World-class Teachers, World-class Education
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Foreword

Church schools play a major role in educating pupils across the country, with over 7,000 church schools in the UK. Teaching is a vocation that makes a difference: many of these schools deliver outstanding education and do so in some of the most remote or disadvantaged parts of the country.

These schools are reliant on an ongoing supply of excellent teachers. This publication is a timely chance to reflect on teacher education, looking at some of the innovative approaches taking place in both schools and universities, but more importantly between them. It brings together the perspectives of school leaders, university academics and senior university leaders, with several articles written jointly, demonstrating the partnership approach that is central to many of the schools and universities with which we work.

The publication has been produced by GuildHE, one of the two formally recognised representative bodies in UK higher education, and the Cathedrals Group, which brings together universities with a church foundation. It looks at the key challenges facing initial teacher education.

Parents and pupils recognise the special ethos and values of church schools and their popularity reinforces this. This was best enunciated by Pope Benedict in his address on his papal visit in 2010 to young people at St Mary’s University: ‘as you know, the task of the teacher is not simply to impart information or to provide training in skills....education is not and must never be considered as utilitarian. It is about forming the human person, equipping him or her to live life to the full – in short, it is about imparting wisdom.’ This role of training a new generation of teachers and supporting those already in the profession is met, to a large degree, by the many universities with church foundations.

Church schools contribute successfully to community cohesion; they are culturally diverse and as one of the articles in this publication highlights, they can play a role in articulating fundamental British values. The faith-based ethos of church schools has a wider appeal to those of other religions, with many choosing a church school because
they know faith will be taken seriously and spiritual development will be seen as an integral part of the whole educational offer. This publication also looks beyond church schools and demonstrates the excellent work of many church universities in supporting the professional development of teachers and embedding research and evidence into their practice.

Right Reverend Tim Dakin,  
Bishop of Winchester

Right Reverend Alan Williams,  
Bishop of Brentwood
Introduction

Overview
Welcome to this joint GuildHE and Cathedrals Group publication, looking at world-class teachers, and world-class education.

The Cathedrals Group is an association of 16 universities and university colleges with Church foundations. It is the only grouping in the UK higher education landscape based on ethical principles informed by faith-based values.

GuildHE is a formal, representative body for UK higher education, especially for universities and colleges with a tradition of learning, research and innovation in industries and professions. Members include universities, university colleges, further education colleges and specialist institutions from both the government-funded and private (‘for profit’ and ‘not-for-profit’) sectors.

Many GuildHE and Cathedrals Group institutions deliver teacher training; indeed, many were founded as teacher training institutions, and this publication draws together some of the key issues facing not only those involved in initial teacher training, but also the education sector more widely.

The 12 chapters of this publication cover a wide range of issues, from the current policy landscape such as schools and universities working in partnership, supporting small schools and promoting a Christian vision of education, to how we improve teaching through developing a ‘realistic clinical practice’, embedding values at the heart of teacher training or supporting teachers to develop the critical thinking attributes associated with being a Master’s-level entry profession.

We have brought together a wide and distinguished range of authors from school teachers and school leaders, to university academics, deans and vice-chancellors, as well as the Director of Education in the Diocese of Truro and the Chief Education Officer in the Church of England Education Office.

Key themes
In the first chapter, James Noble-Rogers gives an overview of the policy landscape, describing teacher education in England that has gone through a period of unprecedented change that some might describe as
‘tumour’. He highlights on the one hand the serious teacher shortages faced by some schools, and the training places in many subjects that are left unfilled on the other – this at a time of major shift in the delivery of initial teacher education from the traditional school–university education partnerships to what the government describes as a ‘schools-led’ approach.

Nigel Genders, Chief Education Officer at the Church of England Education Office, describes a sense of ‘long-term uncertainty’ in the second chapter and the need for a clear vision of what education is for and that is founded in hope. He provides an overview of the Church of England Education Office’s vision for education, not just for its 4,700 church schools serving one million students, but also for community schools drawn to the vision for something deeper and richer than the often functionalist or utilitarian view that has become dominant in education. He then draws the link with teacher education in Cathedrals Group universities, which can help provide a Christian perspective and greater understanding about working in church schools.

In the third chapter, Ian Luke and Simon Cade address small and rural schools and how we need to shift the underlying prejudice or perception that small schools are a problem. Given their size and differences, the authors argue that it is unlikely to be possible to improve small schools with a single approach. They argue that, ‘it should be possible to identify a group of schools that are of such strategic importance for their communities that they might justifiably be treated differently.’ There is more needed around questions such as whether a full curriculum is possible, how well small schools support the needs of particular groups of students and whether teacher training should address ‘place consciousness’, i.e. acknowledging the significance of location to teaching in small schools.

Francis Campbell looks at fundamental British values in response to the Birmingham ‘Trojan Horse’ investigation in chapter 4. He suggests that fundamental British values are not something that can be applied from the ‘top down’, but rather are arrived at through ‘mutual exploration and understanding’, something that might be a challenge if purely looking at British values.
through the lens of counter-terrorism and radicalisation. Campbell talks about the unique role teachers have in opening up closed minds through rational engagement and challenge. In this context, the role of ‘ethos-driven’ initial teacher education can play a positive role.

Chapter 5 looks at centres of excellence, with Paul Dickinson and Margaret House exploring the proposal to create centres of excellence for teacher education. This chapter draws on the Finnish model for teacher education and its emphasis on being strongly research-based and collaborating closely with subject specialists. The authors make several recommendations about approaches to the award of centre of excellence status, partnership working and three-year allocations.

In chapter 6, Jacqui Nunn looks at the benefits to individual teachers, to schools and to the teaching profession of Master’s-level initial teacher education. The author emphasises the need for teachers to be able to use research and evidence and that there is a link between research skills and being capable of bringing about change and contributing to school improvement. Ensuring that the teachers are qualified to Master’s level would also bring the profession in line with other professions, such as those in healthcare, and legal and social services.

Keither Parker and Julie Caddell explore the delivery of teacher education in partnership in chapter 7. This chapter is jointly written by the vice-principal of a teaching school alliance and course leader at a university and draws on their experiences. The programme at York St John University has been designed to support an equal partnership and collaboration between both the school and university staff. This highlights that it is not untypical for school staff to lead PGCE sessions at the university and for university staff to lead sessions in schools. This process of jointly designing, writing and implementing new programmes has provided an opportunity to synthesise strengths and build on the expertise of the university and its long tradition of educating teachers, as well as capitalising on the expertise of current practitioners in the classroom.
In chapter 8, Justin Gray, a primary head of school, looks at the art of teaching: linking values, behaviour and thought. The author considers how the values of the individual teacher contribute to education because they influence, alongside training and culture, behaviours and thinking in the classroom. This then gives a role to teacher education to enable student teachers to reflect on the values encountered in wider society and to acknowledge their own values. The focus on both the professional and human formation supports student teachers in exploring the balance that enriches both their teaching and their lives of service to others.

Pete Boyd looks at realistic clinical practice in the ninth chapter. He proposes an explicit pedagogy for initial teacher education based on 'realistic clinical practice'. The clinical practice approach places a high value on teacher judgement and practical wisdom, suggesting that student teachers will appreciate this approach because they are focused on practical advice and surviving in the classroom. The author proposes a strong and explicit drive to develop 'research-informed' practice but situated within the practical 'ways of working' of a particular workplace.

John Moss looks at accredited academic professional development for teachers in chapter 10. The author cites the Singapore model, which values the academic as well as the professional skills, alongside the acquisition of the relevant professional knowledge. In both Singapore and Finland, there is an uncompromising commitment to teaching being a Master’s-level profession explicitly linked to a vision of professionalism centred on teacher autonomy. His recommendations include that the teacher development model should promote the interconnectedness of theory, practice and research.

In chapter 11, Hazel Bryan and Lynn Revell look at embedding educational research into teaching. The authors highlight the expectation that teachers are increasingly required to both engage with the research of others and to undertake research themselves. This prompts questions about how teachers are supported to develop these skills. This importance of the knowledge, pedagogical and academic authority and critical skills and the ability to ask difficult questions both of their own practice and on all aspects of education demonstrates the need
for a symbiotic relationship between schools and universities.

In the final chapter, Jon Spence and Liz Fleet give an overview of some of the questions relating to the policy agenda in primary education. The first question that the authors raise is the school starting age, with pupils entering ‘year 1’ at age five being earlier than in many other countries across Europe, where in many cases, children start at age seven. The authors go on to raise the question of the optimum maximum class size, and whether reducing class sizes on its own would be enough to improve pupil attainment or whether it is less effective than improving the quality of teaching. They also consider the curriculum: content and assessment and the impact of the teacher.

Conclusion

GuildHE and the Cathedrals Group stress the important role that universities have, do and will continue to play in the education of teachers. It is by schools and academics from universities working in partnership that we are able to fuse together the needs of the craft of teaching with the wider needs of the profession to continue to evolve teaching practices and approaches based on robust research.

There are many areas in which education policy can benefit from a robust evidence base, and universities and schools are working together to answer some of the challenging questions of our day. We hope that this publication provides food for thought and acts as the start of a dialogue on how we can improve teacher education in this country.

Finally, we would like to thank all those involved in producing this publication from the chapter authors to those at the Cathedrals Group and GuildHE that have helped shape the project and in particular to Alex Bols for overseeing the project.

Professor Margaret House, Chair, Cathedrals Group and Vice-Chancellor, Leeds Trinity University

Professor Joy Carter, Chair, GuildHE and Vice-Chancellor, University of Winchester
Chapter 1: Policy landscape

James Noble-Rogers, Executive Director, Universities’ Council for the Education of Teachers

Introduction

Teacher education in England has been through a period of unprecedented change – change that some might describe as ‘turmoil’ since government reforms began to be implemented following the publication of the 2010 White Paper, *The importance of teaching* (HM Government, 2010) and the subsequent implementation plan, *Training our next generation of outstanding teachers* (DfE, 2011). There has since been a shift from traditional school–university teacher education partnerships to what the government calls (but does not define) ‘school-led’ teacher training. At the same time, schools have been faced with serious teacher shortages, and training places in many subject areas have been left unfilled. Public subsidy for serving teachers to undertake Master’s-level continuing professional development (CPD) through postgraduate professional development and Master’s in teaching and learning programmes has come to an end, and the requirement that teachers in free schools and academies hold qualified teacher status (QTS) has been removed.

This chapter will look at the background and context within which teacher education in England has been operating during this period. It will consider the impact of the teacher education reforms and the move towards ‘school-led’ initial teacher education (ITE) and how those policies evolved towards the proposals contained in the 2016 White Paper, *Educational Excellence Everywhere* (HM Government, 2016) and the allocation of ITE places for 2017/18. It will conclude with an alternative set of recommendations aimed at maximising recruitment to teaching, matching more closely teacher supply with demand and raising the status and effectiveness of the teaching profession. It will end with a call for government to introduce the most significant step-change in teaching since it became an all-graduate profession in the 1970s to an all-Master’s (or equivalent) qualified profession.
The beginnings of change

In the period leading up to the 2010 general election, and during the immediate aftermath, the incoming administration in England made a number of provocative statements about teacher education. Michael Gove, the new Secretary of State for Education, referred to teaching as a ‘craft’ best learned by watching experienced practitioners in the classroom. He called for a shift in teacher training away from universities into schools:

we will reform teacher training to shift trainee teachers out of college and into the classroom. We will end the arbitrary bureaucratic rule which limits how many teachers can be trained in schools, shift resources so that more heads can train teachers in their own schools…Teaching is a craft and it is best learnt as an apprentice observing a master craftsman or woman. Watching others, and being rigorously observed yourself as you develop, is the best route to acquiring mastery in the classroom.

