reflecting the views of senior managers towards
burn-out were obtained by Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000) (Chapter 4
Section 4.9.5) in response to a slightly different question (i.e. they were seeking the perceptions of senior managers regarding barriers to the impact of professional development within the classroom). Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000) found that only a small minority of the fourteen respondents (n=2) expressed a direct and unsolicited concern over the burn-out potentially suffered by teachers.

School A and School C raised the difficulties of getting a complete audience (i.e. including job-share and part-time staff). The interviewee responding on behalf of School C elaborated upon this by airing concerns over the efficacy with which new ideas can be implemented and embedded if all staff members have not experienced input of equal quality. He went on to explain that, for CPD activities that are considered to be particularly significant (the introduction of a major initiative, for example) the School makes every effort to bring everybody together. Where this is not possible, an alternative means of bringing staff up to speed is considered. This might include observation of, and coaching by, colleagues, or mentoring by a senior member of staff.
7.2.9(iii) Funding

Identified as a barrier by three of the four interviewees, the ways of dealing with this ranged from an acceptance that this is the way things are (a stance typified by the comments from School A that they “cut their cloth” accordingly and, although CPD isn’t “rationed”, staff know that funding isn’t unlimited and do not make unreasonable demands) to the pragmatic (a stance typified by the comment from School C that the key to overcoming constraints was good planning, i.e.:

Not trying to do everything all at once but to priorities – identify the least that needs to be done to get you closest to the deed result. Anything additional to that can be considered as a bonus.

These categories also reflected the resolve with which schools endeavoured to overcome funding as a barrier.

One school (School A) reported that, as a church school, the Diocese had agreed to fund places for two middle managers on the NCSL management course, a funding option that, the interviewee acknowledged, was not there for all schools.

With regard to both time and funding, all interviewees reported that they were aware of members of staff who completed CPD in their own time and at their
own expense. Asked about the number of staff that this involved, and the type of courses attended, the general response was that, as this was considered a matter for individuals to record on their own CV or in their own Professional Development Portfolio, the school did not have figures relating to the nature or extent of this practice. When Soulsby and Swain (2003) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.4) asked this question of course providers they found that, on some award-bearing courses, as many as 60% of the participants were self-funded. They went on to speculate that, although this reflected the commitment of individual members of staff, it also reflected the fact that schools (particularly those in the primary sector) are often unable to make the requisite long-term financial commitment to CPD.

7.2.9(iv) Disruption to pupils’ learning

An issue raised by all interviewees was that of disruption to pupils’ learning, a concern that features in the findings of Goodall et al (2005) (Chapter 4 Section 4.8.1), who found that schools expressed particular concern over CPD opportunities that took staff away from their teaching duties. However, the concerns expressed by those interviewed for this study were not as strident as those described by Goodall et al., in that the general perception was that some disruption was inevitable. The interviewee responding on behalf of School A, for example, felt that:
• it affected individual classes rarely, i.e. if all teachers attended a day’s training on different school days, school would have to find 14 days cover, but each child / class would only be affected on one day;
• it was not necessarily a bad thing for teachers to have a break from their class and vice versa; and
• the long-term benefits of the training would outweigh the short-term disadvantages (if any) created by the teacher’s absence.

The interviewee responding on behalf of School B reported that, although disruption to children’s learning was not considered to be a significant problem, it was something that was borne in mind during the decision-making process and, that where necessary, action was taken to minimise it.

7.2.9(v) The availability of quality providers

Goodall et al. (2005) (Chapter 4 Section 4.8.1) cites the identification of providers as a barrier to the provision of effective CPD, an issue cited by two schools. For School A, the quality of training was felt to be an issue in that:

You only realise it’s bad during or after the event – if you knew it was going to be bad you wouldn’t go for it in the first place!

The interviewee added that:
When we’ve taken the decision to pursue a particular initiative (Nurture Groups, for example), there’s usually a training provider that comes highly recommended – by other schools that have been there before.

A more significant area of concern was that of skilling-up her school with regard to new initiatives where:

It sometimes feels that those delivering the training only know what they’ve been told and, because the initiative is in its early stages or (in some cases) hasn’t even started, presenters sometimes find it difficult to answer the audience’s practical questions or respond to their concerns … what’s needed, but usually doesn’t happen – because we’re onto the next initiative - is a follow-up, problem sorting session a few terms into implementation.

In similar vein School C reported that: “Given the current rate of change facing those working in education, schools need input from leading-edge practitioners – not from those that are running to catch up!”

Strategies employed by School A to ensure the quality of CPD provision included:

- the use of trainers with a proven track record;
- using providers on the recommendation of others; and
- the researching of unknown providers, i.e. by seeking out information from schools who have previously received training from them.
School B reported that, for training regarding local and national initiatives, events are usually organised by the Local Authority, and that the choice of provider is often out of the school’s hands whilst, for events organised by the school, good speakers often needed to be booked at least a year in advance.

The interviewee responding on behalf of School C reported that he is increasingly commissioning his own school staff to deliver training. He went on to describe an activity whereby two members of staff were each released from their classroom for a day (at a cover cost of £190 each) to prepare a training day. The great strength of this approach, he felt, was (in addition to being cost effective) that the training was being delivered by practising teachers on a subject that they know, in a school that they know, to staff that they know and about children that they know. A further benefit, it was suggested, was that the trainers are readily available in the days and weeks following the event to assist with implementation and embedding of the knowledge and skills learned.

7.2.9(vi) Motivation and attitude of participants

Hustler et al. (2003) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.1) identify the importance of support for CPD from the senior management and other colleagues in school. Although two interviewees suggested that the latter might be a barrier in some
schools, neither of these felt that the motivation and attitude of participants was a significant issue for their school. Also, perhaps not surprisingly (given that those interviewed were senior managers) CPD was discussed in terms of being a management tool for building and maintaining a motivated staff, i.e. ensuring job satisfaction by making sure that the needs and aspirations of staff are acknowledged and met.

7.2.10 Involving support staff alongside teachers

The phase two literature review identifies: the full part that support staff can play in raising standards (OfSTED, 2006) and the importance of providing support staff with good and varied opportunities for professional development (OfSTED, 2006). Although the work and CPD of support staff fell outside the remit of this study, it is recognised that it is a subject worthy of future study. In this regard Chapter 8 Section 8.3.6(i) notes actions for consideration.

7.2.11 Monitoring progress

An issue identified whilst endeavouring to compare the discussion of my findings (Chapter 7) against OfSTED’s (2006) logical chain of procedures was that my research instruments specifically referred to evaluation but did not specifically mention monitoring. This was because the phase two literature review extended throughout the life of my project and the significance of the
logical chain did not become fully apparent until after administration of the senior management questionnaire (based upon the work of Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000) (Chapter 5 Section 5.8.2(i)) addresses this point. That said, perusal of the results of the Special Educational Needs coordinator questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews does provide some insight into the way in which schools monitored the implementation of newly acquired practices and skills.

Although all interviewees referred to classroom observation sessions as a source of evidence of the impact of CPD, different schools used the observations to monitor different aspects of its impact. Schools A and C used observation sessions to confirm the use of new knowledge and skills (with the former, School B, reporting that the emphasis was usually upon ensuring the efficacy of whole-school level initiatives adopted for behaviour or specific curricular areas). School B used observation sessions to look for changes in participant views (e.g. confidence to deliver). School D used different forms of observation (classroom observation, peer/coordinator observation and learning walks) for different purposes. It was reported that:

- classroom observation sessions were conducted three times a year (by senior managers). Their primary function, as described by the
respondent, was not evaluation of the impact of CPD, but rather the monitoring of the quality of teaching;

- peer/coordinator observations were more focused and conducted for a particular purpose; and

- learning walks were conducted, in tandem, by the head teacher and a senior or middle manager. Their primary purpose, as described by the respondent, was to ensure that management saw things for themselves and were conversant with everyday practices.

The phase two literature review (Chapter 4) identified the need, at the monitoring stage, for a school’s CPD planning to incorporate strategies for overseeing the transfer of executive control.

Table 6.11 shows that three interviewees (respondents A, C and D) named time as the factor most likely to prevent the knowledge gained from being translated into practice; a fact which suggests that, in these schools, adequate time to ensure the transfer of executive control is an issue that needs to be addressed via their CPD planning. Certainly, in highlighting the importance of practicing and embedding the skills acquired, School C drew attention to the more wide-ranging demands imposed by CPD and the fact that learning from a CPD activity was not just about listening to feedback. This view was also
reflected in the response given by respondent B, who reported that one of the main ways in which the expertise gained from CPD activities is disseminated is through the school’s system of mentoring (via which members of staff work with each other to improve and strengthen areas of practice).

These findings echo those reported within the literature in a number of respects. Robinson and Sebba (2004) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5) assert that time is probably the single most commonly identified barrier to implementing changes stimulated by CPD. Furthermore, as noted by Camborne (1995) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5), teachers not only need set-aside time for learning (e.g. workshops and courses) but also time to digest and put into practise the knowledge gained, a view supported by the work of Rhodes et al (2000) (Chapter 4 Section 4.5), who found that nearly all the teachers in the 15 schools in their study considered there was insufficient time to consolidate on new initiatives and see them through before a new one appeared.

Of particular relevance to the response given by respondent B, who reported that one of the main ways in which the expertise gained from CPD activities is embedded is through the school’s system of mentoring, is the assertion (Cordingley et al., 2003) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5) that, if collaborative forms
of CPD (i.e. coaching and mentoring) are to be successful, time is needed for discussion, planning and feedback.

Other barriers (that the literature identifies as factors that managers need to be aware of and plan for at the monitoring stage) include: the negative impact of: teacher overload (or “burn-out”), staff apathy and resistance to change (Rhodes and Houghton-Hill, 2000) (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5). It does need to be noted that, with regard to teacher overload, Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000) found that only a small minority of the 14 respondents (n=2) expressed a direct and unsolicited concern over the potential burn-out of teachers. Although none of the interviewees in my sample mentioned any of these obstacles directly, some were alluded to. School A, for example, noted the importance of the attitude and motivation of participants, whilst Schools A and B mentioned the importance of maintaining a sustainable work-life balance.

7.2.12 Evaluating the impact of professional development

Asked how important it was to evaluate the impact of CPD on a range of outcomes (Table 6.3) all 4 schools reported that it was very important / important to evaluate: participant satisfaction; changes in participant views (i.e. attitudes / confidence to deliver); improvements in participant knowledge / skills; organisational change; and student outcomes. However when, asked
which aspects of a CPD event they actually assessed (Table 6.3), only participant satisfaction and change in participant views (i.e. attitudes / confidence to deliver) were cited by all schools.

Although responses to question 2.4 (which asked respondents to indicate their level of confidence in evaluating the impact of a range of CPD outcomes) had the potential to provide one explanation for this anomaly, this was not the case as all schools maintained that they were confident in evaluating: changes in participant behaviour; organisational change; and student outcomes. This finding is at odds with that of Goodall et al. (2005) (Chapter 4.8 Section 4.8.1), who found that schools in their sample considered they were not skilled in the processes of evaluation and lacked the experience and tools necessary to consider the impact of CPD in depth.

Table 6.12 indicates the methods employed by the schools in the sample to evaluate the impact of CPD activities; the consensus themes being the use of the school’s Professional Development process (including maintenance of a Professional Development Portfolio) (4 responses), the use of classroom observation (4 responses) and pupil outcome data (3 responses).

All respondents reported that their school’s Performance Management Review (PMR) process was central to the provision and evaluation of CPD
opportunities and that the previous year’s CPD was always an agenda item at PMR meetings.

Schools A, B and C indicated that staff were at liberty to bring and discuss the contents of their Professional Development Portfolio (PDP). The Teacher Development Agency (TDA) (2003, 2010) (Chapter 4 Section 4.8.1) describe the PDP as a device intended to help staff reflect on their CPD needs (through recording their achievements and considering how they can build on these by setting targets for future learning) and to provide a form of record-keeping (enabling the PDP portfolio to be used for performance management or for establishing whether or not threshold criteria have been met) (TDA 2003, 2010) (Chapter 4 Section 4.8.1). This description is very much in accord with that proffered by the schools. Asked to elaborate upon the nature and purpose of the PDP, for example, interviewee A described it as a confidential and voluntary collection of information that included the amount and nature of CPD undertaken by an individual. For most teachers, they reported, the purpose of this was to collect evidence for meeting Threshold and Post-threshold standards. Interviewee B reported that, in their school, it was usual for staff to use the portfolio to record their thoughts about any CDP that they had engaged in. Asked if it was possible to view an example of a PDP, all interviewees reiterated the confidential and voluntary nature of the document.
The TDA (2010) (Chapter 4 Section 4.8.1) also report that many schools were starting to move away from paper-based PDPs to electronic versions (commonly referred to as e-portfolios) a move which, they suggest, shifts the emphasis away from a private document (whose *raison d’etre* was largely to ensure the meeting of the needs of individual staff) towards a more public document (of a wider, strategic value to managers). Asked about e-portfolios, all interviewees indicated that these were not currently on their school’s agenda.