Gove, 2010

The debate over whether teaching is a craft or a profession is, despite being well established, potentially misleading. Surely it can be both. As Gordon Kirk (2011) has said:

So cardinal are these craft skills and techniques of teaching that anyone whose grasp of them was tenuous, no matter how intellectually distinguished or otherwise talented, would be a walking disaster in a classroom. Nor is it surprising that those who qualify as teachers should be required to demonstrate the capacity to deploy these skills with confidence in the classroom.

Kirk, 2011:

He goes on to say that:

the personal knowledge that is associated with the performance of a craft has to be complemented by the public knowledge that resides in the well-grounded evidence about the conduct of teaching. One of the claims of teaching to professional recognition is that it draws on just such a public knowledge base. It is presumptuous in the extreme to set to one side the extensive
evidence-base on teaching and learning and to proceed only on the basis of one’s personal experience.

So, while Michael Gove might not have been wrong to describe teaching as a ‘craft’, the tone and the context of his statement implied that it was only a craft, with no need for the intellectual, academic or values-base that would make it also a profession. That is where he appeared to be wrong, or at least only half right.

The government’s formal proposals, published in a White Paper entitled *The importance of teaching* (HM Government, 2010), did not appear at first sight to be as radical as many had expected, with a focus on raising entry requirements into the profession by incentivising through bursary payments candidates with high-classification degrees, the introduction of pre-entry tests in maths and literacy and the establishment of a network of teaching schools. Although proposals on degree classification and pre-entry tests were without doubt problematic – there is no proven link between degree classification and teacher performance, and there are serious concerns about the effectiveness of skills tests and their value for money – these did not constitute significant structural change. Teaching schools, provided they worked in genuine collaborative partnerships, were seen by many as a positive development.

The government did, however, also say that it intended to increase the number of employment-based routes into teaching, and it referred to a new training route, ‘School Direct’, under which schools experiencing difficulty recruiting teachers through established routes would be allocated places to recruit and train, in partnership with an accredited ITE provider, student teachers to fill the vacancies concerned. The number of places earmarked for School Direct, which could be delivered through fee-paying or salaried routes, was originally 500 and was not at that time intended to become a significant part of the market.

In 2012, Michael Gove announced that at least half of new teachers would in future be trained in schools (Gove, 2012). This signalled a massive shift from traditional
school–university partnerships to School Direct and school-centred initial teacher training (SCITT) over the next few years. It ignored the fact that most initial teacher education already took place in schools and had done since reforms made in the 1990s, and that many programmes delivered by existing school–university partnerships were at least as ‘school-led’ as any delivered through School Direct or by the increasing number of SCITT providers.

**Expansion of school-led ITE**

Table 1.1 shows the recruitment of new student teachers across the various routes in 2015/16.

Table 1.1: Recruitment of student teachers, 2015/16

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<th>Type of institution</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
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<tr>
<td>Higher education institution (HEI)</td>
<td>19,001</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Direct (fee-paying and salaried)</td>
<td>10,252</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCITT</td>
<td>2,372</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teach First</td>
<td>1,584</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33,209</td>
<td>100%</td>
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*Source: DfE, November 2015 Census*

The share of total provision delivered by traditional school–university partnerships prior to 2012/13 was in excess of 90%. However, when interpreting the figures in Table 1.1, the overlap between the different routes should be considered. For example, schools have a significant role in all university programmes, while universities are involved with many SCITT and School Direct routes, as well as with all Teach First provision.

The government’s stated intention was that at least 50% of new teachers should be trained through the school-led routes of SCITT or School Direct. Once the 5,440
undergraduate recruits included in the HEI total shown in Table 1.1 have been excluded, the government has, as far as postgraduate training is concerned, already met that target. At the time the target was being met, data showed that, during what was a period of teacher shortage, university routes recruited more effectively. For example, in 2015/16, recruitment against target across the main routes⁴ was:

- University 88% (77% secondary, 104% primary)
- SCITT 65% (57% secondary, 77% primary)
- School Direct fee-paying 54% (45% secondary, 71% secondary)
- School Direct salaried 70% (56% secondary, 89% primary).

The Universities’ Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) and the university sector had been calling for greater school involvement in teacher education for many years. It should also be acknowledged that School Direct has some positive aspects. It has in places led to the development of new forms of teacher education and a strengthening of partnerships. It has also been successful in getting some schools more engaged in teacher education. However, the loss of places allocated directly to school–university partnerships because of the rapid and largely uncoordinated expansion of School Direct and the accreditation of new SCITT providers threatened to destabilise existing good-quality ITE provision, reduce choice for schools and threaten the supply of new teachers. The government claimed that the rapid expansion of School Direct was simply in response to demand from schools and prospective trainees. The intensive marketing of the programme, and the subsequent failure to fill many of the places allocated, undermined this claim.

HEIs, as well as the longer established SCITT providers, have many years’ experience in supplying large numbers of well-trained newly qualified teachers (NQTs) to all kinds of school, including those in areas of disadvantage. To do this, they have to be able to plan the resource and staffing levels that they will need. The massive expansion of School Direct meant that providers often did not know how many teachers they were expected to train in particular subjects from

⁴. Written answer to a parliamentary question from Lord Nash dated 7 December 2015 in response to questions from Baroness Donaghy (QWAHL3804, Hansard)
year to year. Many providers had no core places in key subjects. This made it difficult for them to maintain the staffing and resource base needed and, if necessary, have the scope to expand in response to future demographic pressures. Programmes judged by Ofsted to be of high quality and that were popular with both schools and student teachers were faced with closure. This also meant, ironically, that schools holding School Direct places were faced with an ever-decreasing choice of providers that they could work with to deliver their School Direct programmes. Many schools not in a position to participate in School Direct or form SCITT provision were left out in the cold as far as the recruitment opportunities presented by involvement in ITE were concerned.

In June 2015, the government announced that from 2016/17, rather than allocating places, accredited ITE providers would be able to recruit as many teachers in each phase and subject as they liked, until national targets had been reached. The government did, however, set a maximum number for universities, without placing any limit (other than that implied by the national targets) on providers of SCITT and School Direct, suggesting that its commitment to choice and a free market was at best half-hearted. It also held powers in reserve to guard against opportunistic recruitment patterns and regional imbalance. The impact of this was predictable. Responses to a UCET survey of its member institutions (Scott, 2016) found that:

- 100% of institutions reported that the new system had adversely affected their ability to plan
- 78% reported a negative impact on recruitment
- 45% reported a fall in recruitment from under-represented groups
- 79% reported a negative impact on the viability of their ITT provision
- 82% reported a negative impact on the experience of applicants.

In the rush to recruit, providers were forced to fill spaces as quickly as they could before recruitment caps were applied, meaning that the scope to make considered judgements about the respective merits of different candidates was reduced. Providers found it even more difficult than before to plan their provision and meet the demand.
for teachers from partnership schools. Applicants across the country arrived for interviews, only to be sent away with the news that recruitment caps had been applied at midnight. Neither HEIs, SCITT providers nor schools holding School Direct places appeared to like the new methodology, and the government was forced quite quickly into a partial U-turn under which it guaranteed minimum levels of permitted recruitment for some subjects and phases. However, by then the damage had been done.

A further White Paper with implications for teacher education was published by the government on 17 March 2016. *Educational Excellence Everywhere* proposed:

- the establishment of university centres of excellence for teacher training
- identification of core content for initial teacher training
- accreditation of yet more SCITT providers
- a review of the award of QTS, including the possibility of formally accrediting teachers as being fully qualified after a period of employment in the classroom.

The status of some of the White Paper proposals is, however, unclear following the appointment of a new Secretary of State for Education, Justine Greening, who took over from Michael Gove’s successor Nicky Morgan in June 2016.

For 2017/18, in the light of experiences for 2016/17, the government announced further changes that would include a return to allocations for most providers, and multi-year allocations for at least some training providers. When the allocations for 2016/17 were announced in September 2016, the drift from traditional school–university partnerships towards school-led training appeared to have come to at least a temporary halt, with the balance between the two sectors remaining broadly unchanged, although within the school-led envelope there was a shift away from School Direct into SCITT, reflecting the large numbers of additional (and potentially unsustainable) new providers that had been accredited. A number of providers, some 25 HEIs and 29 SCITT providers, also received allocations for three years, reflecting an acknowledgement that the sector needed to be able to plan in order

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5. Although a softer version of recruitment controls was maintained for School Direct provision in some secondary subjects
to meet the demand from schools for newly trained teachers, as had been argued by UCET, Universities UK, GuildHE and others. Proposals for university centres of excellence appeared to have been placed on hold, while a consultation on the reform of QTS was to take place in early 2017, with any changes impacting at the very earliest on trainees recruited in September 2018.

The apparently more collegiate approach to ITT allocations for 2017/18 adopted by the new Secretary of State might simply be a reflection of existing issues being looked at with a fresh pair of eyes, or might result from a genuine concern about the impact of reforms on the teacher supply base, the continuing difficulties in filling training places and schools being able to recruit the teachers that they need – or a combination of all three.

Recruitment to ITE remains challenging. In 2015/16, only 82% of available training places were filled, with even worse results in some secondary subjects. Although primary places were filled, there is a perception among headteachers and the teacher education sector that the DfE’s teacher supply model, on which allocations are based, underestimates actual need. While recruitment continues to be an issue, the number of pupils in both primary and secondary schools is expected to increase over the next five years because of the rising birth rate and net inward migration: meanwhile, in a recent National Union of Teachers (NUT) poll, 53% of teachers were said to be thinking of leaving the profession. The shortage of teachers was highlighted in reports from the National Foundation for Educational Research (Worth, Durbin & Bamford, 2015), National Audit Office (NAO, 2016) and Public Accounts Committee (PAC, 2016), with the NAO and PAC reports critical of the way in which recruitment to ITE programmes has been managed by government.

Meeting the needs of schools and the profession into the future: a new approach

As mentioned earlier, despite the rhetoric and the headlong push towards school-led teacher education, the government has yet to define what it actually means by ‘school-led’, other than perhaps what is represented through a rather crude ‘purchaser–provider’ relationship between schools and

6. ‘apparently’ because, despite questions in Parliament and formal Freedom of Information requests from UCET, the Department for Education has at the time of writing still refused to publish the detailed figures
ITE providers. Such relationships are inevitably inflexible and unsustainable, and ineffective in their ability to respond to constantly changing needs. A group including representatives of UCET and the National Association of School-Based Teacher Trainers (NASBTT) has developed a model of ‘schools-led’ teacher education that meets the needs of not only the school directly involved in the training process, but schools collectively as well. Schools growing their own teachers does have its advantages, but it can lead to parochialism, institutional conservatism, the inability of newly trained teachers to work in other settings, and the undermining of teaching as a unified profession with shared values and knowledge. In order to secure genuinely schools-led teacher education, the UCET–NASBTT group developed a model based on a cohesive groups of schools, universities and others working together to meet the needs of the schools within those partnerships, drawing on research evidence and through adherence to national standards and requirements. These would be cohesive organisations with a shared vision and purpose, with no formal demarcation of roles and with access to shared resources. They would be answerable to a single governing authority made up of at least 50% of school colleagues. In that way, teacher education programmes would by definition be ‘schools-led’. Government, or preferably in time an independent professional body such as the Chartered College of Teaching, would continue to have a role in setting standards, producing broad frameworks of content and accrediting programmes. Within those frameworks, it would be for partnerships to determine how teachers were trained, what the balance between theory and practice (which in any case overlap) should be, and how much time student teachers spend in school, university or elsewhere. Schools-led cannot be government-led, and government should act consistently with its own rhetoric and take a step back. Such partnerships would be stable and large enough to meet the immediate and long-term supply needs of schools within partnerships, as well as contributing towards national supply needs.
Such schools-led partnerships would almost certainly be better than Whitehall mandarins predicting the number of new teachers that need to be trained to meet the needs of schools over, say, a three- to five-year period. Reference was made earlier to doubts about the accuracy of the DfE teacher supply model in predicting national needs; the primary target is open to question, and the target for secondary English was proved to be understating needs just a couple of years ago. If predictions are open to question at national level, the doubts are even stronger at regional or sub-regional level where no account whatsoever is taken of supply needs when places are allocated, despite recommendations in the NAO and PAC reports that they should be.

When allocating places for 2017/18, the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) announced that it was removing the cap on recruitment to a number of secondary subjects: maths, physics, business studies, computing, modern foreign languages and religious education. ITE providers could therefore recruit as many trainees as they were able for these programmes. There might however be a case for removing recruitment caps across the board, including those for phases and subjects where recruitment targets are easily met. NCTL and the DfE claim that removing all caps would have public expenditure implications because of bursary entitlements and access to student loans, a point also made by Schools Minister Nick Gibb when he appeared before the Education Select Committee on 8 December 2015. Others also pointed to the dangers of over-supply. However, there are already sufficient constraints within the system to prevent massive over-recruitment. ITE providers already struggle to find places for their student teachers. Additional placement opportunities are not suddenly going to magically appear if caps are removed. Ofsted, when inspecting ITE, looks carefully at selection procedures and the proportion of student teachers who go on to get jobs. Any provider recruiting students for whom there is no likely prospect of employment would be liable to have a poor Ofsted outcome and risk having its accreditation to deliver ITE removed. As to public expenditure, the bursaries paid to students in popular phases and subjects are already

7. Transcript published by House of Commons on 17 December 2015
modest, and in any case could be rationed as they are for further education (FE) teacher training. While student teachers have access to loans, the impact of removing the ITE cap on loan costs is dwarfed by the decision made a few years ago to remove the cap on recruitment to undergraduate courses generally (with the exception of undergraduate ITE, of course).

One aspect of the government’s ITE reforms that has not been mentioned so far relates to the content of training. In his 2015 government-commissioned report into teacher training (DfE, 2015), Sir Andrew Carter said that there were examples of excellent practice across all forms of ITE and stressed the importance of partnerships in the successful delivery of teacher education. His review did, however, identify areas of inconsistency in some important areas, including behaviour management, assessment and special educational needs (SEN). In response to Sir Andrew’s report, the government commissioned Stephen Munday to produce recommendations on behaviour (Bennett, 2016). Separate reports were also commissioned in respect of mentor standards (DfE, 2016a) and a standard for professional development (DfE, 2016b, 2016c).

One of the risks associated with schools growing their own teachers, as mentioned earlier, is schools training teachers in their own image and in different ways. Although a measure of consistency is secured through the requirements to which all programmes must adhere, through the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2013) that underpin all programmes and through inspection, Sir Andrew Carter was right to identify issues relating to consistency. The commissioning of the expert groups was therefore a worthwhile exercise. Student teachers have the right to expect a degree of equity in how they are trained and schools have the right to expect that any newly qualified teachers have covered certain ground during their training. UCET is in the process of developing a resource for training providers to use to measure the content of their programmes against the recommendations in the report.
We believe, however, that equity and entitlement for student teachers – and for the schools that employ them – would be further enhanced if all students were able to undertake a teacher education programme linked to an academic award such as a first degree or, in the case of postgraduate students, a postgraduate certificate in education (PGCE) or postgraduate diploma (PGDip). Such courses, rather than being a distraction from training, ensure that programmes have the extra layer of internal and external quality assurance and draw on a range of evidence beyond the immediate work setting (Nunn, 2017). They help students to develop critical-thinking skills and the ability to use, interpret and carry out research, something that both Sir Andrew Carter’s report (DfE, 2015) and the new ITE content framework (Munday, 2016) recognise as being of key importance. They also help to ensure that both the craft and professional aspects of teaching, as identified by Gordon Kirk (2011), are addressed in ITE programmes.

The vast majority of PGCE programmes, some 90% according to the results of a 2015 UCET survey, carry with them 60 level 7 Master’s credits, equivalent to one-third of a full Master’s degree. The benefits to teachers of undertaking CPD at Master’s degree level are well documented. Master’s-level CPD, delivered in partnership between schools and HEIs, can have a significant impact on: teacher confidence; depth of subject and pedagogical knowledge; classroom management skills; and retention.8 An increase in the number of teachers undertaking Master’s-level CPD would, UCET believes, lead directly to an improvement in pupil and school performance, and to the recruitment of new teachers and their retention in the profession.

Increasing access to Master’s-level CPD would fit well with the review of QTS set out in the White Paper Educational Excellence Everywhere (HM Government, 2016). There is a real case for delaying formal and final recognition of someone as a fully accredited teacher until after a period of employment in the classroom. However good PGCEs are, only so much ground can be covered in sufficient depth in what is, in effect, a nine-month programme. New teachers should have an entitlement to, and an expectation to utilise, structured

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8. A summary can be found in the longitudinal study of the impact of postgraduate professional development published by former HMI, Peter Seaborne, for the Teaching and Development Agency for Schools in England (TDA) in September 2009.
early professional development – at Master’s level or equivalent – that builds on and complements their initial training. This will make them even better teachers, help to retain them in the profession and attract ambitious new recruits. Without this, the review of QTS will at best be a wasted opportunity, and at worst could put people off becoming teachers because they will not know for sure when they will be deemed fully qualified, what training and development they will receive post-ITT and whether the recommendation for final accreditation will depend on the whim of their headteacher.

Now is the time for government and others to grasp the nettle and make the biggest step-change to the status, standing and effectiveness of teaching since it became an all-graduate profession in the 1970s and (as the Welsh government is moving towards) to commit to teaching becoming a fully Master’s qualified profession. This would not mean all new teachers would require Master’s degrees as a condition of entry. Instead, there would be an expectation that new teachers would achieve a relevant Master’s degree or an equivalent qualification, possibly linked to the award of chartered status by the Chartered College of Teaching or other organisations, within a given period of time. That would, at a stroke, boost the status of the profession and in so doing help to attract talented and ambitious new recruits. This could be the new Secretary of State’s legacy, and one of which she could be proud.

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Chapter 2: Promoting a Christian vision of education

Reverend Nigel Genders, Chief Education Officer, The Church of England Education Office

Educating with hope

The political upheavals of 2016 have seen many of our normal assumptions overturned. The European referendum result in the UK has led to post-Brexit commentators on all sides recognising some deep divisions in society, with people feeling they have not benefited from the political and economic system in which they were told to place their trust. Donald Trump winning the presidential election in the USA reveals similar discontent with a long-established political class and Italy voting overwhelmingly against constitutional reform adds to the complexity of the political situation across Europe.

In addition, we face issues ranging from the long-term uncertainty of the wider global economic picture to the diminishing mental health of children and young people which some are describing as being of epidemic proportions and a cause for deep concern. We have also seen the rise of religiously motivated violence and extremism, presenting a challenge to society in a way not experienced for hundreds of years.

In such a complex and seemingly unpredictable world, those offering education to this and future generations need to do so in a way that is founded in hope.

Amid economic, social and political challenges, we need a clear vision for what we think education is for.

What is education for?

The Church of England Education Office has produced a vision for education that is encapsulated in the phrase, Deeply Christian, serving the common good. It provides a fresh articulation of our vision to renew our confidence in what we are seeking to do in education.

Our firm conviction is that this vision is not an added extra to bolt on to our schools once we’ve managed to get our attainment figures right or met the requirements of Ofsted, but it’s at the heart of what we

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think education should be about. We are committed to excellence in education and the highest standards for every child – but it is the vision and ethos that enhance those outcomes.

At a time when schools are looking for a vision of education to enthuse and inspire them, we have something to offer the whole nation, just as Joshua Watson and his fellow founders of the National Society did in 1811. Our deeply Christian vision of education is one that is generous and that seeks to allow the riches of Christian life to overflow to those of other faiths or no faith, who share this vision of what education is for. So we are offering much more than an apologetic for church schools; it is a Christian vision for education. Obviously, it will be worked out explicitly within the Christian character of our church schools, but our vision is also about shaping wider educational policy and embracing community schools that are drawn to us because they recognise, in this vision we are articulating, something deeper and richer than the often functionalist or utilitarian view that has become the dominant narrative in education.

High-quality education should be available to all and the churches continue to work to ensure that excellent provision is available everywhere for everyone. Our vision is for an education that refuses to make artificial choices between academic rigour and the development of the spiritual and emotional well-being of pupils, because we are unequivocal in our message that there is no such distinction. A good education promotes life in all its fullness and that means educating for: wisdom, knowledge and skills; hope and aspiration; community and living well together; dignity and respect.

**More teachers needed**

This broad and compelling vision for education can only be achieved as we develop teachers and leaders who share that vision and work wholeheartedly to put it into practice.

It was the same realisation that motivated the churches to establish teacher training colleges in the Victorian era as part of the development of the mission to transform education.

With the foundation of thousands of schools across the country in the first half of the 19th century, there...
was an immediate need to provide teachers. In the early years, the system was dependent on older pupils teaching younger children, but the establishment of proper teacher training colleges became a priority. The first of these were founded in London, as model schools within which teachers could be trained, and the concept of a fully formed teacher training college was formed, with four opening in London by 1840, and one recorded in Chester and Gloucester in the same year. Others soon followed and by 1846 there were 12 men’s and seven women’s colleges, which formed the basis for over 30 teacher training colleges by 1850.

Over time, and through the development of different systems for the training of elementary and secondary school teachers and the involvement of universities through the establishment of education departments, the system has evolved. The heirs of those original teacher training colleges founded by the churches are now the 14 universities with a church foundation that make up the Cathedrals Group. Even with the continued fast pace of change in the provision for training teachers, and the move towards school-based provision, they are still involved in training a fifth of all the primary school teachers in the country.

Throughout those 200 years and more, the commitment of the churches to education has remained a vital part of our mission to the nation, and so the provision of training to develop teachers and leaders for the future is essential.

**Teacher education – a new movement for the future**

Over many years, the church universities have provided a rich resource, training huge numbers of teachers for the whole country. In recent years, they have offered additional training and input on their regular teacher training programmes to bring a Christian perspective and equip students with greater understanding about working in church schools, but in this new political and educational landscape much more is needed.

Two hundred years on, the National Society has created the Church of England Foundation for Educational Leadership to try and bring the benefit of national scale and impact to our network, so that we can embark on a joined-up approach to the
development of teachers and leaders, working with the Cathedrals Group of universities, teaching schools, dioceses and others to develop teachers and leaders for the future so that they are equipped to promote this rounded vision for education and are prepared for their profound leadership role in our society.

The Church of England has a vast network across the country, with nearly 4,700 schools serving one million children. There are over 70 teaching schools working with our 11 universities with an Anglican foundation and other local providers to train our 135,000 teachers. It is a massive, national network – but together we need to harness the power and strength and turn our network into a movement for education.

A vital role for Cathedrals Group universities
To develop this movement requires the strength and depth of our universities in partnership with our teaching schools as we strive to work together more effectively so that teachers can be equipped with our vision for education, and diocesan and school leaders can grow in their leadership roles.

It will mean providing initial teacher education as well as ongoing career development that ensure we do not abandon people after they have qualified, but take them on a journey, equipping them as teachers, leaders and specialists for the future.

And it will require a depth of educational research capacity to continue to be nurtured within our Cathedrals Group so that we can offer evidence, research, data and intellectual inspiration to underpin the vision for which we are striving.

Fundamental to this development is ensuring that such programmes and professional development have our vision for education at their core, rather than trying to supplement ‘standard’ training with a module on the end, and that will require some radically new approaches to programme design and development of courses in universities and schools. But with innovation comes opportunity to create and develop programmes for a massive network, fit for the world in which our teachers teach and lead so that current and future generations of school leaders can have confidence and the skills they need to deliver this broad and
rich vision for education that will transform individuals, schools and whole communities.

A vision for higher education

The development of teachers and leaders who are equipped to promote our vision is key to the continued success of church schools. The Cathedrals Group of universities will continue to grow and develop their distinctiveness as faith-based institutions by prioritising this work within the broad range of activity in which a university is involved. But the vision also impacts at a much deeper level for our universities.