Asked how they evaluated the impact of CPD on pupil outcomes, respondents identified a range of indicators with all referring to the analysis of outcome data. School A reported that important outcome indicators were P-level and SATs results. School B did not single out any specific indicators as being more significant than others. School C specifically mentioned RAISE On-line (Appendix 5.i) a system described by the interviewee as the replacement for OfSTED Performance and Assessment (PANDA) reports and the DCFC’s Pupil Achievement Tracker (PAT). School D reported that all staff had been trained in APP (Assessing Pupil Progress) (Appendix 5.ii), a system described by the interviewee as a structured approach to periodically assessing mathematics, reading and writing so that teachers:
- can track pupils’ progress from Year 1 through to the end of Year 6;

and

- use diagnostic information about pupils’ strengths and weaknesses.

What was not evident from the responses to this question was the way in which the generation of outcome data and the CPD process informed and supported each other. In this regard respondent A felt that it was difficult to track back any form of change to particular CPD events because so many factors were involved. It was suggested, for example, that a teacher might attend training related to one particular area but their practice improves, generally, because they feel valued and their overall level of confidence has increased.

This conundrum is recognised in the literature by commentators such as Joyce and Showers (2002) (Chapter 4 Section 4.6) who, in posing the question, “How (my emphasis) does professional development affect student achievement?”, go on to observe that: “The connection seems intuitive. But demonstrating it is difficult”. In this regard Robinson and Sebba (2004) (Chapter 4 Section 4.6) emphasise the importance of distinguishing clearly between the assumption that CPD leads to changes in professional practice and the assumption that this changed practice will necessarily lead to
improved learner outcomes. They go on to assert that, in their experience, many more studies comment on the improvement in the knowledge, understanding and practice of teachers and other professionals than on improved pupil performance.

With regard to the impacts / changes that are most difficult to measure (Table 6.13), only two themes were noted (both at the individual level): organisational change, and tracking back change to a particular CPD event. On these points Robinson and Sebba (2004) (Chapter 4 Section 4.6) acknowledge the difficulties associated with attempting to attribute changes to a particular CPD event and suggest that, in their experience, many studies comment on the improvement in the knowledge, understanding and practice of teachers and other professionals rather than on improved pupil performance. Themes that did not register a response included: the qualitative aspects of change, improvement in participant knowledge and skills, recruitment and retention, changes in participant behaviour, and student outcomes.

At this juncture I would draw attention to the anomalies identified in Chapter 6 Section 6.3.2 Tables 6.3 and 6.4.
The first of these suggests that, although SENCos identified a number of areas important to the effective evaluation of the impact of CPD:

- the areas that their schools evaluated regularly were those that they rated themselves as least confident in measuring; whilst
- those areas that they purported to be confident in were neglected.

The findings of the semi-structured senior management interviews suggest that this can be explained, at least in part, by the differing roles and responsibilities of the two respondent groups (i.e. SENCos and head teachers). A specific illustration of this might be the importance attached by SENCos to the use of student outcomes as a measure of the efficacy of CPD events. Whilst student outcomes are of importance to head teachers, it could be argued that the latter have a significantly broader range of responsibilities than their SENCos. This means that, proportionally, student outcomes form a greater part of a SENCo’s responsibilities. Thus, it could be argued, when completing the SENCo questionnaire, student outcomes were closer to the forefront of SENCos’ minds.

The second anomaly suggests that, although SENCos considered a range of methods to be useful for evaluating the impact of CPD, it was reported that only one (interviews with staff) was used on a regular basis. As with the
anomaly noted in Section 6.3.2 Table 6.3, the indications are that this can be explained, at least in part, by the differing roles and responsibilities of the two respondent groups (i.e. SENCos and head teachers). The first group (SENCos), for example, could well consider a number of methods to be useful for evaluating the impact of a CPD event, whilst the second group (head teachers) have to consider the logistics, balance many conflicting priorities and reach a decision that is, inevitably, a compromise between what is effective and what is achievable. Thus, wherever possible, it is pragmatic for head teachers to use existing processes for a variety of purposes. In this regard, it seems, the staff interview (that formed part of all of the sample schools’ Professional Review Process) was also utilised to assist evaluation of the efficacy of the CPD activities completed by staff.

7.3 Enabling a comparison of my own research practices with those described in the literature

With regard to enabling me to compare my own CPD practice with the best practice described in the literature, the means for achieving this are the practices identified through the phase two literature review (Chapter 4) and the logical chain (OfSTED, 2006), both of which are summarised in Table 4.1. It is my contention that the findings of the phase two literature review, although
time-limited (Section 8.2.3) give a sound indication of currently accepted best practice against which (for the foreseeable future) to compare and evaluate my own CPD practice.

7.4 Enabling me to encourage other school communities, professionals and organisations with which, and for whom, I work to evaluate their CPD practices

The means of enabling me to encourage other school communities, professionals and organisations with which, and for whom, I work to evaluate their CPD practices are the contents of the phase two literature review and the logical chain (OfSTED, 2006). These are summarised in Table 4.1. It is my contention that these provide a sound indication of currently accepted best practice upon which to base advice and guidance.

7.5 Relevance of the research to EP practice

Work at a systems level has been strongly promoted since Gillham’s call for restructuring educational psychology (Gillham, 1978). Balchin et al. (2006) describe in-service training as one of the methods that can be used by EPs to promote systemic change in schools.
Citing the BPS (2006), Farrell et al. (2006) list the following six key generic roles that, they believe, summarise the distinctive contribution that EPs, as applied psychologists, make:

1. Develop, implement and maintain personal and professional standards and ethical practice.
2. Apply psychological and related methods, concepts, models, theories and knowledge derived from reproducible research findings.
3. Research and develop new and existing psychological methods, concepts, models, theories and instruments in psychology.
4. Communicate psychological knowledge, principles, methods, needs and policy requirements.
5. Develop and train the application of psychological skills, knowledge, practices and procedures.
6. Manage the provision of psychological systems, services and resources.

Similarly, SEED (2002) define the five core functions of a psychological service as: consultation; assessment; intervention; training; and research. With specific reference to the latter, SEED suggests that, working within education, EPs are in a key position to: support and carry out research, evolve an
evidence base for educational practice, inform policy and strategy, explore new ideas and evaluate and encourage reflective practice.

For many educational psychology services the principle vehicle for service delivery is the first of the core functions identified by SEED (2002), i.e. consultation. For the organisation that I work for, this means: “Consulting with school staff, parents/carers and children/young people to improve outcomes for children, young people and families” (reference subject to the ethical restrictions noted in Chapter 5 Section 10).

Describing consultation as one of the core tasks carried out by educational psychologists (at an individual, child or organisational level) the Division of Educational psychology of the British Psychological Society gives the following examples of its uses and purposes:

Consultation and complex problem solving with a teacher, parent and young person to establish an agreed understanding of the nature of the problem and to agree a priority strategy to help with the pupils’ learning.

Probable outcome: increased self-esteem, motivation and pupil achievement; improved understanding from parent and teacher.

And
Consultation and advice to a school SENCo or Head of Year in relation to a group of pupils described as having difficulties in learning.

Probable outcome: change to curriculum delivery and structure to promote more effective learning.

With regard to continuing professional development, the foregoing examples of consultation sit well with many aspects of the definitions of CPD discussed in Chapter 4 Section 3, i.e.:

All natural learning experiences and those conscious planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school. (Day, 1999, p.4)

A number of articles written by educational psychologists describe the development and application of a consultative approach (Dickinson, 2000; Munro, 2000; Evans, 2005). Although Evans (2005) identifies a need for consideration of “how the outcomes of consultation contribute to improved practice for pupils with special educational needs”, no examples were found of longer-term follow up of the impact of consultation upon teacher practice or pupil progress.

I would suggest that, viewing consultation as a CPD activity, it becomes legitimate to consider the logical chain (OfSTED, 2006; Chapter 4 Section 4.7.2; Table 4.1) as a structure for informing and evaluating the action taken,
e.g. the steps suggested to change curriculum delivery and to promote more effective learning.

With regard to wider school development an example of educational psychologists exploring and developing strategies for conceptualising and managing school improvement work is provided by Knight and Timmins (1995). Informed by the work of Schein (1989), their Research and Development in Organisations (RADIO) approach consists of twelve phases ranging from the identification of an organisation’s need through to the planning, implementation and evaluation of actions. I suggest that my findings are particularly relevant to, and complement, the latter phases of models such as this.

Thus, knowledge of best practice in the area of CPD has implications for:

- EPs’ own CPD (and the CPD processes in place in the services that employ them);
- EPs’ practice with regard to their delivery of CPD to other agencies and professionals;
- the way in which EPs (and the organisations that they serve) introduce and develop the knowledge and skills necessary to implement, monitor and evaluate novel strategies and interventions; and
• the advice and guidance offered, at a systems level, on the formulation and implementation of a whole-school CPD policy.

Having established that research and wider school development form a legitimate part of an EP’s brief, the task then becomes one of challenging others’ expectations of the EP’s role and endeavouring to balance the many competing demands for time. With regard to the latter the DfEE (2000) reported that schools see less of a role for EPs in wider school development work because they see others (such as LEA advisory and inspection services) as providers of this support. With regard to the former the DfEE (2000) found that, whilst a number of LEA officers acknowledged the research skills that EPs have (and the fact that they are under-utilised), they also noted that research time meant other work not being done and, within these constraints, did not see research as a priority.

The foregoing may provide one explanation for the paucity of examples, in the literature, of links between EPs and initiatives related to the development and implementation of whole-school CPD policies (Chapter 4 Section 4.10). Indeed, a manual search (covering the ten-year period beginning June 2000) of the journal “Educational Psychology in Practice” uncovered only one example of EPs working directly with schools to promote a CPD model for sustainable change that could be used regardless of subject matter (Balchin et al., 2006)
and three examples of EPs delivering CPD on specific topics (Burton, 2006; Davison et al., 2008; Simm and Ingram 2008).

### 7.6 Summary

This chapter discusses the purposes of my research (Chapter 1 Section 1.3) in the light of my research findings and the contents of the phase two literature review. These purposes have been achieved (through the contents of the phase two literature review (Chapter 4) and my research findings) by:

- describing existing CPD practices in the cluster and comparing these with the best practices described in the literature;
- acquiring the information necessary for the sample cluster of primary schools to formulate questions about their CPD practices and how these might be improved;
- acquiring the information necessary to enable me to compare my own CPD practices with the best practice in the literature; and
- assembling the information necessary to enable me to encourage other school communities, professionals and organisations with which, and for whom, I work to evaluate their CPD practices.

Chapter 8 uses the contents of the phase two literature review and my research findings to make recommendations for actions intended to ensure that my
findings impact upon CPD practice. To facilitate this, these purposes have been translated into the following questions:

- What actions can schools, in the sample cluster, take to improve the efficacy of their CPD practices?
- As an educational psychologist, what actions can I take to improve the efficacy of my own CPD practices?
- As an educational psychologist, what actions can I take to improve the CPD practices of those organisations, agencies and professionals with, or for whom, I work?
CHAPTER 8
PHASE TWO CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Chapter overview

This chapter:

- considers the limitations of my findings, the implications of these limitations for the extent to which they can be generalised to other settings; and
- draws upon Chapter 7 (a comparison of the CPD practices of the sample cluster of schools with the best practices identified via the phase 2 literature review) to suggest actions necessary to realise the purposes of my research.

It is organised according the headings listed in the Contents.