Answering the question of what we think education is for is a vital aspect of understanding the role and purpose of a university as much as it is for a school. How are our universities promoting life in all its fullness for the students they serve?

The higher education 2016 White Paper, *Success as a Knowledge Economy: Teaching excellence, social mobility and student choice*, makes the government’s view clear that universities’ responsibility is to boost social mobility, improve individual life chances and opportunities and to enhance the competitiveness and productivity of the UK economy.

Universities are explicitly seen as, ‘generating the knowledge and skills that fuel our economy and provide the basis for our nation’s intellectual and cultural success.’ One premise behind the higher education Bill is the need for further reform to maintain and extend the world-class standing that UK universities currently enjoy by fostering competition and opening entry to new providers. This defines the problem as insufficient competition between institutions and too many barriers to high-quality prospective new entrants to the sector to provide sufficient choice for students. But if we increase competition on an ever-narrowing range of metrics, then our students will not be served well or prepared to face the real complexities of the world they will inhabit.

Education for wisdom, hope, community and dignity goes to the very core of what we think university is for. With the Christian foundation at their heart, Cathedrals Group universities can set out a deeper and richer purpose for higher education: enabling students to grow in
character and well-being, equipped to play a vital role within society as those who not only work and earn, but serve and give.

It is as true for the students in our universities as it is vital for the teachers we must educate to train the students of tomorrow, and being clear about the foundation values, ethos and purpose of our universities will ensure that they are well-placed to fulfil that role for future generations.
Chapter 3: Big ideas about small schools
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Reverend Simon Cade, Director of Education, Diocese of Truro

Introduction
Discourse surrounding small schools often has two complementary characteristics, namely anecdote over evidence, and an underlying prejudice or perception that small schools are a problem. As such, the intention of this chapter is to rehearse some of the positions on small schools, but we go further in identifying some of the work that needs to take place so that policy can be informed by a strong evidence-base. The foundation for the discussion is prioritising outcomes for children. As the 2016 Green Paper, Schools that work for everyone (DfE, 2016a:5), describes, ‘we need to deliver a diverse school system that gives all children, whatever their background, the opportunity to fulfil their potential.’

Prioritising outcomes for children is surprisingly difficult in policy around small schools, a difficulty compounded by context, in that small schools can differ greatly in their location and significance from the community they serve. As Bagley & Hillyard (2014) imply, there is a need to have a differentiated view of each individual small school. Notably, even within a single DfE press release (DfE, 2016b), there is interchanging of terminology between ‘small rural schools’ to ‘small and rural schools’; very different propositions. The paper concludes that there is a case for the development of a Commission for Small Schools to create a forum in which to discuss issues that will support high-quality outcomes for children. As Corbett & Tinkham (2014:691) suggest, the issue of small and rural schools is a ‘classic wicked policy problem’ and, as such, cannot simply be responded to by formulas and data-driven, technical–rational processes. They argue that issues around small schools can only be addressed, ‘through flexible, dialogical policy spaces that allow people who have radically different worldviews to create dynamic, bridging conversations’ (Corbett & Tinkham, 2014:691).
Evidence over anecdote

Barrett, Cowen, Toma & Troske (2015) note, across the globe, the general lack of focus on small and rural schools in research with regard to the impact of policy, despite the obvious implications for student achievement. Good policy for small schools will prioritise best outcomes for children; it will deliver ‘a school system that gives all children, whatever their background, the opportunity to fulfil their potential’ (DfE, 2016a:1). If we are to base policy for small schools on a priority of outcomes for children, we need smarter and more efficient ways of making judgements about how effective small schools are in delivering high-quality outcomes.

It is surprisingly difficult to make wise judgements about the effectiveness of an individual small school, or a group of small schools, as cohort size makes statistical analysis of annual or terminal assessment meaningless. In the smallest schools, even trends over time are not helpful. Ofsted and HMI judgements are likely to be far more accurate, in that they can consider progress and outcomes at child level and set these alongside the quality of teaching, assessment and leadership in the school. However, the infrequency of the inspection regime and the inefficiency of needing two or often three days of inspector time per school (including the pre- and post-inspection workload) make this an uneconomic way of making the necessary judgements about a group of small schools.

The debate around small schools is understandably sensitive. There are few issues in local politics that can so effectively mobilise vocal, passionate and media-contagious campaigns. The National Association for Small Schools (NASS), for example, argues that small schools are crucial to the future well-being of society, enriching both the education of children and community life. The strong feelings aroused by small schools can make it harder to prioritise outcomes for children; if we want to prioritise outcomes, we will need to develop coherent and powerful strategies to pursue this. At the heart of these strategies is an understanding of perceptions associated with small schools and balancing these perceptions with a robust evidence-base.
Community
It is argued that there is a common narrative that describes small schools as being at the heart of our community. However, as Bagley & Hillyard (2014) argued, this may not always be the case, and understanding what ‘at the heart of the community’ does and does not mean will help to frame policy.

First, it is imperative to understand that not all small schools serve small places. Understanding that the profile of attendance to specific schools and their relationship to place are different is pivotal in shaping policy for them. Whilst not an exhaustive list, obvious examples can be provided: some small schools serve the community in which they are set, many children walk to school and attend the school that is closest to their home; some small schools serve widely scattered communities and draw pupils from several different places, each of which will have its own identity; some small schools are near a town or area where there are no places and so serve a significant proportion of pupils who have another school closer but travel from a place that is further afield. Many growing towns have a halo of such schools around them. Even from these simple examples, it would appear that ‘at the heart of the community’ can mean different things.

Real value
Bagley & Hillyard (2014) argue that small and rural schools are often perceived to be in a strong position to build social capital and encourage a sense of collective efficacy. As such, the concept of value to the community emerges. However, value has to be judged against the type of relationship a small school has with its community, what it actually contributes. Does it, for example, host a whole network of activities that are much more than the usual extended school agenda? It is axiomatic that judgement about the real value a school offers to its local community is needed to help shape policy for small schools. It should be possible to identify a group of schools that are of such strategic importance for their communities that they might justifiably be treated differently. Yet, even on a simplistic level, there will be a need to consider funding; where should funding come from to support small schools that add significant value to the community? If a school is genuinely at the heart
of a community, and is of strategic significance for the viability of an area (as Corbett & Tinkham (2014) suggest, as a potential remedy to social issues within a community), then it could be argued that resourcing for this work should come from beyond the school budget and education funding. The education budget should rightly be expected to pay for education, but should not be used to address a crisis in the local or regional economy or to arrest changes in demographics.

The need for robust evidence

Some key issues requiring a more robust evidence-base include:

- how well small schools support the needs of particular groups of children
- whether there is a disproportionate reliance on the local authority and a greater need to engage in the multi-academy trust agenda
- whether a full curriculum is possible and the implications of this
- whether there are different requirements for teacher education, professional development, pedagogy and leadership with regard to small schools.

Supporting particular groups of children

Corbett (2013) suggests there is evidence that small schools can support academic achievement and social integration with particular reference to economically and socially disadvantaged populations. Anecdotally, small schools often appear to be the school of choice for parents of children with particular needs. The small-school context is sometimes cited as one that is better at meeting the needs of particular groups of children, presumably associated with perceptions of small class sizes and individual attention. However, the evidence for this is unclear; it is apparent that some large schools are also very good at meeting the needs of the same groups of children. We need to understand whether small schools really are better in general at working with children with particular needs.
Relationships with educational networks and support

By definition, a small school has less capacity within its immediate community than a larger school. If there is less capacity for school improvement, business management, subject specialism and teamwork, then the school is likely to rely more on services provided by the local authority. This means that small maintained schools will be particularly vulnerable in areas of the country where the local authority is weak. This will need to be recognised in national policy because a small school that can flourish in one part of the country might struggle elsewhere. As described later, whilst support is being suggested for small schools, it could be perceived that they need to join multi-academy trusts if they are to provide high-quality outcomes for children. Associated with these outcomes, the question of whether small schools can offer a full curriculum requires examination. Is there a minimum size beyond which the curriculum is compromised? Obviously these questions are equally valid across the key stages and it seems extraordinary that there are not clear and compelling answers around which policy can coalesce.

Different requirements for teacher education, professional development, pedagogy and leadership

Notably, Akisheva, Zeynelova, Makitova & Imanova (2015) argue that teachers working within small schools require additional professional ability and competences. In addition, Azano & Stewart (2015) discuss research indicating that ‘place consciousness’ should be integrated into teacher education programmes, acknowledging the significance of location to teaching in small schools. Moreover, they raise important issues such as the recruitment and retention of high-quality teachers for small and rural schools, in particular when ‘specialisms’ cannot be afforded and teachers are required to be experts in multiple subjects. It is implied that the ability to share strengths is lacking (as may indeed equally be the case in larger schools), resulting in the need for small schools to engage with strong networks. However, this latter point can still be difficult, as teachers in small schools struggle to be released to develop networks and access professional development. During a 2016 event in Cornwall
that focused on small schools, the recurrent theme from comments received related to participants’ perception of how much harder it is for leaders from small schools to engage with the wider education and school community. In particular, participants described the practical challenges for headteachers with teaching responsibilities and headteachers with very small leadership teams in spending time out of school. In addition to the difficulties of accessing professional development and support, analysis of teacher movement to and from small schools is also required, having clear implications for professional development programmes, both in terms of design, significance and how they are evaluated (Barrett, Cowen, Toma & Troske, 2015).

Given the precarious and uncertain state of small schools, along with the challenges of small cohorts as well as pressure on budgets, recruitment to small-school headships is difficult. In many cases, the salaries on offer compare to less senior posts in large schools, but with an entirely different order of responsibility and workload. The growing norm of executive headships over several schools can allow a little more flexibility in salary but adds significant layers of complexity and sometimes accountability.

Wallin & Newton (2014) argue that the role of leadership in small schools has not received the attention it deserves. They argue that leaders in small schools, as they often have to also teach and act as teacher role models, can be perceived to have greater credibility and are able to interpret the implications of policies and initiatives better. They continue to suggest that there is a ‘status and prestige’ granted to leaders in larger schools and that leaders of small schools can feel isolated (Wallin & Newton, 2014:711). Much greater evidence on leadership within small schools and what is required for small schools is crucial, especially as leadership is seen as so pivotal to high-quality pupil outcomes by the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL), inspection frameworks and the Department for Education.

Responding to policy
Academy policy
A powerful policy driver in education in recent years has been the academies programme. How the programme engages with small
schools will be vital to an effective policy. However, most policy and regulation relating to academies apply generally to all schools rather than specifically to small schools. An exception is seen in the May 2016 announcement ‘Next steps to spread educational excellence everywhere’ (DfE, 2016b). This introduces the concept of a new ‘double lock’ so that for a small-school academy to close, both local and national government must agree to the proposal. Presumably this was introduced to reassure that a multi-academy trust would not be able to close so easily as a small school. With the change of Secretary of State since this document was published, and the subsequent Green Paper (DfE, 2016a) that doesn’t mention small schools, the status of the announcement is now unclear.

However, reassuring small schools is only part of the equation; the receiving multi-academy trusts must also see that taking on small schools is a wise move for them. There is a risk that the academisation programme will leave behind numbers of small schools with vulnerable budgets, small cohorts suggesting fluctuating standards, and little realistic opportunity to grow. A double lock may indeed reassure small schools, but it may also make them much less attractive to a multi-academy trust, which may be faced with a school that it cannot close even if it becomes unviable.

Interestingly, this balance between protection and attractiveness was seemingly further addressed with the primary academy chain development grant, with explicit small-school supplements available to support small schools joining a larger multi-academy trust. However, the government publication relating to the grant was withdrawn in June 2015 and the grant is no longer available, although an announcement is expected very shortly about this.

It would appear that the academies programme assumes that most or all small schools will be part of a larger multi-academy trust that includes many schools. In May 2016, a DfE press release stated, for example, ‘No small successful schools will be forced to join a national academy chain – most small schools will choose to join multi-academy trusts made up of other local schools, though small sustainable schools will be able
to convert alone if they wish’ (DfE, 2016b). Supporters of small schools are vocal about the unique character of their schools and the need to protect this. It should be possible to protect and promote the unique local character of small schools even within a much larger academy trust; indeed, for small schools to flourish, they may well need to develop and promote a unique offer. Publishing and examining examples of good practice in the management and governance of small schools, practice that protects and promotes individual school character within a larger trust, will be of benefit.

**Funding**

The debate around small schools is often framed in terms of funding. Whilst finance is not the only consideration in prioritising outcomes for children, it is significant for small schools, and much will rest on the forthcoming ‘fairer funding’ settlement. Key considerations for small schools include rural deprivation and free school meals (FSM), disparity of funding between similar schools, as well as capital expenditure and saving.

Poverty in rural areas could be described as hidden, including being hidden from the measures that trigger additional support or funding. The single most significant element that triggers additional funding for schools is the proportion of pupils who are eligible for and claiming FSM. There is widespread belief that in rural areas, the claimant rate for FSM does not properly represent the level of poverty present, either because claimant rates are well below levels of eligibility, or because the nature of rural employment, which is often seasonal and uneven, makes eligibility problematic. Some basic examples highlight the issue: whilst Cornwall is rural and on most measures one of the poorest English counties, it has an FSM claimant rate well below the national average.

It could be argued that small schools have always needed some form of additional financial support beyond the basic age-weighted pupil unit (AWPU); this support has been through locally agreed formulas as well as national elements of support. In small schools, a higher proportion of funding is through the formula, rather than AWPU, meaning that they are highly vulnerable to changes in the formula. Regular
changes in the formula element of funding are introduced with transitional arrangements, capping and minimum funding guarantees, and often transitional arrangements from one reform are still working through the system when another is introduced. This picture has left some irrational inequalities of funding between schools, particularly in schools where the number on roll has changed significantly. This can mean that neighbouring schools with similar pupil numbers have significantly different budgets. Apart from the obvious unfairness of the situation, the current picture makes stress testing any possible new formula impossible except on a school-by-school basis.

The current climate around small schools seems to have virtually frozen significant capital investment and reorganisation. It is almost impossible to imagine opening a new, publicly funded small school, even to replace an existing failing building, and it is equally impossible to imagine trying to close one. Yet there are likely areas where there are too many schools and where changing patterns of population call for reorganisation and capital reinvestment, and if there is a good argument for keeping existing small schools, then there must be places where there is an argument for a new small school. A clear rationale for investment and organisation is needed.

The need for a Commission for Small Schools

It is clear that there is a need for robust evidence around the perceived strengths and weaknesses of small schools. However, there is already a strong argument that small schools often feel that they are not heard, that the agenda is urban (often metropolitan) and that initiatives and policies have not been matched to rural or small contexts. Small schools struggle to access professional development opportunities, there is little recognition that leadership demands are different in a small school, and small schools can struggle to access key education initiatives.

There is a strong argument that in our society, we come with a prejudice that small is a failed big; in a school context, that the answer is for a school to grow and no longer be small. Small is laden with implicit value judgements – small has to be justified in a way that large does not.
Small should not be characterised as an indulgence or an eccentricity; a good evidence-base for small schools and more clarity around their costs and benefits will help us to approach them with less prejudice and more wisdom.

As such, returning to Corbett & Tinkham’s (2014:691) suggestion that the issue of small and rural schools is a ‘classic wicked policy problem’, there needs to be a place for evidence and debate that move beyond formulas and data-driven, technical–rational processes. The distinctiveness of each small school, the leadership and professional development demands, and the opportunities to engage with policy, all need to be heard and debated.

The government has suggested that it is aware of this. In response to written parliamentary questions with regard to the Department for Education, Edward Timpson MP stated in June 2016 that, ‘The government recognises the particular challenges facing small and rural schools and is committed to supporting them. We have announced a package of measures to guarantee the continued success of these schools, including £10 million to secure expert support and advice. Details on how this will be administered, and further information, will be available in due course’ (Timpson, 2016). The key is that small schools have a voice that can support or challenge, with an evidence-base, the principles that will be espoused, and govern how such government recognition evolves.

References


Chapter 4: Fundamental British values

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Introduction
The debate around fundamental British values (FBV) has markedly increased in recent years as the government has sought to counter the threat of radicalisation in the UK within our local communities and particularly involving young people in schools, colleges and universities. But what are fundamental British values? Can they be taught, and if so, how should they be taught? Since the events of 11 September 2001, many of the issues concerning ‘British values’ have been viewed through the lens of national security and counter-extremism. In many instances, this is the right response. However, in the light of the recent Birmingham ‘Trojan Horse’ investigation and the Prevent strategy, can an ‘ethos-driven’ initial teacher education (ITE) also play a positive role in challenging and preventing radicalisation in our schools?

Defining fundamental British values
How do we begin to define FBV? Ofsted, according to the updated School Inspection Handbook (2016), defines and holds schools accountable through the following:

_Inspectors will consider… how well the school prepares pupils positively for life in modern Britain and promotes the fundamental British values of democracy, the rule of law, individual liberty, and mutual respect for and tolerance of those with different faiths and beliefs and for those without faith._

Ofsted, 2016:37

But are these criteria instructive and/or helpful? The difficulty lies in defining the inherently unique British characteristic within each of these criteria, as opposed to these being expressed as universal qualities and virtues expected of all individuals and communities within society, whether British or otherwise. Should these be expressed as a minimum set of values to which every citizen should adhere? The Citizenship Foundation provides a valuable perspective on teaching values:
Education is about helping people understand how things work and how to challenge and change them for the better. Values won’t be assumed because schools demand they are, particularly if they are different to those at home. They have to be arrived at through mutual exploration and understanding.

Citizenship Foundation, 2014 [online]

This goes to the heart of the question. FBV are not something that can be applied from the ‘top down’ but rather things that are arrived at through ‘mutual exploration and understanding’. This question also takes on an additional dimension and complexity in the context of the Scottish referendum and ‘English votes for English laws’. Together these are complex issues and require careful interpretation and dissemination, that is, the role for ITE in the teaching and understanding of ‘British values’.

Existing guidance pre-‘Trojan Horse’ scandal

In 2012, the then UK coalition government emphasised its interest in teachers playing a role in promoting British values in English schools through the publication of the revised Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2013). Among the revised qualifying standards were two statements relating to personal and professional conduct:

- not undermining fundamental British values, including democracy, the rule of law, individual liberty and mutual respect, and tolerance of those with different faiths and beliefs
- ensuring that personal beliefs are not expressed in ways which exploit pupils’ vulnerability or might lead them to break the law.

Prior to the publication of these new standards, teachers had been required merely to ‘hold positive values’ (TDA, 2007), a decision taken on two grounds: first, that values were not ‘progressive’, and second, that they are essentially subjective and relative (Jephcote et al., 2007).

The views at that time in England were in sharp contrast to those in the other three jurisdictions of the UK. In Scotland, the standard for ITE (GTE, 2006) was more explicit about the spiritual, moral, social and ethical dimensions of teacher
education, including specific reference to social justice, anti-discriminatory practices and social inclusion. The Welsh standards included statements around equality and inclusion, while in Northern Ireland, the competence statements were underpinned by the *Code of Values* and *Professional Practice*.

Not only has the earlier position on values in England been reversed, but the emphasis on professional values has shifted considerably from a concern relating to culturally and ethnically diverse communities and anti-discriminatory practices to one based on the debate around security and counter-extremism.

**New guidance**

Following the so-called ‘Trojan Horse’ scandal in March 2014, the government published guidance requiring maintained schools to actively promote FBV, as part of their duty under Section 78 of the Education Act 2002, which requires schools to promote the ‘spiritual, moral, social and cultural (SMSC) development of their pupils’. The prevailing view within government is that by ensuring SMSC development:

*schools can also demonstrate they are actively promoting fundamental British values. Meeting requirements for collective worship, establishing a strong school ethos supported by effective relationships throughout the school, and providing relevant activities beyond the classroom are all ways of ensuring pupils’ SMSC development. Pupils must be encouraged to regard people of all faiths, races, and cultures with respect and tolerance.*

**DfE, 2014:4**

Since the passing of the Counter-Terrorism and Security Act 2015, schools have also had a statutory duty to ‘have due regard to prevent people being drawn into terrorism’. The recent White Paper *Educational Excellence Everywhere* (HM Government, 2016) also alludes to preventing pupils from being drawn towards radicalisation by its ‘providing…practical advice on protecting children from extremism and radicalisation and building resilience’ (HM Government, 2016:97).
It is clear that FBV now hold particular currency in education policy and regulatory mechanisms, and that government policy, especially relating to professional standards for teaching and securitisation, has coalesced around FBV. There is an assumption in all these documents that there is a shared understanding of British values, and that teacher educators and teachers have the ability to educate student teachers about the extent of diversity within the label ‘British’.

The approach each educator will adopt will inevitably be affected by their own conception of ‘Britishness’, which is inevitably bound up with a set of unique biographies, personal values, opinions, beliefs, personalities and life experiences, which profoundly influence their behaviours and interactions. Some teachers may not buy into contentions of British values, while others may seek alternative approaches to the government’s definition of FBV.

The challenge for the government and for educators, however, is that to invoke nationality (which is country specific) alongside values (which are universal) risks alienating the very groups that you seek to reach out to, and undermining efforts to tackle the root cause. A recent Home Affairs Select Committee (HASC) report into the Prevent strategy found that ‘a definition in the government’s strategy which focuses on “vocal or active opposition to fundamental British values” is believed to be regarded as too broad and could be legally challenged as constraining freedom of speech’ (HASC, 2016). The UN representative Maina Kiai also recently cautioned that ‘by dividing, stigmatising and alienating segments of the population, Prevent could end up promoting extremism, rather than countering it’ (Office of the High Commissioner for United Nations Human Rights, 2016). This is not to say that the strategy is wrong. Rather, it calls for careful understanding of nuance through interpretation and implementation – a role that education can provide.

The National Union of Teachers (NUT) passed a motion at its 2016 annual conference that argued that FBV set an ‘inherent cultural supremacism’ (NUT, 2016; Espinoza, 2016). The Campaign for Real Education (CRE) responded in turn by stating that ‘teaching
children that British values are part of “cultural supremacism” will, at best, make them feel guilty about being British, and at worst, radicalise them in order to “make up” for the sins of their fathers'. Such language fuels emotion on both sides of the argument, so how do we reframe the debate to address the fundamental challenge that we face as a multicultural, open society, and how can ITE play a stronger and more positive role in effecting change?

The purpose of education

Besides a few passing references, there is very little else in the recent White Paper (HM Government, 2016) on the subject of radicalisation and extremism in schools. The majority of the proposals relate to further academisation, reforms to school leadership and governance, and initial teacher training (ITT). This in itself is instructive, as the quality of teaching – and our teachers – is key to promoting and embedding the teaching of values in the classroom, and in schools and communities more widely. The importance of education and educators should not be overlooked as a powerful way to prevent the insidious radicalisation of young people.

The swift response to the ‘Trojan Horse’ controversy was commendable and highlighted a very real issue in our schools that needs to be challenged and tackled head-on. However, there is a risk that the current counter-terrorism and radicalisation lens through which this debate is viewed is obscuring rather than promoting enlightenment. As I recounted in a recent contribution to BBC Radio Four’s Thought for the Day, a young teacher in an East London school asked me if I thought the government’s counter-terrorism strategy could be an obstacle to honest discussion between pupils and teachers about religion. The question goes to the heart of a problem faced by our society. Educators and the government want to ensure that students will be equipped to become good citizens with the skills and values to engage, participate and contribute constructively. Our society does not want to see its youth radicalised. But how do we stop it happening?