8.2 Limitations of the findings

8.2.1 General

Chapter 5 Section 5.5.1 notes how, given that it was a piece of “real world” research, my ambitions for phase two of the research had to be moderated according the resources and goodwill that were available to me. For example, whilst accepting the importance of the CPD needs of all school staff (OfSTED, 2006), not just teaching staff, the resources and goodwill available
for this study only allowed exploration of CPD processes with regard to teaching staff. Chapter 5 Section 5.6.1 also points out that, ideally, my data gathering would have included: acquisition of a comprehensive range of documentation (including whole-school CPD policy, CPD portfolios, CPD feedback sheets and Provision Maps); seeking the views of a comprehensive and representative sample of the school community (teaching and support staff via surveys, questionnaires and interviews); and observing CPD processes in action (including tracking CPD events from inception, through to the evaluation of their efficacy). The absence of some of the elements just mentioned means that the description of CPD practices in the cluster’s schools is founded upon evidence gained from limited sources. On this point I would draw attention to the notion of “quixotic reliability” (Kirk and Miller, 1986) (Chapter 5 Section 5.6.2) and suggest that, with specific reference to my research, it is arguable that the data gathering process was weighted towards acquiring the views of members of each school’s Senior Management Team.

### 8.2.2 School-specific findings

The findings described in Chapter 6 and discussed in Chapter 7 relate specifically to the cluster of schools engaged in this study and cannot be generalised to other settings. I would also reiterate the point, made earlier in this chapter (Section 8.2.1), relating to quixotic reliability. The relevance of the findings is also time-limited, i.e. it would seem reasonable to suggest that,
over time, school practices will change and, increasingly, move away from those described.

8.2.3 Literature review

The validity of the findings of the phase two literature review is time-limited i.e. as research continues to inform our understanding, our perceptions of what constitutes best CPD practice will change. However, it is felt that, the findings of the phase two literature review (summarised in Table 4.1) give a sound indication of currently accepted best practice against which (for the foreseeable future):

- schools within the cluster can compare and evaluate their existing CPD practices;
- I can compare and evaluate my own CPD practice; and
- I can encourage other school communities, professionals and organisations with which, or for whom, I work to compare and evaluate their CPD practices.

8.2.4 Data-gathering instruments

Chapter 5 describes the development of the data-gathering instruments. It is anticipated that the SENCo questionnaire and (after issues such as that noted in Section 8.3.7 and Section 8.3.7(i) of this chapter have been addressed) the
Senior Management Interview Schedule could be used in other school and cluster settings.

8.3 What actions can schools in the sample cluster take to improve the efficacy of their CPD practices?

Chapter 4 Section 4.11 (Table 4.1) lists (with the addition of the need for a written CPD policy) each of the components of OfSTED’s (2006) logical chain and uses the findings of the phase two literature review to suggest what one might see, in each area, in a school that was delivering best practice. This section uses Table 4.1 and its content as a framework for drawing conclusions and making recommendations for strengthening the links of each school’s “logical chain”.

8.3.1 General

With regard to Table 4.1 (Chapter 8 Section 8.3), the participating schools might consider using its structure and content as a framework for their own self-review of their existing CPD practices (i.e. as depicted by the tables contained in Appendix 6.ii).

Although CPD practice varied from school to school, provision within the cluster (overall) was representative of an extensive and varied range of
practices, i.e. a practice or technique that one school did not mention, or merely alluded to, another school emphasised.

8.3.1(i) Action for consideration

1. Providing effective CPD necessitates the identification of school and staff needs, the provision of relevant activities and the dissemination, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the knowledge and skills acquired. With regard to individual school’s procedures, those responsible for CPD might:

   • consider using the structure and content of Table 4.1 (the logical chain) as a framework for their own self-review of their existing CPD practices; and

   • wish to seek guidance from the literature (Chapter 4) on how to ensure that each link of this “logical chain of procedures” (OfSTED, 2006) is equally strong.

2. Given the range and variety of practice represented within the cluster’s schools, CPD co-ordinators may wish to consider establishing a cluster-wide communication network through which they can discuss issues of mutual interest, share practice and problem-solve.
8.3.2 Whole-school CPD policy

Two of the participating schools had, and provided a copy of, a whole-school CPD policy. Two of the participating schools did not have a whole-school CPD policy.

Chapter 4 Section 4.7.1 emphasised the need for whole-school policies to be:

- current and accessible to all stakeholders (Rowell, 2006); and
- detailed and specific (Rowell, 2006; TDA, 2007).

With regard to the content of the CPD policies with which I was provided, Chapter 7 Section 7.2.1 notes inconsistencies in both of the above areas.

8.3.2(i) Action for consideration

Those schools that do not have a written CPD policy may wish to consider producing one whilst those schools that do have a CPD policy may wish to consider ways in which they can ensure that it remains current, accessible, detailed, specific and individualised to the needs of their school.

8.3.3 Identifying school and staff needs

The phase two literature review notes the importance of an appreciation of the potential impact of CPD on the overall school (Abdal-Haqq, 1996) and an
understanding of the potential of CPD for raising standards (OfSTED, 2006) (Chapter 4 Section 4.4).

The phase two discussion (Chapter 7) notes that senior managers were unanimous in reporting that

- decisions regarding the provision of CPD have to take account of a number of intertwined factors that include: the school’s priorities, national initiatives, local initiatives and the needs of individual teachers (Chapter 7 Section 7.2.4) and
- the principal vehicle for linking school need to training opportunities was the school’s performance plan (Chapter 7 Section 7.2.4).

However, there is always the potential for significant issues to be overlooked. An example of this might be the literature review’s reference to Reynolds and Hopkins’ discussion (2004) (cited by Conner, 2004) of the role that CPD has with regard to reducing within-school variation (WSV) (Chapter 4 Section 4.4). The fact that WSV was not raised by any of the interviewees could mean that:

- they had, quite simply, forgotten to mention it;
- it was not considered a CPD issue;
- it was not considered a problem by any of the schools in the sample; or
- it was an issue they were not aware of or had not explored.
8.3.3(i) Actions for consideration

1. Senior management teams might wish to revisit and re-examine their understanding of the purpose and benefits of Continuing Professional Development (in the presence of as much strategic information as possible about their own school’s unique circumstances) to ensure that there are no issues that have been overlooked and that they are exploiting it to its full potential for the benefit of their school.

2. Schools work with professionals from a range of organisations. To ensure that they are able to access and capitalise upon the alternative perspectives that these professionals are able to offer, Senior Management Teams might wish to revisit and re-appraise the way in which they work by liaising with other agencies (including their visiting educational psychologist) to ensure that they capitalise upon the alternative perspectives that these are able to offer and exploit their expertise for the benefit of their school.

8.3.4 Planning to meet school and staff needs

The phase two literature review (Chapter 4) identified many challenges that face senior managers when planning to meet the CPD needs of their school and staff. These include the management of finite resources (e.g. funding (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.4) and time (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.5)), the balancing of
conflicting priorities (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.2), and tailoring CPD to the career stage and identity of individual members of staff (Chapter 4 Section 4.9.3).

Chapter 6 Section 6.4.3 described the barriers to providing effective CPD from the perspective of the cluster of schools in my sample and Chapter 7 discussed the strategies employed, by these, to overcome the barriers involved. These strategies were many and varied. A specific example would be the way in which schools addressed issues of funding. Identified as a barrier by three of the four interviewees, the ways of dealing with this ranged from an acceptance that this is the way things are (a stance typified by the comments from School A that they “cut their cloth” accordingly and that, although CPD is not “rationed”, staff know that funding isn’t unlimited and do not make unreasonable demands) to the pragmatic (a stance typified by the comment from School C that the key to overcoming constraints was good planning i.e.: “Not trying to do everything all at once but to prioritise – identify the least that needs to be done to get you closest to the desired result. Anything additional to that can be considered as a bonus”).

8.3.4(i) Action for consideration

Again, given the range and variety of practice represented within the cluster’s schools, CPD coordinators may wish to consider establishing a cluster-wide
communications network (Chapter 8 Section 8.3.1(i)) through which they can discuss issues of mutual interest, share practice and problem-solve.

8.3.5 Providing varied and relevant activities

Table 6.2 (Chapter 6 Section 6.3.1), in documenting the range of CPD activities that school staff engaged in, notes that the only activities that staff rarely or never engage in (as recipients) are reported to be secondments or sabbaticals, higher education programmes and BEST Practice research scholarships. As noted in Chapter 7 Section 7.3.1, this suggests that, despite the small sample of schools, activities representative of a broad range of the activities are practiced within the cluster.

8.3.5(i) Action for consideration

It is suggested that a cluster-wide communication network, of the type described in Chapter 8 Section 8.3.1(i), would provide the opportunity for schools to describe their CPD practices to each other, share and disseminate best practice, discuss concerns, and problem-solve. Those already engaged in peer coaching and mentoring, for example, might wish to share their experiences with those schools that have not yet attempted them.
8.3.6 Involving support staff alongside teachers

The literature review notes that support staff have an important part to play in raising standards (OfSTED, 2006), and that it is therefore important to provide support staff with good and varied opportunities for training and professional development. Although the work and CPD of support staff fell outside the remit of this study, it is recognised that it is a subject worthy of future study.

8.3.6(i) Actions for consideration

1. Emphasise to the cluster’s schools, that although their CPD needs fell outside the remit of this study, these are an important link in the “logical chain” (OfSTED, 2006).

2. Target the CPD needs of support staff as an area for future research.

8.3.7 Monitoring progress and evaluating the impact of professional development

An issue identified whilst comparing the discussion of my findings (Chapter 7) against OfSTED’s (2006) logical chain of procedures was that my research instruments specifically referred to evaluation but did not specifically mention monitoring. This was because the phase two literature review extended throughout the life of my project and the significance of the logical chain did
not become fully apparent until after administration of the senior management questionnaire (based upon the work of Rhodes and Houghton-Hill (2000) - a point addressed in Chapter 7 Section 7.2.11.

The phase two literature review (Chapter 4 Section 4.8) identifies many difficulties associated with the evaluation of CPD. According to Bubb and Earley (2006), the evaluation of CPD has proved a problematic area in schools for many years. They go on to report that, although various studies have shown that CPD can have an impact on teachers’ attitude, knowledge, skills and practice, and affect various aspects of school improvement, it is much more difficult to demonstrate its impact on pupils’ learning. Similarly, Kelly (2008) maintains that: “… evaluating the impact of CPD has to be the one task that gives CPD leaders most anxiety”. However, as well as stating the problem, the literature also suggests possible solutions. Kelly (2008), for example, suggests that, to facilitate the development of effective evaluation tools schools should consider the use of such paradigms as Guskey’s five levels of impact evaluation (Guskey, 2000).

With regard to the schools participating in my study, Chapter 6 Section 6.4.8 (Table 6.12) provides an overview of the methods employed by schools to monitor and evaluate the impact of CPD activities. This, along with the discussion of the monitoring and evaluation practices employed by schools
(Chapter 7 Section 7.2.11) suggests a broad range of practices that could be shared between schools, developed and fine-tuned to strengthen the monitoring and evaluation links of their “logical chain” (OfSTED, 2006).

An example of the foregoing would be the fact that, although all interviewees referred to classroom observation sessions as a source of evidence of the impact of CPD, different schools used the observations to monitor and evaluate different aspects of its impact (Chapter 7 Section 7.2.11).

I would also draw attention to the anomalies identified in Chapter 6 Section 6.3.2 and discussed in Chapter 7 Section 7.2.12, both of which senior managers of the schools in the sample may wish to explore further.

8.3.7(i) Actions for consideration

1. Highlight the shortcomings of the senior management interview schedule (which failed to name monitoring as a specific category) to the cluster’s schools and address these before using it for future studies.

2. In acknowledging the difficulties associated with demonstrating the impact of CPD activities on, for example, pupils’ learning (Bubb and Earley, 2006), those responsible for the evaluation of CPD activities may wish to:
• consult the literature (Chapter 4) to seek guidance on how to strengthen this link of their “logical chain of procedures” OfSTED, 2006); and

• consider establishing a cluster-wide forum, of the type described in Chapter 8 Section 8.3.1(i), intended to provide the opportunity for schools to describe how they evaluate CPD activities, share and disseminate good practice, discuss concerns, and problem-solve.

3. Section 8.2.4.1(i) suggests that schools work with professionals from a range of organisations. To ensure that schools are able to access and capitalise upon the alternative perspectives that these professionals are able to offer, and exploit their expertise to the benefit of their school, senior management teams might wish to revisit and re-appraise the way in which they work and liaise with other agencies (including their visiting educational psychologist). An example of an issue that this might raise would be the TDA’s (2010) assertion (Chapter 7 Section 7.2.12) that many schools were starting to move away from paper-based PDPs to electronic versions (commonly referred to as e-portfolios), a move that, they suggest, shifts the emphasis away from a private document (whose raison d’etre was largely to ensure the meeting of the needs of individual staff) towards a more public document (of a wider, strategic value to managers).
8.4 As an educational psychologist, what actions can I take to develop the efficacy of my own CPD and CPD practices?