For some, the best response is a security one, relying on state powers and the police and intelligence services, and in some of the more difficult cases that might be proportionate. But for
others, especially educators, the response goes to the very heart of the purpose of education; to expand the mind, to prepare the student to think for themselves, to engage with the world critically and to discern their path in life by testing their views and beliefs. As Blessed John Henry Cardinal Newman wrote in his unrivalled 19th-century text on the idea of a university, ‘it is the place where a thousand schools make contributions; in which the intellect may safely range and speculate, sure to find its equal in some antagonistic activity and its judge in the tribunal of truth.’

So the challenge is how to find a proportionate means to adhere to the law and protect society, but at the same time remain committed to the purpose of a holistic education. I come back to the young teacher’s question and my experience of a Catholic school in Northern Ireland and of the teachers who upheld society’s values amidst the turmoil of the Troubles. Many beyond Northern Ireland might still associate schools with being part of the problem, but for those of us in the schools at that time, they were an opening to a world beyond. Our teachers, through rational engagement, challenge and personal example, reminded us of the sacredness of human life, regardless of how difficult the circumstances. That engagement opened previously closed minds, including mine. That is where the power and purpose of ethos and values-driven teacher education can play a significant role.

The importance of initial teacher education

Institutions such as St Mary’s University, which are faith-based and share a Christian foundation, have another ‘vernacular’ through which to explore British values – the language of ethos and mission. This language is manifested in two ways: the manner in which people in these institutions do their jobs, and their rationale for why. These aspects often remain an implicit element of the day-to-day experience of working within this particular context. However, in some courses, for example initial teacher training, the discourse on personal values and their genesis and development, is an explicit element of the course. Why might this be the case?

Within the Christian tradition, there is an understanding that education is about the formation of the whole

1. Contained in ‘The Idea of the University’ a series of lectures by Cardinal John Henry Newman on the occasion of the founding of the Catholic University of Dublin, delivered in 1852 and 1854
person (Catholic Education Service, 2014). On his papal visit to England in 2010, Emeritus Pope Benedict stated in his address to young people at St Mary’s University:

as you know the task of the teacher is not simply to impart information or to provide training in skills….education is not and must never be considered as utilitarian. It is about forming the human person, equipping him or her to live life to the full – in short it is about imparting wisdom.

Emeritus Pope Benedict, XV1, 2010

Therefore, there is a clear expectation that the experience of learning at an institution with a faith foundation will be characterised and defined by something additional to the quality of the academic learning experience. This is certainly at the core of institutions that form part of the Cathedrals Group of universities, whose mission is to nurture graduate attributes that will ensure a ‘strong commitment to values such as social justice, respect for the individual and promoting the public good through our work with communities and charities’ (Cathedrals Group, nd [online]).

Therefore, an understanding of the values and mission of the Cathedrals Group and how these inform and shape individual institutional identities and the professionals within them is critical to discerning what is special and unique about their educational offering. The group itself describes this uniqueness in terms of its service to the public good. As such, the values-based learning underpins ‘a commitment to education as a transformational and life-enhancing experience that prepares students for flourishing lives, successful careers and social commitment’ (ibid). Thus, what Cathedrals Group member institutions aim to do is to make learning meaningful so that all may have life and have it to the full. In elucidating this, they also commit to a pedagogical process that demands reflection and creates an environment that stimulates curiosity and critique.

Why is this focus on values important? Because it is an essential component of an authentic educational experience. Authentic teaching and learning are concerned with growth: growth of knowledge, undoubtedly, but also personal growth and self-
realisation. Fundamental to this is the understanding that ‘education is most effective when it is based on a holistic understanding of human development, learning and education...Without emotional connections, education becomes dry and meaningless’ (Johnson & Webb Neagley, 2011). These critical ‘emotional connections’ are realised at their most immediate level in our daily interactions, but this relational pedagogy must also be negotiated and held to account in the broader context of the political initiatives driving education policy.

In the context of the White Paper (HM Government, 2016), this is important because it goes to the heart of the debate around the teaching of values and ethos-driven initial teacher training (ITT). The trend in the last five years has been away from university-led ITT and towards school-based provision. But the debate shouldn’t be about the advocacy of one route over another. ITT should instinctively be rooted in classroom practice. We work with a network of schools (and, by definition, young people) to provide a rounded ITT experience for trainee teachers, combining practical, classroom-based elements grounded in the reality of the community settings in which they teach, while also nurturing a holistic education that is similarly grounded in an authenticity that develops ‘personal growth and self-realisation’. It is within this ethos-driven educational environment that the teaching of values can most powerfully be used.

**Conclusion**

Contemporary society, especially in the West, is searching for a way to deal with ever-more complex worlds of difference. This is particularly the case when it comes to faith and values, as societies struggle to address the question of what role faith plays or does not play in our respective societies. That is compounded by a growing diversity of faiths and questions over how to deal in a fair and equitable way with all faiths and beliefs. Recent attacks in France and Germany, along with the migration of refugees, have brought a renewed question about what is community and whether very diverse groups can live side by side and integrate.

For the UK government, that can mean having British values as a set of minimum standards to which
all sign up. But this will always come down to the perspective of individuals and groups within society and the personal filter through which they view British values. This will be informed by the rich and often conflicting personal, familial, cultural and educational experiences that they absorb from an early age.

In a recent open letter to the new Secretary of State for Education, Justine Greening, a number of prominent academics and educationalists argued that a consequence of the vote to leave the EU is that this has raised deep questions about ‘identity and belonging for many young people’. They argued:

*Now is the time to commit to a renewed conversation about our shared national values, ensuring that young people’s voices are heard. In particular we are aware of the dangers of some schools misinterpreting the need to promote fundamental British values in ways which close down, rather than open up, meaningful discussions.*

_Lundie et al., 2016 [online]_

Ethos-driven ITE can play a profoundly positive role in supporting this renewed conversation through mutual exploration and understanding, which can serve to educate rather than alienate. The potential of this, however, is yet to be fully explored and realised. The proposed Counter-extremism and Safeguarding Bill has recently been criticised by the Joint Committee on Human Rights (JCHR) for not sufficiently defining its core issues, including ‘British values’ (JCHR, 2016). With the introduction of the most recent schools Green Paper (DfE, 2016), the hope is that the commendable and serious work that is being done in one part of Whitehall continues to reinforce rather than undermine the equally positive work being done elsewhere.

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Chapter 5: Centres of excellence: with or without portfolio?

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A center of excellence (CoE) is a team, a shared facility or an entity that provides leadership, best practices, research, support and/or training for a focus area.

Wikipedia, 2016

Political context

The recent White Paper Educational Excellence Everywhere states that:

We will continue to move to an increasingly school-led [initial teacher training (ITT)] system which recruits enough great teachers in every part of the country, so that the best schools and leaders control which teachers are recruited and how they are trained.

HM Government, 2010:9

Since 2010, the number of trainees being trained through school-led routes has increased from 350 in 2012 to over 10,000 in 2016. This repositioning of initial teacher education (ITE) has meant that universities have come under increased scrutiny (DfE, 2015) and now more than ever have had to articulate what they bring to effective teacher training partnerships with schools. However, Educational Excellence Everywhere (HM Government, 2016) appeared to at least offer one strand where universities could position themselves strongly within the current policy environment. It was effectively a call to universities to be a part of the future solution with the
reward of longer term allocations of student numbers:

*We want the best universities to establish ‘centres of excellence’ in ITT, drawing on their world-leading subject knowledge and research. We will seek to recognise both the best university and school-led ITT through guaranteed, longer-term allocation of training places, allowing providers to plan their provision into the future.*

**HM Government, 2016:28**

The purpose appeared to be that selected universities renowned for their research would be central pillars in the future ITE landscape, with the reward of assured allocations and the accompanying benefits of improved sustainability of their provision. The chosen few would thus be able to expand and become hubs, working with schools in significant research-informed and research-led models of teacher education. Universities not surprisingly welcomed the recognition of research being integral to high-quality teacher education. However, the mechanisms for selection and the potential negative impact on those higher education institutions (HEIs) that were not selected raised concerns. Excellent HEI providers of teacher education that may not be research intensive could well be sidelined. MillionPlus (the Association for Modern Universities) argued that its members were centres of excellence, particularly for ITE and pedagogical research, and commented that by selecting only a few providers this would have:

*reputational and financial impacts on university providers in particular because the White Paper states that such centres are likely to be privileged with a guarantee of several years’ ITT allocations.*

**MillionPlus, 2016 [online]**

This strand of the White Paper also pointed to a potential divide between the role of schools in ITE and that of a select number of universities. Whilst partnership models were still being supported, greater clarification of what HEIs bring to partnership working was being highlighted and at worse meant they were being potentially reduced to providing only research and developing subject knowledge.
It can be argued that there is 'little doubt that partnership between schools and universities is likely to provide the highest-quality initial teacher education' (House of Commons Education Committee, 2012:9), and this view is supported by a recent report, The Good Teacher Training Guide (Smithers, Robinson & Coughlan, 2013), and the recent Carter review of initial teacher training (DfE, 2015). Taking this into account, there needs to be an emphasis on effective partnership with a clear understanding of what schools and universities are able to offer together.

The battle to become a centre of excellence

Not surprisingly, with recent policy supporting the notion of schools as the future leaders of ITE, many schools were quick to challenge the concept of centres of excellence only being available to HEIs. In a context where school-led ITE was ideologically the direction of travel, it was hard for the government not to listen to the voices of headteachers. At the same time, universities renowned for their research were also articulating their credentials as potential centres of excellence, seeing a significant opportunity to capture a vital role as articulated in the 2016 White Paper.

It did not take long before the pressure from schools to also be entitled to the appellation of centre of excellence was noted and then addressed quickly by government. Consequently, any metrics for selecting centres of excellence were being configured to allow both HEI and school-led providers the potential to become centres of excellence. The inevitable outcome was the redefinition of centres of excellence, where research was no longer central and the criteria reflected a less refined set of metrics. Datasets used were limited and based on recruitment, external verification of quality, quality of intake and the employability of trainees. Joint meetings of the DfE and the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) with a selection of stakeholders in the summer of 2016 helped further shape the metrics to be finally applied. However, even then it was not clear which particular sets were to be used within the areas prioritised; for example, for ‘employability’, would this be measured by provider returns or school workforce returns?
Selecting centres of excellence

Meetings between stakeholders and the DfE and NCTL resulted in the data to be used to inform the decisions to allocate centres of excellence falling broadly into four key domains:

- quality of academic intake onto teacher training courses
- quality of provision
- success in employability
- success in recruitment.

The methodology of how these were to be applied was circulated on 29 October 2016. Quality of academic intake referred to the undergraduate degree class, with weight given to more recent data drawing upon the ITT census data, and for HEIs this being core places and postgraduate only. Yet it was not made clear whether a first-class degree would carry more weight than a 2.1. ‘Quality of provision’ was based entirely upon Ofsted grades, taking into account each age phase. As for quality of outcomes (i.e., employability), this was based on the proportion of trainees employed in a state-funded school at any time within two years of qualifying. Finally, recruitment was based on recruitment against allocations, with adjustments to take account of hard-to-recruit-to subjects. It made no mention of engagement with School Direct or research.

However laudable the identified criteria might appear, they are all potentially flawed as selection metrics. The quality of intake does not include undergraduate provision, and pre-course experience is not included, for example years spent as a teaching assistant. Similarly, the quality of provision based on Ofsted grades does not take heed of where providers have grades under three different frameworks, whilst recruitment for universities is likely to show little variability. Similarly, the role of research would favour universities, as would employment data school-led providers.

The benefits of centres of excellence

At the time of writing, there is no clarity whatsoever of the roles of centres of excellence or even whether this concept is still being considered. With recognised priorities in mentoring, recruitment in STEM\(^1\) subjects and the need for high-quality continuing professional development (CPD), as outlined in recent government reviews, why

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1. That is, science, technology, engineering and mathematics
aren’t these the main priorities for any would-be centres of excellence, or positive impact of ITE on the most disadvantaged schools? This points to other key unanswered questions, including: Why aren’t there expectations for centres of excellence to impact positively on the teaching profession in areas of recognised need? Why can’t providers bid to become centres of excellence in identified areas, and where possible for these to be regionally dispersed to become hubs of excellence?