The findings of the phase two literature review, although time-limited (Section 8.2.3) give a sound indication of currently accepted best practice against which (for the foreseeable future) to compare and evaluate my own CPD practice.

8.4.1(i) Actions for consideration

1. For me to endeavour, when planning and delivering a CPD event (with or to another organisation or professional group), to model currently accepted best practice i.e. that summarised in Table 4.1.

2. For me to endeavour, when participating in a CPD event (as a recipient), to gauge its efficacy against the logical chain (Table 4.1).

3. Maintaining an up-to-date review of the literature.

8.4.2 As an educational psychologist, what actions can I take to progress the CPD practices of organisations, agencies and professionals with, or for whom, I work?

Although the thrust of this research has been the evaluation of CPD practices in place in schools, there are important messages for other organisations, agencies and professionals with, or for whom, I work. Specifically:
with regard to receiving CPD, the CPD certification website (www.cpduk.co.uk, introduction, p.2) (Chapter 4 Section 3) provides a definition of CPD that is relevant to any profession; and

- with regard to the delivery of CPD, the schools with which I work receive input from a range of agencies (education, health and local government).

This suggests that a knowledge of best practice with regard to both the receiving and delivering of CPD is, therefore, likely to be of interest to a wide professional audience.

SEED (2002) (Chapter 1 Section 1.5) notes that EPs are in a key position to: support and carry out research, evolve an evidence base for educational practice, inform policy and strategy, explore new ideas, and evaluate and encourage reflective practice. In a similar vein, Farrell et al. (2006 (Chapter 1 Section 1.5) advocates that psychologists and psychological services should lead by example by being cognisant of, and ensuring adherence to, evidence-based practice.

8.4.2(i) Actions for consideration

1. For me to volunteer, for their consideration, a summary of my research findings to my Service’s Senior Management Team (Appendix 6.iii).
2. For me to endeavour, when planning and delivering a CPD event (with or to another organisation or professional group), to model currently accepted best practice i.e. via the framework summarised in Table 4.1.

3. For me to explore, with EP service managers, opportunities for disseminating, building upon, and exploiting my findings. An example of a specific action here might be seeking guidance regarding the protocol for communication of the difficulties accessing information regarding CPD to the home Authority (Chapter 5 Section 5.3.1).

8.5 Concluding remarks

8.5.1 Original contribution

I believe that this study has made a contribution to the development of an understanding about how the CPD processes (in place in schools) can be explored by Local Authority EPs who are often required to work within “real world” constraints, including working in competition with the many competing demands with which schools are faced, and challenging others’ expectations of the EP role. It has done this by offering an insight into the exploration of CPD practices of a cluster of schools from the rarely published perspective of a cluster’s own visiting EP. Furthermore, Chapter 4 Table 4.1 presents a framework for those wishing to gauge CPD practices against the best CPD practices identified in the literature, and Chapter 5 describes the development of data gathering instruments that (after issues such as that noted
in Section 8.3.7 and Section 8.3.7(i) of this chapter have been addressed) can be developed by EPs wishing to replicate the exploration in other school and cluster settings.

### 8.5.2 Achieving the purposes of the research

Chapter 1 Section 3 describes the purposes of the research. With regard to the first purpose, I have endeavoured to describe (in as much detail as the available resources and goodwill allowed) existing CPD practices within the cluster and to compare these with the best CPD practices described in the literature.

With regard to the second purpose (providing the cluster of primary schools, in which the research was conducted with the information necessary to evaluate their CPD practices against the best practices described in the literature (and, should they wish, to formulate questions about how these practices might be improved) the extent to which this has been achieved needs to be judged with caution.

With regard to the third purpose (to enable me to compare my own CPD practices with the best practice described in the literature), the findings of the phase two literature review, although time-limited (Section 8.2.3) give a sound
indication of currently accepted best practice against which (for the foreseeable future) to compare and evaluate my own CPD practice.

With regard to the fourth purpose (to enable me to encourage other school communities, professionals and organisations with which, and for whom, I work to evaluate their CPD practices against the best practices described in the literature and to ask germane questions about how these might be improved) the findings of the phase two literature review, although time-limited (Section 8.2.3) give a sound indication of currently accepted best practice for dissemination via the suggested actions noted in Section 8.4.2(i).

Chapter 5 Section 5.5.1 notes how, as a piece of “real world” research, I had to square my ambitions for the research with the resources and goodwill available to me. Further research, therefore, designed to increase the richness of the description of CPD practices in the cluster’s schools, would be beneficial.

It is recognised that, as well as the constraints that limited the scope and nature of this research, there are other factors that have implications for the implementation of its recommendations and the achievement of its purposes. In this regard Chapter 1 Section 5 notes that, having established that research and wider school development form a legitimate part of an EP’s brief, the task
then becomes one of challenging others’ expectations of the EP’s role and endeavouring to balance the many competing demands for time.
REFERENCES


Commons Select Committee for Children, Schools and Families (2009) Uncorrected transcript of oral evidence, 15th June 2009


CPD certification website: [www.cpduk.co.uk](http://www.cpduk.co.uk)

http://www.icbl.hw.ac.uk/ltdi/implementing-it/eval.htm (Retrieved 30th October 2007)


Munro, E. (2000) *Angles on Developing Consultation: First steps to making consultation our own. Educational Psychology in Practice*, 16(1) 53-58


Smith, S.W. (1990) Individualized Education Programs (IEPs). In Special Education: from intent to acquiescence. *Exceptional Children*, September, 6-13


Times Educational Supplement [TES] (19 June 2009) Newly Installed Vernon Coaker Rejects MPs’ Calls to Make it Easier to Rid the Profession of Those Who Aren’t up to the Job. Times Educational Supplement


APPENDIX 1

1.ii: Communication verifying provenance of work conducted by Peacey et al. (2000)

1.iii: Communication from the Department for Children, Schools and Families regarding the future of IEPs

1.iv: Letter to Mr. E. Balls (Secretary of State for Children, Schools and Families) regarding the Personalised Learning agenda

1.v Response from the Department for Children, Schools and Families regarding the Personalised Learning Agenda

1.vi: Letter requesting assistance from members of the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP)

1.vi: Request for assistance published in the AEP newsletter dated 26th September 2007
Appendix 1.ii – 1.iii

Not available in the digital version of this thesis
Mr. E. Balls  
Secretary of State for Children, Schools and Families  
House of Commons  
Westminster  
London  
W1A 1AA

10th September 2007

Dear Mr. Balls,

I would be most grateful for any assistance that you may be able to offer in connection with the following.

Currently I am an educational psychologist working in the West Midlands. For a number of years, as part of my on-going professional development, I have been studying for a doctorate at the University of Birmingham. The focus of my study is the efficacy of the school-based provision made to meet the needs of pupils experiencing Special Educational Needs (SEN).

Recently I have brought together and summarised the work carried out for the initial phase of my study (a review of the content of official publications, a review of the literature and a Delphi study involving a panel of experts).

My summary suggests that:

First. There is general agreement that, although much progress has been made in providing for pupils with SEN, there is growing evidence of significant weaknesses and shortfalls that need to be remedied.

Second. There is less agreement, between sources, on the form that any changes should take.

It is my understanding that the notion of “Personalised Learning” is central to the Government’s proposals. Paradoxically, reports increasingly suggest that the onus for the implementation and success of this initiative will rest largely with individual schools - the very organisations that, my summary suggests, are struggling to
implement elements that are key to the success of the present system and will be key to the success of the “Personalised Learning” agenda.

I would be grateful for your comments on this paradox and some indication of the proposed measures (and timescale) intended to address it.

With many thanks for your time.

Yours sincerely,

David Smith
CertEd, BEd, BPhil, MEd, MEd(EdPsych), CPsychol
Educational Psychologist – Senior Practitioner
Honorary Clinical Lecturer - University of Birmingham
Appendix 1.v

Not available in the digital version of this thesis
Association of Educational Psychologists,

17th September 2007

Dear Secretary,

I would be very grateful if you would include the following request for assistance in a future copy of the AEP Broadsheet.

Currently I am an educational psychologist working within the I am also studying for a doctorate at the University of Birmingham. The working title of my dissertation is:

"An evaluation of the efficacy of the school-based provision made to meet the needs of learners experiencing special educational needs."

To date I have carried out an extensive literature review of government and academic publications. At this point, in an attempt to ensure comprehensive coverage and to address issues surrounding publication bias, it would be really helpful if members who are aware of unpublished work in this area (their own, perhaps?) and are willing to share this information would forward reference details to me at:

Any assistance will be gratefully received.

Regards,

David Smith
Membership No.: 
Message from Member - David Smith

Help Needed!

Currently I am an educational psychologist working within the... I am also studying for a doctorate at the University of Birmingham. The working title of my dissertation is:

"An evaluation of the efficacy of the school-based provision made to meet the needs of learners experiencing special educational needs."

To date I have carried out an extensive literature review of government and academic publications. At this point, in an attempt to ensure comprehensive coverage and to address issues surrounding publication bias, it would be really helpful if members who are aware of unpublished work in this area (their own, perhaps?) and are willing to share this information would forward reference details to me at: userdvd4503@aol.com.
Autumn Term 2006

Dear Colleague,
Thank you for agreeing to assist me with developing a questionnaire for the first stage of my doctoral research.

For this, the scoping phase of my study, I intend to use the “Delphi” technique to gain the views of an expert panel of witnesses regarding the efficacy of the school-based provision in place in primary schools in one local authority cluster.

Developed by Kaplan, Skogstad and Cirshich (1948) and refined by Helmer and Dalkey of the RAND Corporation in 1953, the Delphi technique provides a means of engaging a panel of experts in an interactive group process without them having to meet face to face. This is achieved by using a series of questionnaires, called “Delphi Rounds”, each of which (after the first) includes summary information about the entire panel’s response to the previous round. Thus, the approach creates a structured, anonymous interaction that avoids such group effects as dominance by one or two participants, deference to more powerful participants or “bandwagon” effects.

A detailed description of the Delphi Technique can be found in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000; pp238-239)\(^1\).

As a participant in this part of my study you will one of a group of six people who will meet up to:

- comment on the fitness for purpose and ease of completion of a specimen questionnaire; and
- contribute towards the formulation of a revised / final version of the questionnaire.

It is anticipated that the above will involve attending two meetings, each of one hour’s duration.

Should you wish to discuss any aspect of my research, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours Faithfully,

David Smith

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Please list those factors that, in your opinion, hinder the effective delivery of the school-based measures in place to meet the needs of pupils experiencing Special Educational Needs.

Effective Individual Education Plans

Please list those factors that, in your opinion, facilitate the effective delivery of the school-based measures in place to meet the needs of pupils experiencing Special Educational Needs.
Thank you for agreeing to participate in this anonymous survey. Please would you return the questionnaire, in the enclosed stamped and addressed envelope, by:

Thank you

Q1. What, in your opinion, are the strengths of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN? Please include those features that, in your view, facilitate the formulation and implementation of IEPs and contribute towards their effectiveness.

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Q2. What, in your opinion, are the weaknesses / limitations of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils experiencing SEN? Please include those features that, in your view, hinder the formulation and implementation of IEPs and impede their effectiveness.

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<td>Q3. How, in your opinion, can / should the effectiveness of IEPs be measured?</td>
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Q4. What, in your opinion, could / should be done to improve the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN? Please include changes / modifications that, in your view, would facilitate the formulation and implementation of IEPs and increase their effectiveness.

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Thank you for sharing your knowledge and expertise in this area – it is greatly appreciated.
The Delphi Technique

Thank you for considering assisting me with my doctoral research. For this phase of my study I am using a "Delphi" approach to gain the views of an expert panel of witnesses regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the IEP process (i.e. practice surrounding the formulation, implementation and review of IEPs) and how its effectiveness might be evaluated and improved.

Developed by Kaplan, Skogstad and Cirshich (1949) and refined by Helmer and Dalkey of the RAND Corporation in 1953, the Delphi technique provides a means of engaging a panel of experts in an interactive group process without them having to meet face to face. This is achieved by using a series of questionnaires, called "Delphi Rounds", each of which (after the first) includes summary information about the entire panel's response to the previous round. Thus, the approach creates a structured, anonymous interaction that avoids such group effects as dominance by one or two participants, deference to more powerful participants or "bandwagon" effects.

As a participant you will:

1. Receive an initial questionnaire that will ask you to draw upon your experience and expertise to:
   - identify the strengths of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN;
   - identify the weaknesses / limitations of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils experiencing SEN;
   - suggest how the effectiveness of the IEP process might be measured; and
   - suggest changes that might improve the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN.

2. Receive a second mailing which will list all of the responses obtained from the first round (with any duplication removed) and ask you to draw upon your experience and expertise to:
   - refine and comment on the ideas already received; and
• contribute any new ideas that have occurred to you since initially completing the questionnaire.

3. Receive a third mailing which will list all of the responses obtained from the second round (with any duplication removed) and ask you to draw upon your experience and expertise to:

• indicate the importance of each factor on a five point scale.

Following return of the final questionnaire, votes will be tallied and the result of the survey sent to all participants.

A detailed description of the Delphi Technique can be found in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000 pp 238 – 239)\(^1\).

A trial of the questionnaire indicates that, for each round, it took respondents between 20 minutes and 1 hour to complete, the median being 40 minutes.

To enable judgements to be made about the validity and reliability of my study I would like to include a list of panel members (together with their qualifications and status) in the appendix to my study. However, great care will be taken to preserve the anonymity of the consultation process and ensure that responses cannot be traced back to particular individuals. Should you feel uncomfortable with this I will, on request, omit your name from the list.

If you feel able to share your knowledge and expertise in this area, your participation in this study will be greatly appreciated.

Finally, should you wish to discuss any aspect of my research, please do not hesitate to contact me.

David Smith

Autumn Term 2006

---

APPENDIX

Membership of the Delphi Panel

Dr. A – Senior Educational Psychologist

Assistant Professor B – Lecturer in Special Educational Needs within a University
School of Education

Ms. C – Consultant Teacher

Dr. D – Academic and Professional Tutor, Professional Training Course in
Educational Psychology

Mr. E – Parent of a child with a statement of special educational need

Dr. F – Primary school SENCo

Ms. G – Educational Psychologist

Mr. H – Parent Partnership Service

Ms. I – Voluntary Organiser, Downs Society

Ms. J – Teacher, Pupil and School Support Service

supplementary material for Chapter Three
Autumn Term 2006

Dear Colleague,

Thank you for agreeing to assist with my doctoral research, the purpose of which is to explore the effectiveness of the Individual Education Plan (IEP) as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with a Special Educational Need (SEN).

For this, the first phase of my study, I am using a "Delphi" approach to gain the views of an expert panel of witnesses regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the IEP process (i.e. the practice surrounding the formulation, implementation and review of IEPs) and how its effectiveness might be evaluated and improved.

The Delphi technique is an anonymous process designed to:

- facilitate the creative exploration of ideas, and the production of reliable information for decision making, without the need to physically assemble the contributors; and
- take full advantage of participants' creativity by capitalising on the merits of group problem-solving whilst, at the same time, minimising the disadvantages associated with group problem-solving.

I have enclosed an information sheet for those who wish to know more.

As a participant you will:

1. Receive an initial questionnaire that will ask you to draw upon your experience and expertise to:
   - identify the strengths of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN;
   - identify the weaknesses / limitations of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils experiencing SEN;
   - suggest how the effectiveness of the IEP process might be measured; and
   - suggest changes that might improve the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN.
2. Receive a second mailing which will list all of the responses obtained from the first round (with any duplication removed) and ask you to draw upon your experience and expertise to:
   - refine and comment on the ideas already received; and
   - contribute any new ideas that have occurred to you since initially completing the questionnaire.

3. Receive a third mailing which will list all of the responses obtained from the second round (with any duplication removed) and ask you to draw upon your experience and expertise to:
   - indicate the importance of each factor on a five point scale.

Following return of the final questionnaire, votes will be tallied and the results of the survey sent to all participants.

Thank you for agreeing to share your knowledge and expertise in this area – it is greatly appreciated. Should you wish to discuss any aspect of my research, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours faithfully,

David Smith
Thank you for agreeing to participate in this anonymous survey. Please would you return the questionnaire, in the enclosed stamped and addressed envelope, by:

**Friday 1\textsuperscript{st} December 2006**

*Thank you*

Please note:
- Responses do not need to be placed in any order of priority
- Do not feel pressured to fill all of the boxes; just use as many as you need
- If you need more space, please continue on the back of the relevant response sheet

What are the strengths of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with a SEN?

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What are the weaknesses / limitations of the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils experiencing SEN?

Weakness / limitation 1:

Weakness / limitation 2:

Weakness / limitation 3:

Weakness / limitation 4:

Weakness / limitation 5:

Weakness / limitation 6:

Weakness / limitation 7:
How can the effectiveness of IEPs be measured?

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What should be done to improve the IEP process as a means of meeting the needs of pupils with SEN?

Suggestion 1:

Suggestion 2:

Suggestion 3:

Suggestion 4:

Suggestion 5:

Suggestion 6:

Suggestion 7:

Thank you for sharing your knowledge and expertise in this area – it is greatly appreciated.
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<th>Strengths of the IEP process</th>
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<td>Labels the pupil as having difficulty- passed on at transition point- preconceived ideas not always helpful. It doesn’t give a holistic view of the pupil-it only focuses on particular areas of weakness. It is only for pupils identified as SEN-a “cut off” point-to have an IEP or not! Shouldn’t everyone have goals or actions?</td>
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<td>Have a common system for all children, not just those from a “cut off” point. More a continuum of support, etc. Move away from categorisation of type of need. Scrap it!</td>
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<th><strong>Strengths of the IEP process</strong></th>
<th><strong>Weaknesses/limitations of the IEP process</strong></th>
<th><strong>How can the effectiveness of IEPs be measured?</strong></th>
<th><strong>What should be done to improve the IEP process?</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intervention</td>
<td>Intervention can only be effective if the right targets are chosen. Setting the right targets is dependent upon the knowledge, insight and skill of those setting them i.e. their ability to identify targets that are going to secure maximum progress rather than those that just address the signs and symptoms of wider difficulties. It takes the focus off improving the learning environment-puts onus on pupil as having difficulty-negative. Focuses on the reasons for a pupil being unable to access a school’s curriculum; not on the reason for a school being unable to enable a pupil to access its curriculum. Targets can be meaningless if not constructed well/effectively. Limited in outlook-priority on goals/actions and other learning can be ignored.</td>
<td>Intervention</td>
<td>More “personalised learning”-moving in this direction. A section suggesting what schools need to do/changes/arrangements that school needs to make to ensure that pupils don’t just get an intervention chosen from a possibly narrow range that a teacher knows about/feels confident delivering-and which might not necessarily be what the pupil needs. Always reflect on the environment having identified an individual need. Ensure IEP has an element of intervention within home system and by the parents. Person-centred planning. Greater use of e.g. PATH/Solution Circles. Visual Reviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brings together a team of people to work through sometimes complex decision making. Encourages people to listen to each other. Enables a plan-do-review process with a clear focus on need to be developed. Focuses on a shared set of goals/actions for a pupil-particularly important at secondary school (or where lots of different staff involved). Supports targeted intervention. Enables/facilitates baseline/post measures for intervention.</td>
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<td>Strengths of the IEP process</td>
<td>Weaknesses/limitations of the IEP process</td>
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<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Implementation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Helps to focus on learning priorities and be positive in approach.</td>
<td>If targets not implemented ... just a piece of paper.</td>
<td>By looking at how far it is reflected in planning/differentiation.</td>
<td>Ensure SENCo, etc. write clear, measurable targets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If done well it is a joint point of reference for pupils, parents, school staff and support services to work together for the benefit of the child and engage all. It is individualised to the pupil. It pinpoints where provision should be targeted. Allows the pupil to become involved in and take ownership of their own learning. Increases family/parent involvement in child’s learning.</td>
<td>Effectiveness can be patchy and dependent upon the knowledge and skill of the teacher—what happens if a child with significant need finds themselves placed in an NQT’s class? It is nothing more than a paper exercise—not reflected in provision for pupil.</td>
<td></td>
<td>No SENCo!—how about “personalised learning” coordinators—full-time post. Ensure all pupil participation is meaningful. Making it more of a “road map” or plan that works at the child as a whole, not just specific targets. Lots of preparation with the pupils—explanations, relaxed environment, involvement of a friend/support. Improved processes to support the child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengths of the IEP process</td>
<td>Weaknesses/limitations of the IEP process</td>
<td>How can the effectiveness of IEPs be measured?</td>
<td>What should be done to improve the IEP process?</td>
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<td>Monitoring</td>
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<td>When writing IEP, a date is set for its review.</td>
<td>Learning is a continuous process—not only set goals/actions which are reviewed intermittently. What about daily/weekly progress?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strengths of the IEP process</td>
<td>Weaknesses/limitations of the IEP process</td>
<td>How can the effectiveness of IEPs be measured?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Evaluating Progress</td>
<td>Evaluating Progress</td>
<td>Evaluating Progress</td>
<td>Evaluating Progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a way for evaluating progress (and therefore planning).</td>
<td>Who decides that adequate progress has been made?</td>
<td>Targets should be meaningful therefore self-measuring.</td>
<td>Ensure (always) pre/post measures for targets.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>By looking at how stated outcomes on IEP match to the actual outcomes for the pupil.</td>
<td>Use of scaling and solution focused questioning.</td>
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<td>Against set criteria agreed when goals/targets written-how do we know when we have got there? SMART!</td>
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<td>Teacher views/assessments.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>CRISP!</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Perceptual measures, i.e. pupil’s (adult/teacher/parent) perceptions pre/post.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Peer perception, i.e. in what way has “x” got better?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Strengths of the IEP process</td>
<td>Weaknesses/limitations of the IEP process</td>
<td>How can the effectiveness of IEPs be measured?</td>
<td>What should be done to improve the IEP process?</td>
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<tr>
<td>The initial training and continual development of teachers</td>
<td>The initial training and continual development of teachers</td>
<td>The initial training and continual development of teachers</td>
<td>Implications for schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If done well it is a joint point of reference for pupils, parents, school staff and support services to work together for the benefit of the child and engage all</td>
<td>It seems to me that some children get identified because of the school’s shortcomings, not because of the child’s need (i.e. lack of tolerance/understanding of, or inability to manage, the child’s behaviour). There’s lots of examples where parents have been encouraged to move the child who has then done well in another setting—doesn’t this suggest that the behaviour of the teachers should be explored as well as the child’s? Interventions can only be effective if the right targets are chosen. Setting the right targets is dependent upon the knowledge, insight and skill of those setting them, i.e. their ability to identify targets that are going to secure maximum progress rather than those that just address the signs and symptoms of wider difficulties. It takes the focus off improving the learning environment—puts onus on the pupil as having difficulty-negative. (Continued)</td>
<td>By looking at how far it is reflected in planning/differentiation. Teacher views/assessment.</td>
<td>A section suggesting what school needs to do/changes/arrangements that school needs to make to ensure that pupils don’t just get an intervention chosen from a possibly narrow range that a teacher knows about/feels confident delivering—and which might not necessarily be what pupils need. Always reflect on the environment having identified an individual need. A gentle but persistent programme of awareness raising to encourage (less understanding!) staff towards an increasing awareness of, and empathy towards, the needs of all children. A rolling programme of teacher improvement to make sure that teachers have the degree of skill necessary to adequately implement the programmes that have been formulated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focuses on the reasons for a pupil being unable to access a school's curriculum, not the reasons for a school being unable to enable a pupil to access its curriculum.

Effectiveness can be patchy and dependent upon the knowledge and skills of the teacher—what happens if a child with significant needs finds themselves placed in an NQT's class?