At the moment, centres of excellence may even be set up according to a set of metrics devoid of the requirement for a particular portfolio. This is an opportunity lost at a time when the country needs a strategic approach to maximise the positive contribution that HEIs can make to improving teacher education in partnership with schools.

In England, with some 75 HEIs, more than 200 school-centred initial teacher training (SCITT) providers and over 800 School Direct lead schools providing initial teacher education, coupled with an increasing blurring of the differences between university- and school-led provision, it is perhaps time to stabilise the number of providers, focus on quality and establish a small number of centres of excellence. If the country is to raise both the profile and status of the profession, then linking providers to centres of excellence not just for ITT but also for CPD may at least help this process.

In Finland, for example, ITE is only undertaken by 13 teacher training schools for all the country’s primary and secondary provision. In the Finnish model, some teacher training schools host more than 150 student teachers, enabling significant peer interaction and learning. They are strongly research based and collaborate closely with the subject faculties, and the department for education, as well as with one another:

In the University of Oulu, three faculties, namely Science, Humanities and Education deliver teacher education courses for trainee teachers under the guidance of teacher education departments.  

Sahlberg, 2011:

The teachers in the training school are employed by the university and there is close working between
the school and the university. Furthermore, all the teachers work both as teachers for pupils and as mentors for student teachers. Mentoring is perceived as a vital part of the scope of schools and is seen as no less important than basic teaching by the teachers. Every meeting of teachers has student teachers on the agenda. In Finland, the priority is to produce teachers who draw upon research in their classroom work and who have a strong foundation so that they can problem solve independently and access recent educational research. These few training schools form an effective network known as the Finnish Teacher Training Schools and they organise conferences, materials and teaching resources for student teachers.

Recommendations
Approaches to the award of centre of excellence status

The concept of centres of excellence in itself is a positive one and different providers will be able to offer different strengths as their areas of excellence. A more strategic approach now that there appears to be a decoupling might be to allocate centre of excellence status for a limited period, possibly three years, where the expectation is to lead a project in an identified area, such as increasing the number of applicants in STEM areas, or improving teacher retention or developing subject expertise.

Areas of real priority and to invite providers with recognised expertise in these areas to become centres of excellence. One for example might be to raise the quality of mentoring across the country for ITE and those in their first three years of teaching. Expectations could be set out with a remit, and providers would then bid to become a centre of excellence in mentoring, where funding would follow the commitment to deliver against agreed targets and expectations, such as developing a framework and training programme and sharing best practice. A number of other areas could be considered, such as effective teaching of pupils who speak English as an additional language, leadership and management, use of technology and effective multi-agency working.

A more strategic approach now that there is a decoupling of the concept of centres of excellence from three-year allocations would be to identify
**Partnership work**

Partnerships across providers could also provide a model for centres of excellence in which small clusters of providers work together to deliver on an agreed area. Here, the Cathedrals Group consisting of 16 high-quality providers of ITE would be able to provide a strong claim to offer excellence in designated areas. The Cathedrals Group has a rich history of successful ITE, with its member institutions providing teacher education across the country from early years through to post-16. Cathedrals Group institutions are characterised by their faith-based values and commitment to the moral purpose of education. The group meets regularly and has both a strong teacher education and research strand. Its effective network enables successful sharing of expertise and thus as a collective is able to offer strong expertise in particular areas such as faith-based education and undergraduate primary teacher education. Church schools value the ethos and values instilled within teachers trained within these institutions and these values can enhance the resilience of newly qualified teachers from these institutions when faced with the challenges presented in the classroom in their first few years of teaching. Recent meetings of the Cathedrals Group have focused on what its members can achieve to make a positive impact on the teaching profession, such as research into where teacher retention has been strong and what makes effective CPD. It is these types of priorities that centres of excellence could be addressing in a moral commitment to improving the quality of teacher education in England.

**Three-year allocations**

At the end of September 2016, the impetus to create centres of excellence had decreased and was replaced by the decision to award a selection of providers three-year allocations according to a set of metrics not dissimilar to some of those initially mooted for the recognition of a centre of excellence. Exactly how these were applied was not made clear and there seemed to be significant distancing between these favoured providers and the associated ‘title’ of centre of excellence. There was also the olive branch offered to unsuccessful applicants that they could aspire to three-year allocations the following year. These three-
year allocations were also made to SCITT providers. The security these allocations provide enables more strategic resourcing as these providers can now plan ahead with some confidence. For those not selected, the uncertainty continues and some ‘good’ providers may well decide not to continue with ITT. This is a serious risk, due to the need to recruit and train potentially ‘good’ and ‘outstanding’ trainees at a time of potential teacher shortage and with the number of pupils in schools expected to rise by ‘13 per cent between 2015 and 2024, adding another 900,000 pupils to the school system over the next decade’ (Lynch et al., 2016:3).

A report commissioned by the National Audit Office (NAO) in February 2016 noted that the DfE had missed its trainee teacher recruitment target for the last four years. It also stated that for 2015/16, HEIs recruited 85% against their target, SCITT providers 65% and School Direct 58%:

*Until the Department meets its targets and can show how its approach is improving trainee recruitment, quality and retention, we cannot conclude that the arrangements for training new teachers are value for money.*

NAO, 2016:

Surely the ability to recruit good-quality trainees should influence the allocation process, coupled with the need to keep HEIs engaged in ITE in order to support a high-quality teacher training model where theory, research, reflective practice and classroom experience are all required? The government is trying to manage a careful balancing act between providing some stability with three-year allocations but potentially risking the loss of good providers by not offering enough of them. The allocation of three years of numbers to some providers might enable some flexibility for the DfE to move numbers between providers and particular routes, but will not provide the real stability that could be gained by offering a much higher percentage of providers these three-year allocations. Stability at a time of uncertainty in recruiting the next generation of teachers seems to make sense. By excluding so many successful providers of ITE from three-year allocations, the result might only add to the challenge of meeting national recruitment targets.
References


Chapter 6: The benefits to individual teachers, to schools and to the teaching profession of Master’s-level initial teacher education

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Background

The report of the Carter review of initial teacher education (ITE) (DfE, 2015) recommended that applicants ‘should understand that [qualified teacher status (QTS)] is the essential component of ITT and that a PGCE is an optional academic qualification’. That challenged the university sector to articulate a consensual view on the value of the postgraduate certificate in education (PGCE) for schools, potential teachers and indeed for policymakers. More recently, the White Paper, *Educational Excellence Everywhere* (HM Government, 2016) includes a proposal to replace QTS with a new professional accreditation to be ratified by schools at the end of the newly qualified teachers’ first year in teaching. We await further details on the implementation of these proposals. In the meantime, it is clear that all ITT programmes will in future be designed to give trainees the opportunity to show that they have met the standard for an interim judgement that they are qualified to embark on the induction phase. All accredited providers will ensure that their ITT programmes cover all of the elements of the forthcoming framework for ITT (Munday, 2016). These developments give a new focus to the importance of the role of an academic award in ITE.

The choice of routes into teaching, whether it be as a registered student of a university or SCITT provider, or through a placement as a School Direct fee-paying or salaried trainee, is a distinctive feature of ITE in England. The Universities’ Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) is particularly mindful of the value of the undergraduate route into teaching, and BA, BSc and BEd degree programmes by definition carry an academic award and sometimes credit at Master’s level. However, to secure the...
status of the profession, no matter which route they opt for, all new entrants must have clear information about the distinctive content and outcomes of their training and, as now, have the opportunity to undertake a programme of ITE that leads to an academic award. The programme should be designed and managed through close partnership arrangements between a group of schools and one or more universities accredited to make higher education awards. For postgraduate routes, this is typically the PGCE, with 60 credits at level 7 of the National Qualifications Framework, although some providers offer a postgraduate diploma (PGDip) with 120 credits, or freestanding Master’s-level credits.

UCET believes that an academic award at Master’s level offers the best mode of postgraduate teacher preparation, with significant benefits for the school system as a whole as well as to the individual as, captured in UCET’s own ‘three Es’:

- **equity** for all new teachers as they undertake their initial training in a diverse system and at the point when consistent judgements are being made on their ‘licence to practise’

- **entitlement** of children and young people to be taught by excellent teachers who are equipped to teach well and be autonomous professionals in the schools of the future and not just to cope in the present system

- **expectation** that all schools should be able to recruit well-qualified teachers and thereby contribute to the success and well-being of wider society through the excellent teaching and support for personal development that enable children and young people to achieve in the broadest sense.

What is the added value of an academic award in ITE?

**Teaching should be an aspirational and inspirational career:** The well-being of our society requires that education should be seen as a worthwhile and well-resourced profession, attracting high-calibre candidates with intellectual curiosity as well as the personal and practical skills to be excellent classroom practitioners. Many other programmes of professional training, including those leading to careers in the healthcare, and legal and social services
involve intensive periods of practical experience, linked to relevant academic study. Teaching should be no different.

**Becoming a teacher is to become an educator:** A Master's-level programme should give new entrants insights into the knowledge-base for teaching. This includes the work of significant educationalists who have contributed in different ways to the development of the education system in the UK and beyond. Time spent in the university offers the opportunity to engage with the work of academic experts beyond the ITE programme, whose work may be of great relevance to work in schools. The programme should develop an understanding of the psychological and socio-economic factors affecting the learning of children and young people. These themes should not be treated in the abstract, but must be linked to practical teaching in schools and help to contextualise professional practice.

**Teachers need to be able to use research and evidence:** The programme should draw on a range of relevant evidence and on educational theory that gives broader insights into the immediate classroom experience that is integral to the programme. New teachers should be supported in developing their critical thinking on key themes and the ability to draw on evidence beyond the specific context. This should enable them to respond to the complex challenges they will encounter in schools. Teachers are supported in acquiring the confidence to overcome professional problems as they arise, and to use this knowledge to collaborate effectively with colleagues at an early stage in their teaching career.

**Teachers with research skills are capable of bringing about change:** There is an increasing focus on teacher research, both as a contributing factor to school improvement and also to motivating and sustaining teachers in their day-to-day work, through giving them an understanding of their capacity to bring about improvement and progress. A Master’s-level programme should include basic research methods for new teachers, and also give them the understanding that will enable them to evaluate research and to become discerning users of the theory and evidence that inform their
work in schools. This grounding in practitioner enquiry develops their aptitude for working with colleagues to explore areas for development identified at school level.

**Planning for progression is an essential skill:** The programme should develop the skills of planning individual lessons and sequences of learning alongside an understanding of subject pedagogy and curriculum development. The school experience undertaken in the context of ITE should not focus narrowly on the competence of the trainee teachers in delivering existing schemes of work. Recent changes to the national curriculum and assessment arrangements require that practitioners of the profession of the future will be expected to have the teaching skills and understanding of the pedagogy of their primary curriculum phase or secondary subject that will enable them to exercise autonomy in these important matters.

**Adult professional learning is enhanced by group study:** Typically, students registered on a Master’s-level programme will work as a member of a cohort of subject- or age-phase specialists or as a member of a cross-curriculum group, focused on key topics such as behaviour. New teachers benefit from their contact with university tutors who will contribute to the learning through their up-to-date knowledge of learning and teaching in their subject, age phase or a specialist aspect of provision, such as special educational needs. However, trainees also derive significant benefit through analysis and comparison of the diverse range of school experiences encountered by members of the group. The invaluable learning derived from the extensive time spent in school will be enhanced by this reflection on a broader range of professional practice.