Sometimes becomes a process for the SENCo and not everyone is included in the decision-making process.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths of the IEP process</th>
<th>Weaknesses/limitations of the IEP process</th>
<th>How can the effectiveness of IEPs be measured?</th>
<th>What should be done to improve the IEP process?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parental concerns</td>
<td>Parental concerns</td>
<td>Parental concerns</td>
<td>Parental concerns</td>
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<tr>
<td>Increases family/parent involvement in child’s learning.</td>
<td>Child and family views not always a priority.</td>
<td>Perceptual measures, i.e. pupil’s (adult/teacher/parent) perceptions pre/post.</td>
<td>Involve pupils and parents more.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 3

3.i: Authority guidelines on the use of the five teacher training days

3.ii: Exchange of e-mails with Professor Dylan Wiliam; Institute of Education, University of London

3.iii: Model whole-school CPD policy

Guidance to Schools on the use of the 5 Statutory service Training Days

Bulletin Item: SE/153/06

From: Adviser for Professional Development  To: Headteachers of all schools
Ref: SE/153/06  Action: For information only
Contact: Annie McCabe  Address: Learning Development Centre
Tel: 01273 292646  Fax: 01273 294254

As there is no national DfES guidance on the use of the five statutory days for inservice training & development, we have developed the attached guidance, which schools will find helpful. This was produced following consultation with schools in term 06.

The Headteachers' Steering Group will agree one common inset date for the 2007 academic year at their meeting in January 07. This will then be published to schoo

Last updated 14-Sep-06

Text only version

Appendix 3.ii

Not available in the digital version of this thesis
Guidance to Schools on the use of the 5 Statutory In-service Training Days

Background

In 1985, five statutory days for school based in-service training were identified within school teachers’ directed time. There is no national DfES guidance on the use of these training & development days. They remain under the direction of the headteacher, providing that schools are able to show anyone with a valid interest in the matter (LEA, Ofsted etc) that full benefit in terms of professional development has been obtained from the five days, however they are structured.

Overarching Principles

This guidance has been produced to support the following principles:

- It remains the headteacher’s responsibility to make the final decision as to the timing and the content of ‘training’ days.

- All teaching staff (fte) must attend the equivalent of five days training as part of their directed time. These five days are the minimum level of teachers’ professional development. Headteachers can arrange and direct staff to additional training and development activities to best meet the needs of the school, within teachers’ directed time.

- Schools should ensure that all teachers access and use their full five days for statutory training and development. Staff should not be required to use this time for other school duties or responsibilities.

- Schools ensure that both whole school needs (SIP) and individual/team needs are considered in their planning for best use of their inset days and that the strategies used to evaluate the impact of the learning are integral to individual performance management and SIP monitoring.

- Best practice is that all support staff (classroom and non classroom based) have a programme of professional development that is integrated with and delivered alongside teachers’ development wherever appropriate. Support staff attendance at training & development should be within their paid hours of work.

- Performance management reviews may be considered as part of a teacher’s training & development and integrated into the five days in-service at the headteacher’s discretion.

- Schools will inform the Governor Support team termly in advance of their closure dates (a bulletin with a return form is published approximately 4-5 weeks before the end of each term), so that the school meals and transport services can be given advance information.
City-wide days

All schools already take the first day of the school year as an inset day. In addition to this date one additional common day each year will be proposed by the Headteachers' Steering Group (HTSG) at the start of the financial year. This arrangement will support and encourage inter school working and area/cluster activities between schools. It will also facilitate involvement of appropriate staff in city-wide Children & Young People's Trust training events (eg Common Assessment Framework / Lead Professional training). It will not be a requirement for schools to work together on this day. When interagency activities are proposed for this day, these will be agreed with HTSG in advance. Teachers'/staff attendance at these events will be at the headteacher's direction.

Twilight activities

Schools have found the option to offer a proportion of their five inset days as twilight sessions a valuable way of increasing the range and flexibility of provision they offer to staff. If this option is followed then headteachers are asked to consider the following:

- Headteachers consult with their staff to ensure no one will be excluded because of child/family care responsibilities
- Dates are planned to be early in a term to maximise learning
- Accurate records of individual attendance are kept at school level
- The local authority is informed of twilight dates at the start of each year to avoid clashes with other events
- Staff attend 6 hours (eg 3 × 2hr inset sessions) in lieu of each whole day inset
- Resulting days in lieu are added to existing school holidays (eg summer)

Planning other school inset days

In planning the dates of other inset closure days it is recommended that these days are at the start of a term/half term whenever possible. Every effort should be taken to avoid a closure in the middle of a week, but it is recognised that this is not always possible.

July 2006
A school policy for CPD

The following policy is provided as an example to help CPD leaders consider the range of issues that underpin effective CPD. As with all 'model' policies, there is little value in simply filling in your school name and adopting it as presented. Value comes from discussion of its content with relevant people within your school to obtain a common understanding and approach. This policy is adapted from work done within Lincolnshire as part of a GTC pilot project.

A MODEL CPD POLICY FOR XXXXXX SCHOOL

This draft policy should be used in conjunction with the Role of the School CPD Co-ordinator item.

Principles, Values and Entitlements:

1. The school believes in the DfES philosophy that "effective teachers should take ownership and give a high priority to professional development". It believes that a coherent and progressive opportunity to develop professionally and personally both improves standards and raises morale through personal and professional fulfilment and assists recruitment and retention.

2. All staff, teaching, support staff and governors shall have an entitlement to equality of access to high-quality induction and continuing professional development. All members of the school community will have opportunities through performance management, appraisal and through other mechanisms to discuss their professional development needs.

3. The school will obtain appropriate quality standards in organisations that support effective CPD, eg. Investors in People, Charter Marks, Basic Skills Quality Marks.

4. The central emphasis will be on improving standards and the quality of teaching and learning. The ultimate aim is the improvement in the practice of individuals and teams through creating learning communities in which supportive and collaborative cultures directly extend the capacity for continuous self improvement.

5. CPD planning will be inextricably linked and integrated with the school's development/improvement plan and be based on a range of information:
   - the needs of the school as identified through its self-evaluation;
   - issues identified through other monitoring, eg. OFSTED, quality standards such as Investors in People;
   - national and local priorities, eg. national strategies, the LEA's EDP, local community priorities;
   - Performance Management;
   - feedback from staff and others including governors, pupils and parents.

6. The school will have effective measures in place to audit the professional and personal needs of staff and link to the school's self-evaluation and performance management system. The school's CPD policy will address the needs created by national and local priorities, the needs of the school as well as individual aspirations, needs and personal fulfilment.

7. The school will endeavour to source the provision of CPD according to the best value principles of comparison, challenge, consultation and competition.
8. The school's CPD provision will allow staff to develop skills and competencies progressively, with reference to recognised competency frameworks such as the DfES Teachers Standards Framework, NCSL's Leadership Development Framework, and competency descriptions for Teaching Assistants, HLTAs, bursars, etc.

9. Quality assurance mechanisms will ensure that schools access provision of a consistently high standard.

10. The CPD co-ordinator holds a senior responsibility within the school.

11. The school will interpret CPD in a broad sense, operating on the principle of "fitness for purpose".

12. The school will support accreditation of the professional development of staff.

13. The school will disseminate good and successful CPD practice that supports and improves teaching and learning.

14. CPD processes will be designed to widen participation, maximise inclusion and minimise bureaucracy.

15. The school will participate in initiatives and projects which can be shown to have a positive impact on staff development, represent good value for money and can be accommodated within the constraints of the school.

Leadership and Management of CPD

1. The school will have a named CPD co-ordinator who shall be deemed to be fulfilling a leadership and management responsibility in relation to this post. The CPD Co-ordinator will receive training as appropriate in order to fulfil this role effectively and attend useful providers sessions.

2. The CPD Co-ordinator shall be responsible for identifying the school's CPD needs and those of the staff working within it. The CPD Co-ordinator should have a well-defined description of the role.

3. The CPD Co-ordinator will be responsible annually for discussing with the headteacher and governing body the main CPD priorities and the likely budgetary implications of addressing these needs. They will advise on issues such as the benefits of service agreements with appropriate providers.

4. CPD issues will be addressed at governing body meetings and be included as part of the headteacher's report. The CPD Co-ordinator shall attend governing body meetings as appropriate, including the presentation annually of a report on the provision and impact of CPD.

5. There should be robust, transparent arrangements for accessing CPD that are known to all staff.

6. There will be arrangements for annual discussions between staff and the CPD Co-ordinator to discuss the following within the context of school priorities:
   - needs and aspirations;
methods of accessing CPD provision including appropriate funding;
• accreditation opportunities;
• ways of disseminating the training.
Where appropriate, this will be combined with the Performance Management process. In large
teachers, this may be devolved to appropriately-trained line managers.

Planning for Effective CPD

The school arrangements for CPD need to balance the judicious use of resources with the range of
aspirations and interests within staff. The following criteria will be used to inform the decision
taking process to achieve such a balance. CPD opportunities will be rated more highly when they:

a) meet identified individual, school or national development priorities;

b) are based on good practice – in development activity and in teaching and learning;

c) help raise standards of pupils’ achievements;

d) respect cultural diversity;

e) are provided by those with the necessary experience, expertise and skills;

f) are planned systematically and follow the agreed programme except when dealing with
emerging issues;

g) are based, where appropriate, on relevant standards;

h) are based on current research and inspection evidence;

i) make effective use of resources, particularly ICT;

j) are provided in accommodation which is fit for purpose with appropriate equipment;

k) provide value for money;

l) have effective monitoring and evaluation systems including seeking out and acting on user
feedback to inform the quality of provision.

Supporting a range of CPD activities

The school will support a wide portfolio of CPD approaches in an effort to match preferred learning
styles of staff and to maximise the impact on teaching and learning within the school. These CPD
approaches will include:

• attendance at a course or conference;

• in-school training using the expertise available within the school, eg. team teaching, skills
in classroom observation, sharing existing expertise;

• school-based work through accessing an external consultant/adviser or relevant expert
such as an advanced skills or lead teacher, master classes, model and demonstration
lessons;

• school visit to observe or participate in good and successful practice, eg. visit to a school
or subject area with similar circumstances, a beacon school;

• secondments, eg. with a regional or national organisation, an exchange or placement, eg.
with another teacher, school, higher education, industry, international exchange,
involvement with governing body;
opportunities to participate in award bearing work from higher education or other providers such as NCSL;

research opportunities, eg. a best practice research scholarship;

distance learning, eg. relevant resources, training videos, reflection, simulation;

practical experience, eg. national test or exam marking experience, opportunities to present a paper, contribute to a training programme, co-ordinating or supporting a learning forum or network, involvement in local and national networks;

job enrichment/enlargement, eg. a higher level of responsibility; front lining working in someone else’s job, job sharing, acting roles, job rotation, shadowing;

producing documentation or resources such as a personal development plan, teaching materials, assessment package, ICT or video programme;

coaching and mentoring – receiving or acting in these roles, acting as or receiving the support of a critical friend, team building activity;

partnerships, eg. with a colleague, group, subject, phase, activity or school-based; team meetings and activities such as joint planning, observation or standardisation, special project working group, involvement in School Improvement Partnership Network, Network Learning Community;

creating an improved learning environment within the school.

Recording and disseminating

The CPD Co-ordinator will provide directly, or organise, guidance to staff on producing and updating an appropriate professional development portfolio.

Following professional development, the participant will discuss with the CPD Co-ordinator the process by which to most effectively disseminate to other staff, eg. relevant papers, session at staff or subject meeting, etc.

The CPD co-ordinator will also be responsible for ensuring whether any follow up is needed to the training, eg. feedback to the provider and be responsible for any such actions.

The CPD co-ordinator will update records regularly and accurately of the training undertaken by colleagues and advise the appropriate bodies where there are issues of equality of access and involvement.

Assessing the impact of CPD

Annually the CPD co-ordinator shall conclude his/her report to the governing body with an assessment on the benefits of CPD undertaken (and planned), especially as it relates to:

- pupil and school attainment;
- improved teaching and learning;
- increased pupil understanding and enthusiasm;
- increased staff confidence;
- increased evidence of reflective practice;
- recruitment, retention and career progression/promotable staff.

This CPD policy will be reviewed annually by the Governing Body.
Categorisation of the school workforce, Bubb and Earley, 2006)

Bubb and Earley (2006) suggest that (as well as dividing responsibility for auditing, planning, managing and evaluating staff development on a departmental, key stage / year group basis) members of the “school workforce” can be categorised in many other ways, e.g.:

- Trainee and aspiring teachers – PGCE, BEd, GTP, RTP, Teach First
- Overseas trained teachers
- Newly qualified teachers
- Teachers in their first five years
- More experienced teachers
- ASTs, fast track and lead teachers
- Middle managers, subject leaders
- Senior managers at different stages in careers
- Regular supply staff
- Returners
- Governors
- Support staff – bursars, business / premises managers
- Teaching assistants, nursery nurses, bilingual support, midday supervisors, language assistants and learning mentors, etc.
- Secretarial, administrative and catering staff
- Instructors and technicians
APPENDIX 4

4.i Communication requesting permission to use questionnaire format devised by Goodall et al. (3005)

4.ii SENCo questionnaire

4.iii Senior management semi-structured interview schedule

4.iv Letter and pro-forma seeking an opinion regarding the accuracy of the semi-structured interview transcript

4.v Interviewee’s opinion regarding the accuracy of the semi-structured interview transcripts
Dear Prof. Lindsay,

Please forgive this intrusion. I am an educational psychologist, working for the currently engaged on the final stage of my EdPsychD at the University of Birmingham. The working title for my dissertation is:

"An evaluation of the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) arrangements in place, in primary schools, to enable staff to meet the needs of all pupils."

Inevitably, during the course of my literature review, I came across your own work (Evaluating the Impact of Continuing Professional Development (CPD), Goodall et al 2005).

In brief I am exploring:

- the nature and extent to which the primary schools in my "patch" evaluate their CPD activities;
- how school management teams balance competing demands for CPD; and
- the confidence of senior managers to evaluate the impact of CPD at a number of levels.

The intention is to produce a profile of practice that will facilitate the development of peer coaching, mentoring and critical friendship links between the schools and staff in my cluster.

I have already developed and trialled a process entitled the Newly Qualified Teacher’s Views on Inclusive Child-centred Education (NQT’s VOICE for short) which facilitates discussion around their CPD needs.

To enable me to compare the views of senior managers with your own findings I would be grateful if I could replicate the sections of your Senior Management questionnaire relating to:

- Evaluating the efficacy of CPD events
- The aspects of CPD events that are evaluated
- The importance attached to evaluating impact at each of Guskey’s five levels
- The methods used for evaluating CPD events

(I have added my own sections which, for example, probe management confidence in the application of evaluative strategies)

Should this be possible I would appreciate brief details regarding the evaluation of the questionnaire (piloting / pre-trialling, for example).

Regards,

Dave Smith
Educational Psychologist
Senior Practitioner
CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (CPD)
SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS COORDINATORS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

1. PROVISION

1.1 Which of the following types of CPD does your school / do members of your teaching staff engage in (as recipients of CPD)?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<tr>
<td>Conferences / Lectures</td>
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<td>Single workshop (half day / twilight)</td>
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<td>INSET days</td>
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<td>Short (one day) training programmes</td>
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<td>Series of workshops</td>
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<td>Peer Coaching</td>
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<td>Mentoring</td>
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<td>Critical friendships</td>
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<td>Department / Key stage meetings (for skill development not administrative purposes)</td>
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<td>Staff meetings (convened for skill development not administrative purposes)</td>
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<td>Extended training programmes (e.g. provided by LEA / NCSL)</td>
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<td>Secondments / Sabbaticals</td>
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<td>HE Courses / Programmes</td>
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<td>Best Practice Research Scholarships</td>
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<td>School – University Partnerships</td>
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<td>Learning Networks</td>
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<td>E-learning</td>
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<td>Action Research Projects</td>
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<td>Special(ised) school offerings</td>
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<td>Other (please specify):</td>
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</table>

Please continue overleaf as necessary
2. EVALUATION

2.1 Evaluating the effectiveness of CPD events

<table>
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<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does your school evaluate the effectiveness of a CPD event?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do evaluation arrangements differ for different types of CPD?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Does your school involve participating staff in designing the</td>
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<tr>
<td>evaluation of CPD events?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Are the findings of the evaluation fed back to participants?</td>
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</table>

2.2 When evaluating the effectiveness of a CPD event, which aspects does your school assess?

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<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant satisfaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Change in participant views i.e. attitudes, confidence to</td>
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<td>deliver</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improvement in participant knowledge / skills</td>
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<td>Changes in participant behaviour</td>
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<td>Organisational change</td>
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<td>Student outcomes</td>
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<td>Cost effectiveness</td>
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<td>Other (please specify):</td>
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<td>Other (please specify):</td>
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</table>
2.3 How important is it for your school to evaluate the impact of CPD on the following?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Neither important or unimportant</th>
<th>Not very important</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant satisfaction</td>
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<td>Changes in participant views i.e. attitudes, confidence to deliver</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improvement in participant knowledge / skills</td>
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<td>Changes in participant behaviour</td>
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<td>Cost effectiveness</td>
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<td>Other (please specify):</td>
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</table>

2.4 How confident are you in evaluating the impact of CPD on the following?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very confident</th>
<th>Confident</th>
<th>Neither confident or not confident</th>
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<td>Changes in participant views i.e. attitudes, confidence to deliver</td>
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<td>Improvement in participant knowledge / skills</td>
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<td>Student outcomes</td>
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<td>Cost effectiveness</td>
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</table>
2.4 Which methods does your school use for evaluating CPD events?

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<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<tr>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
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<td>Interviews with staff</td>
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<td>Reflective Learning Logs and journals</td>
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<td>Classroom observation</td>
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<td>Pupil outcome measures</td>
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<td>Interviews with pupils</td>
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<td>Pupil attitude or other non-cognitive measures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collection of documentary evidence</td>
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<td>Other (please specify):</td>
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</table>

2.5 Which methods does your school consider to be the most useful for evaluating the impact of a CPD event?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Very useful</th>
<th>Somewhat useful</th>
<th>Neither useful or not useful</th>
<th>Not very useful</th>
<th>Not useful at all</th>
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<tbody>
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Thank you for your time and effort – it is greatly appreciated
Glossary
Definitions of terms used in the questionnaire

Action Research
A form of small-scale workplace-based research in which teachers, trainers or other professionals investigate their practice with the aim of developing it

Critical friend
A trusted person who asks provocative questions, provides data to be examined through another lens, and offers critiques, as a friend, of a person’s work. A critical friend takes the time to understand fully the context of the work presented and the outcomes that the person or group is working toward. The friend is an advocate for the success of that work. (Costa and Kallick, 1993)

E-learning
E-learning is learning supported or enhanced through the application of information and communication technology (ICT). A broad spectrum of activities constitute e-learning, from straightforward applications that enhance classroom activities to full distance, online and remote learning

Mentoring
Mentoring is a structured, sustained process for supporting others through learning. Mentoring can be used for induction at a new organisation or for support to enable others to address issues that may inhibit progress. Mentoring is normally more directive than coaching, with the mentor coming from a position of experience, authority or knowledge (www.tda.gov.uk/upload/resources/pdf/m/mc_framework.pdf. Retrieved March 2008)

Peer Coaching
A confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect upon current practice; expand, refine and build new skills; share ideas; conduct action research; teach one another and problem-solve within the workplace (Robbins, 1991)

References


An evaluation of the continuing professional development (CPD) processes in place in primary schools in one local authority cluster

**Interview Schedule**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Why is continuing professional development (CPD) sought within your organisation?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Prompt</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Please continue overleaf
2. What constitutes good CPD?
(What does good CPD look like?)

*Prompt*

Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response

Please continue overleaf
5. Does school make specific arrangements for specific groups i.e. according to career phase or identity?

Prompt

Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response

Subsidiary questions

5a If you have answered “yes” to Q5, please give examples of specific arrangements that might need to be made for specific groups.

5b. Are there any of these groups that you consider to be poorly served or particularly well served?

Please continue overleaf
4. How are decisions reached regarding the provision of CPD?

Prompt

Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response.

Please continue overleaf
3. What are the barriers, if any, to providing effective CPD?

*Prompt*

*Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response*

*Subsidiary questions*

3a Which of the barriers that you have identified are the most problematic?

3b What strategies have you employed / can you suggest that might help other schools surmount these barriers?

Please continue overleaf
7. What are the barriers, if any, that hinder / prevent the knowledge gained from CPD being translated into practice.

**Prompt**

*Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response.*

**Subsidiary questions**

7a Which of the barriers that you have identified are the most problematic?

7b What strategies have you employed / can you suggest that might help other schools surmount these barriers?

Please continue overleaf
6. How are the outcomes of CPD disseminated?

**Prompt**

*Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response*

**Subsidiary questions**

6a What are the barriers, if any, that hinder the dissemination of the knowledge gained from CPD activities?

6b Which of the barriers that you have identified are the most problematic?

6c What strategies have you employed / can you suggest that might help other schools surmount these barriers?

Please continue overleaf
8. How does your organisation evaluate the impact of CPD?

Prompt

Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response.

Please continue overleaf
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. Which change(s) / impact(s) is / are the most difficult to measure?</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Prompt**

*Where necessary, ask the interviewee to expand upon their response*

**Subsidiary questions**

9a What are the difficulties associated with measuring this / these change(s) / impact(s)?

9b What strategies have you employed / can you suggest that might help other schools surmount these barriers?

Please continue overleaf
November, 2009

Dear Colleague,

Thank you for participating in the recent interview, conducted as part of my doctoral research entitled:

An exploration of the continuing professional development (CPD) processes in place in primary schools in one local authority cluster.

The process of writing up the interviews gives scope for misunderstandings, mistakes and inaccuracies. I would, therefore, be grateful if you would read through the attached summary, carefully, and check it for accuracy.

As you read, please:

- strike out any of the content that:
  - you consider inaccurate or misrepresentative; or
  - you no longer wish to be recorded.

- make any amendments that you consider necessary; and

- feel free to add any points that you consider would enhance / increase the accuracy of the description of your school's CPD processes.

When you have read through and amended the summary, I would be grateful if you would complete the attached form.

Thank you for your time and effort.

Regards,

David Smith
Educational Psychologist
Thank you for participating in the recent interview, conducted as part of my doctoral research entitled:

An exploration of the continuing professional development (CPD) processes in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster.

I have read through (and, where necessary, amended) the attached summary of the interview conducted with a representative of School (A), (B), (C), (D)'s senior management team:

Yes

I consider that the summary (as amended) accurately represents the CPD process current at the time the interview was conducted:

Please tick the box that best describes the extent to which you disagree or agree with the above statement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Thank you
Thank you for participating in the recent interview, conducted as part of my doctoral research entitled:

An exploration of the continuing professional development (CPD) processes in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster, to enable teaching staff to meet the needs of all pupils

I have read through (and, where necessary, amended) the attached summary of the interview conducted with a representative of School A's senior management team:

Yes √

I consider that the summary (as amended) accurately represents the CPD process current at the time the interview was conducted:

Please tick the box that best describes the extent to which you disagree or agree with the above statement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Thank you
November, 2009

Dear Colleague,

Thank you for participating in the recent interview, conducted as part of my doctoral research entitled:

An exploration of the continuing professional development (CPD) processes in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster, to enable staff to meet the needs of all pupils

The process of writing up the interviews gives scope for misunderstandings, mistakes and inaccuracies. I would, therefore, be grateful if you would read through the attached summary, carefully, and check it for accuracy.

As you read, please:

- strike out any of the content that:
  - you consider inaccurate or misrepresentative; or
  - you no longer wish to be recorded.

- make any amendments that you consider necessary; and

- feel free to add any points that you consider would enhance / increase the accuracy of the description of your school's CPD processes.

When you have read through and amended the summary, I would be grateful if you would complete the attached form.

Thank you for your time and effort.

Regards,

David Smith
Educational Psychologist

---

Thank you for participating in the recent interview, conducted as part of my doctoral research entitled:

An exploration of the continuing professional development (CPD) processes in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster, to enable staff to meet the needs of all pupils

I have read through (and, where necessary, amended) the attached summary of the interview conducted with a representative of School B's senior management team:

[Yes]

I consider that the summary (as amended) accurately represents the CPD process current at the time the interview was conducted:

Please tick the box that best describes the extent to which you disagree or agree with the above statement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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Thank you
Thank you for participating in the recent interview, conducted as part of my doctoral research entitled:

An evaluation of the continuing professional development (CPD) processes in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster, to enable staff to meet the needs of all pupils.

I have read through (and, where necessary, amended) the attached summary of the interview conducted with a representative of School D’s senior management team:

[Yes √]

I consider that the summary (as amended) accurately represents the CPD process current at the time the interview was conducted:

Please tick the box that best describes the extent to which you disagree or agree with the above statement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
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Thank you

David Smith, Educational Psychologist, November 2009
APPENDIX 5

5.i: Reporting and Analysis for Improvement through School Self-Evaluation (RAISE On-line)

5.ii: Assessing Pupils' Progress (APP)

5.iii: Teacher's Views on Inclusive Child-Centre Education (VOICE)
About RAISEonline

RAISEonline aims to:-
- Enable schools to analyse performance data in greater depth as part of the self-evaluation process,
- Provide a common set of analyses for schools, Local authorities, inspectors and School Improvement Partners,
- Better support teaching and learning.

Features include:-
- Reports and analysis covering the attainment and progress of pupils in Key Stage 1, 2, 3 & 4, with interactive features allowing exploration of hypotheses about pupil performance,
- Contextual information about the school including comparisons to schools nationally,
- Question level analysis, allowing schools to investigate the performance of pupils in specific curriculum areas,
- Target Setting, supporting schools in the process of monitoring, challenging and supporting pupil performance,
- Data management facility providing the ability to import and edit pupil level data and create school-defined fields and teaching groups.

Users should log in then refer to Getting Started, the online Tutorials or Help materials for assistance in using RAISEonline or click on Latest News for further updates.
APP is a structured approach to in-school assessment which:

- enables teachers to make judgements about their pupils’ attainment, keyed into national standards
- develops and refines teachers’ understanding of progression in their subject
- provides diagnostic information about the strengths and weaknesses of individual pupils and groups
- enables teachers to track pupils’ progress over time
- informs curriculum planning
- facilitates the setting of meaningful curricular targets that can be shared with pupils and parents
- promotes teaching that’s matched to pupils’ needs
- supports the transfer of meaningful information at key transitional points, e.g. from Key Stage 2 to Key Stage 3
- is not a ‘bolt-on’ to existing arrangements. APP is all you need.

For further information about the APP materials and how to use APP to benefit pupils, see the Introduction.

The DCSF has produced a helpful pamphlet, *Getting to Grips with Assessing Pupils’ Progress*, which Access the primary and secondary subject specific APP materials using the links below. All of the materials to support Key Stages 1, 2 and 3 are available to download from this website. The latest edition of *Secondary Education magazine* contains a series of articles on APP, including how...

**Back to introduction**

Your APP assessments are more likely to be accurate and useful if you have a range of appropriate evidence. Pupils are likely to have undertaken a variety of activities since their last APP assessment, so you need to periodically review your pupils’ work to gather evidence on their progress.

- APP is used to periodically review your pupils’ work so you will wish to gather evidence on their progress.
- Use the work that’s already in pupils’ exercise books or portfolios and make use of any ‘stic’ that is already available.
- You can also take account of what you or others have seen pupils do in the course of their work.
- You won’t need to look back at all of the work a pupil has done since their last APP assessment.
- A manageable range of evidence will facilitate the process of ‘scaling up’ to involve all pupils.

**What helps?**

- Identifying assessment opportunities in the scheme of work in order to ensure that a broad range of evidence is demonstrated for a significant degree of independence.
- Discussing with colleagues the range of evidence in a small selection of the Standards Files.

**Back to introduction**

Teacher's VOICE (Views On Child-centred Education)

The Teacher's VOICE explores the respondent's views regarding the usefulness of, and their confidence to perform, actions that they might be required to carry out as they work to meet the range of needs encountered within the inclusive classroom.

Completed anonymously, the questionnaire consists of:

- a practitioner generated list of actions (each action listed under one of four headings: assessment and identification; intervention; implementation; and monitoring and reviewing); and
- rating scales which explore:
  - the respondent's view of the usefulness of each action; and
  - the respondent's confidence in their ability to complete each action.

Instructions

Please:

- Read each item and, using the scales provided, rate:
  - how important you consider that factor to be in helping you to meet the needs of pupils currently in your class; and
  - how confident you feel about performing this action / implementing this strategy.
- List any factors that you consider important, but have been missed from the questionnaire, in the empty boxes provided at the end of each section and, then, use the scales provided next to the boxes to rate these additional items.
- Turn to page 6. Choose up to five actions from the questionnaire that you feel you would like to expand your expertise in. In the boxes provided, describe what action would need to take place to move your level of confidence or "know-how" up to the next point on the scale.

Anonymity: Please take any steps that you consider necessary to assure yourself that you cannot be identified.

Thank you – your assistance is greatly appreciated
Glossary of Terms used in the Questionnaire

**Behaviour(al)**: Relating to how the student(s) follow(s) the formal and informal rules, routines and procedures in the classroom

**Differentiated**: Changes made to the teaching materials, the instructions, the way the task is presented, the response required from the student, so as to increase the likelihood of successful learning

**Formative assessment**: Regular assessment of the pupil's progress, which may be of an informal nature, to help monitor and adjust the effectiveness of the teaching and learning programme

**Precision Teaching (PT)**: A finely stepped teaching programme with frequent, often daily, short assessment which can involve students in monitoring their own progress

**SMART targets**: Targets that are **Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, Time bound**

**Task-analysis**: The process of breaking down learning or behaviour into small, separate steps
### Teacher's VOICE (Views On Inclusive Child-centred Education)

(An asterisk (*) next to a word denotes inclusion of that word in the glossary)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action or Strategy</th>
<th>How important is this action / strategy for meeting the needs of pupils in your present class?</th>
<th>How confident are you about performing this action / implementing this strategy?</th>
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<td>19 Delivering Circle of Friends (Circle Time)*</td>
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Thank you for your time and effort
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<th>Number of Item</th>
<th>What action would need to take place to move your level of confidence or &quot;know-how&quot; up to the next point on the scale?</th>
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Again, thank you for your time and effort
APPENDIX 6

6.i: Planning Meeting Agenda noting the findings of this research as a discussion item

6.ii: Tables, handed to schools, summarising individual school responses to the semi-structured interview questions

6.iii: Letter, to a senior member of the Author’s Educational Psychology service, seeking guidance on the dissemination of findings

6.iv: Response to letter seeking guidance on the dissemination of findings
GENERAL POINTS

This agenda comprises suggestions and is neither comprehensive nor wholly mandatory, particularly for colleagues who are continuing with schools they already know.

The items might form the basis of on-going conversations with schools so it might not be necessary to have a long 'stand alone' planning meeting, and may indeed contribute to joint planning meetings with IS services.

INFORMATION TO SHARE

1. Structured peer tutoring
   Reminder that there’s a new training event on 22nd November, 1.15-4.00 at ************** (see attached flyer to distribute). This is for schools who haven’t received any training in SPT and for schools who’ve previously attended training and would like further staff trained

2. Framework for Intervention
   Please pass on flyer about FFI courses (see attached flyer)

3. Progression Guidance
   Brief check that schools are aware of the updated tables that are part of the Progression Guidance

4. Looked After Children
   Please ask and record:
   a. Who is the designated teacher for LAC?
   b. How many LAC are there?
   c. Do any LAC need to be prioritised for EP involvement?
   d. Are there any LAC with attendance problems on roll?

5. Safeguarding
   Similar to the 'Looked After Children' item above, please ask and record:
   a. Who is the Designated Senior Person in school for safeguarding?
   b. How many children are subject to a Child Protection (CP) Plan?
   c. Do any children with a CP Plan need to be prioritised for EP involvement? (For children already known to EPS who have a CP Plan, EPs must ensure they have up to date knowledge of the case and any actions required)
   d. Are there any children with CP Plans with attendance problems?

6. Target Monitoring and Evaluation (TME)
   Make schools initially aware of the system we'll be using to evaluate some of our work
JOINT NEGOTIATION OF WORK

1. School improvement plan/development work
   Check any aspects that EPS can assist with. (Note that we are encouraging any whole school/class/group work to be linked to Ofsted Action Plan or School Improvement plan where possible) Check also if any development work is required

2. Working Relationships
   Discuss if there are any ways in which communication and relationships can be improved between schools and EPS.

3. INSET/Training
   Check if any required.

4. Ofsted
   Check if due inspection or support required post-inspection

5. Annual reviews
   Reminder that priority attendance should be for Y5 secondary transfers where special school/resource base provision might be raised, Y9 transitional reviews (where appropriate and where EPS can actively contribute) and for pupils who may require significant changes to statement

6. SA/SA+ Pupils
   Check if any consultations required

7. High Focus
   Plan actions for pupils at SA+ who may require High Focus period. Also reminder that for the majority of pupils who end up with a ***** ****** and Provision Plan, this will suffice and Statutory Assessment is not also necessary. In these cases, it is not always necessary for EPS to be actively involved if there are other services taking the lead.

8. Doctoral Research
   “An exploration of the continuing professional development (CPD) arrangements in place in primary schools, in one local authority cluster.”

Reminder that:

- research completed (Abstract attached) and findings available; and
- I will make myself available, at school’s request, to discuss the research, its findings or opportunities for follow-up work.
Q1. Why is Continuing Professional development (CPD) sought within your school?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Improve individual practice</th>
<th>Improve teacher confidence</th>
<th>Enable staff to develop their interests</th>
<th>Career advancement</th>
<th>A practical demonstration of staff worth</th>
<th>To benefit/improve the performance of pupils</th>
<th>Organisational change/school improvement</th>
<th>To meet local/national needs</th>
<th>Recruitment/retention</th>
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Q1. Why is Continuing Professional Development (CPD) sought within your school?

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<th>Enable Staff to Develop Their Interests</th>
<th>Career Advancement</th>
<th>A Practical Demonstration of Staff Worth</th>
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- Results from accurate evaluation of need
- Mode of delivery appropriate for achieving the required learning outcome
- Standard of delivery fitting for an audience of professional educators
- Does what it says it’s going to do
- Presenter(s) with whom the recipient(s) can identify
- Content that is relevant and grounded in good practice i.e. relates learning to workplace conditions
- Content differentiated according to the needs of all recipients
- Transfers "executive control" i.e. incorporates follow-up, monitoring of implementation and feedback on how implementation can be improved
- Balance between theory and practice
- Cost effective
Q3. What are the barriers, if any, to providing effective CPD?

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Time - Balancing conflicting priorities</th>
<th>Time - for embedding</th>
<th>Time - Work-life balance</th>
<th>Funding</th>
<th>Reaching all staff</th>
<th>Disruption to pupils' learning</th>
<th>Attitude / motivation of participants</th>
<th>Inadequate grasp of the school's needs</th>
<th>Support from senior management and colleagues</th>
<th>Poor appreciation of staff needs - career phase and identity</th>
<th>Availability of quality providers</th>
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Q5. Is it necessary to make specific arrangements for specific groups e.g. according to career phase or identity?

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs)</th>
<th>Teachers in their first five years</th>
<th>More experienced teachers e.g. teachers completing 4/5 years</th>
<th>Middle managers</th>
<th>Senior managers</th>
<th>Part-time staff</th>
<th>Supply staff</th>
<th>Staff that are struggling</th>
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Q6. How are the outcomes of CPD activities disseminated?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Feedback sheet / pro-forma</th>
<th>Cascading</th>
<th>Coaching / mentoring</th>
<th>Staff / Key stage meetings</th>
<th>Informal conversations / discussions</th>
<th>Handouts</th>
<th>Sharing practice / Observing colleagues</th>
<th>Feedback to other organisations e.g. schools and colleges</th>
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Q7 What are the barriers, if any, that hinder the dissemination of the knowledge gained from CPD activities?

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Totals:
- Consensus theme: 3
- Supported theme:  
- Individual theme:  


Q8. How does your organisation evaluate the impact of professional development?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Participant reaction e.g. feedback sheet / pro-forma</th>
<th>Pupil outcome data</th>
<th>Classroom observation</th>
<th>Examining pupils’ work</th>
<th>Recording and reporting systems e.g. for behaviour</th>
<th>Professional Development Process (including P.D. Portfolio)</th>
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Q9. Which changes / impacts are the most difficult to measure?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Qualitative aspects of change e.g. participant attitude / confidence</th>
<th>Improvement in participant knowledge / skills</th>
<th>Changes in participant behaviour</th>
<th>Student outcomes</th>
<th>Organisational change</th>
<th>Tracking back change to a particular CPD event</th>
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27th September 2010

Dear ****,

Re.: Completion of Doctoral Research

As you know I have just completed the writing up of my thesis: “An exploration of the continuing professional development (CPD) arrangement in place in primary schools in one local authority cluster”.

In addition to presenting a summary of currently accepted best CPD practices, I draw conclusions, and make recommendations, regarding: actions that schools in the sample cluster might wish to take to improve the efficacy of their CPD practice, actions that I can take to improve the efficacy of my own CPD practice, and actions that I can take to inform the CPD practice of those organisations, agencies and professionals with or for whom I work.

Any thoughts that you may have regarding the wider dissemination of my findings (within our Service and the Authority) would be greatly appreciated.

Regards,

David Smith