**Teaching needs the input of strong subject specialists:** To be an excellent teacher requires confident subject knowledge and an understanding of how children and young people learn. Providers offering a Master’s-level award include a university within the partnership whose staff have extensive prior experience in schools, as well as an understanding of the variety of practice in schools across the partnership in their specialist subject and age phase.
Many have national and international research profiles in their specialist areas, or are involved in the leadership of subject associations. This expertise is combined with that of school-based teacher educators, who should be selected from those with excellent current practice in their own area of specialism. These complementary experiences enrich the programme of ITE, offering trainee teachers breadth and depth in their learning as well as providing opportunities for school-based staff to keep in touch with developments in their subjects and phases and for university tutors to keep up to date with current practice in schools.

**ITE linked to an academic award offers a coherent programme of professional learning:** Master’s-level study has maximum impact when highly qualified school staff and university staff work closely together to secure coherence across the different elements. By ensuring that the professional practice is planned carefully alongside other inputs and an appropriate range of assessment methods, beginner teachers should be given every opportunity to reveal how the breadth of study contributes to enhancing their developing professional practice.

**The teaching profession should be qualified at Master’s level:**
In line with the practice in other parts of the UK and in international systems acknowledged to be excellent, the teaching profession in England should be qualified at Master’s level. Achieving a Master’s-level qualification in the ITE phase offers a strong basis for ongoing professional development in the induction phase and as an element of continuing professional development. The 60-credit PGCE at level 7 is equivalent to a third of a full Master’s degree and can contribute to the achievement of the full award once in service. Increasing numbers of serving teachers are undertaking programmes of development accredited at Master’s level, especially those who aspire to school leadership roles.

**Academic awards made in the UK are recognised internationally:**
In the 21st century, education is a global enterprise. While the current QTS and its successor will only have currency in England, the PGCE is the most widely recognised UK postgraduate award and is transferable. It is accepted across the UK and internationally as an assurance that the candidate has
achieved the high standard expected for entry to the teaching profession. Teachers who spend time overseas are not lost to the profession. On their return, they bring new skills and invaluable cultural awareness to the school system.

**Judgements on entry into the teaching profession should be consistent and quality assured:** The PGCE and other Master’s-level awards are subject to a UK system of scrutiny. This begins with the process of programme validation, which includes scrutiny of curriculum coverage, staffing, resources, assessment, partnership arrangements and programme learning outcomes. The process is peer reviewed. Final judgements are subject to internal review, external examination and to moderation across the partnership by professionals who have been selected for the role and who have significant experience and have themselves earned higher level academic awards. These arrangements offer an assurance to schools and to new teachers of the high standard of the professional academic award in ITE.

**References**


Chapter 7: Delivering teacher education in partnership

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Modelled on practice in teaching hospitals, teaching schools are part of the UK government’s policy (HM Government, 2010) to encourage schools to form strategic alliances with other schools and higher education institutions (HEIs) for the purpose of improving the quality of professional practice and the attainment of every child, by allowing knowledge about, and expertise in, pedagogic practice to be more effectively developed and shared between schools and HEIs. Acknowledging these developments, this chapter aims to exemplify the challenges and benefits for HEIs and teaching schools when they collaborate to design and deliver teacher education. Specifically, the focus is on a particular emerging arrangement involving York St John University and a cluster of teaching school alliances.

The success of initial teacher education (ITE) has long been dependent on the existence of strong university–school partnership arrangements. The difference nowadays is that more of the training is delivered in schools, and public policy gives schools more responsibilities and funding for the strategic management of teacher training and education (HM Government, 2010, 2016; DfE, 2011). This policy shift brings with it challenges as well as benefits for schools and HEIs.

At York St John University (YSJU), there is a long-established record of training high-quality primary and secondary teachers in collaboration with partnership schools. YSJU was founded in 1841 as a church college for teacher training and has now been training teachers for over 175 years. The institution gained university status in 2006. It offers programmes for prospective primary school teachers at both undergraduate and postgraduate level and secondary school programmes at postgraduate
level. Whilst historically these programmes have been ‘university-led’ in conjunction with partnership schools, YSJU now offers the postgraduate certificate in education (PGCE) through School Direct, a ‘school-led’ route, in addition to its university-centred programmes. On the School Direct programmes (both fee-paying and salaried routes), the vast majority of training takes place in partnership schools, with much reduced input taking place within the university itself.

The labels assigned to these routes as being ‘university-led’ or ‘school-led’ reflect the ideological shift in government policy (HM Government, 2010, 2016; DfE, 2011) – the belief that ITE is best delivered by schools. This was reinforced in a speech given by the Secretary of State for Education at the time, Michael Gove, when he outlined his view that ‘teaching is a craft and it is best learnt as an apprentice observing a master craftsman or woman’ (Gove, 2010). The use of such labels raises questions about the reality of teacher education and, in particular, the claim that all routes are delivered in partnership; we know that high-quality teacher education depends on the effective collaboration of universities, teaching school alliances, individual schools and the staff and teams within them, so describing provision as ‘led’ by one or another partner is unnecessarily divisive. This terminology threatens to undermine partnerships rather than build the expertise within them, which is essential if we are to build ‘educational excellence everywhere’ (HM Government, 2016). As Caroline Whiting and her co-authors point out:

An ever more complex patchwork of provision is often disguised through a simplistic dichotomy of being led by schools or Higher Education (HE) and...little mention is made of the training that is delivered day to day by school mentors in all routes, or the way partnership is sustained by all the key players in ITT.

Whiting et al., 2016:9

Whichever route is followed, there is a commitment on the part of all involved within the YSJU partnership to ensure the development of high-quality student teachers who will have the knowledge, understanding and skills to continue to develop and

An ever more complex patchwork of provision is often disguised through a simplistic dichotomy of being led by schools or Higher Education (HE) and...little mention is made of the training that is delivered day to day by school mentors in all routes, or the way partnership is sustained by all the key players in ITT.

Whiting et al., 2016:9
become outstanding teachers and leaders of the future, with a focus on raising standards of attainment for pupils in our schools. This is embodied in its PGCE secondary programme mission statement, ‘Developing outstanding teachers in an outstanding partnership’.

This chapter will focus on the PGCE programme for trainees aiming to teach the secondary phase, and the challenges and opportunities that have emerged as School Direct provision has developed in partnership with teaching school alliances. Whilst the PGCE secondary School Direct programme was developed initially with the Ebor Teaching School Alliance and offered three PGCE subject areas, it has grown in recent years. This growth has been as a result of other teaching school alliances having ‘bought into’ our bespoke model of School Direct and our vision. As a consequence of this buy-in, we now offer 13 PGCE subject areas, working in partnership across five teaching school alliances.

However, the introduction of the School Direct programme has brought challenges as well as opportunities. Specifically, while it has enabled YSJU to grow its secondary provision, with the introduction of new subject areas, reflecting positive support for new developments in ITE, the allocation of a greater number of training places to School Direct, rather than university-centred routes, has undoubtedly had an impact on university provision and the development of partnerships.

Government allocations for teacher training, published annually, clearly demonstrate the implementation of government policy and the shift of ITE into schools that was initially laid out in the White Paper, *The importance of teaching* (HM Government, 2010). Indeed, figures for 2015/16 (DfE, 2016a) indicate that 14,208 new postgraduate entrants are now on school-led routes (51% of the total) (Table 6.1).
This compares with 13,561 on HEI-led courses (49% of the total). This demonstrates the significant impact of the government’s drive towards school-led ITE on recruitment to universities over the last few years, given that in 2011/12, 80% of places were allocated to HEIs.

The drive towards School Direct as a preferred route into teaching has impacted on the relationship between universities and schools in terms of finance, leadership and the development of programmes, as well as in relation to how student teachers are prepared for a career in teaching. On the YSJU PGCE secondary programme, responsibilities of both school and university staff, along with the notion of ‘teacher educator’ have been redefined as boundaries have been blurred and roles ‘blended’; this has provided both opportunities and challenges.

The PGCE secondary model of School Direct at YSJU has been designed to support an equal partnership and to ensure full collaboration of all key players. Indeed, we have used the challenges of the programme design as an opportunity to strengthen the existing partnership and build on the good practice already developed on our university-based PGCE. We have been able to capitalise on a wide range of expertise within the growing partnership to collaborate on both strategic and operational priorities. As the School Direct route was introduced, both school

### Table 6.1: Entrants and routes to ITE, 2015/16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Route</th>
<th>Number of new postgraduate entrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT providers)</td>
<td>2,372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Direct (Fee)</td>
<td>7,036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Direct (Salaried)</td>
<td>3,166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teach First</td>
<td>1,584</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: DfE, 2016a*
and university staff collaborated to design our bespoke model to ensure the development of a high-quality and rigorous programme and embed effective quality assurance procedures. At subject level, this has included the design and development of the curriculum, assessments and resources.

Subject specialists across the university, as well as staff within the ITE department, have been involved in developing the new subject PGCEs alongside school staff, thus drawing expertise across and beyond the university as part of a collaborative process. This process has also supported the enhanced progression routes from our undergraduate programmes to the PGCE secondary programme, and the potential return of the newly qualified teachers for part-time Master's-level study across our departments.

Staffing of academic sessions is also shared within the partnership, with both university and school staff leading sessions, and these take place in both university and school settings. It is not untypical for school staff to lead PGCE sessions at the university and university staff to lead sessions in schools. This has provided an opportunity to further demonstrate the strength of our partnership and to capitalise on expertise within the partnership, with the intention of creating a genuine environment of lifelong learning.

Meetings for the PGCE secondary programme have also been restructured, with the terms of reference for meetings amended to reflect the principle of equal partnership. For example, the PGCE secondary steering group is chaired by a school leader, and membership is a cross-section from the PGCE secondary partnership, including all subjects and both university- and school 'led' routes. This group focuses on strategic leadership of the programme and issues related to quality assurance. There is also a PGCE secondary strategic planning group, which is made up of the directors of each teaching school alliance and university staff. This group focuses on specific key issues such as recruitment strategy and effective practice to ensure consistency of practice across the wider partnership. One beneficial outcome arising from the work of this group is an agreed recruitment guidance booklet.
outlining the responsibilities of all involved, including expectations for recruitment days and agreed interview activities to which all partners adhere, thus ensuring consistency across the partnership.

Mentor meetings give school and university staff opportunities to discuss a range of issues, from strategies to support student teacher progress to programme developments and implications of local and national initiatives, and often provide great opportunities for the professional development of staff. The use of skilled mentors to lead input has also proved effective in supporting less experienced colleagues. These meetings, together with a range of opportunities provided for student teachers to feed back about the programme, serve to ensure that all key players in the partnership have both a voice and much greater ownership, and this exemplifies our partnership approach to initial teacher education.

However, a range of challenges has also emerged as the partnership has responded to government policy and as the partnership has grown to include more teaching school alliances and more partnership schools, and as we now offer a greater range of PGCE subjects. Not least, it has taken time to secure authentic partnership working and to develop an understanding of what effective partnership really means.

For university-based staff, a tension exists between being simultaneously in control and out of control. YSJU is accountable for the quality of the provision, yet responsibility for much of the delivery is shared across the partnership. The number of players involved in the programme, and the need to be reactive and responsive to wide-ranging and often unpredictable situations, have resulted in what are at times difficult and complex processes.

For school-based staff, the transition to 'school-led' ITE has revealed gaps in their experience, which has been challenging for the partnership. For example, schools' involvement in ITE previously comprised working with universities by offering school placements for student teachers. In our partnership, although there has been a drive to synthesise university and school experience, there has still been an understanding that the university is 'responsible' for the
education of student teachers, whilst schools offer the practical support and teaching experience. Thus, although roles are no longer clear cut, previous practice still shapes expectations; it has been a challenge to manage this transition and, in particular, for staff across the wider partnership to see their role differently from that of ‘placement’ mentor.

School staff are now much more involved in delivering core academic sessions, and in preparing and delivering the ITE curriculum to a student body considerably older than they are used to, and this undoubtedly presents its challenges. Teachers are now responsible for initial teacher ‘education’ and not simply ‘training’. So, in addition to the demands of having a student teacher placed with them for most of the PGCE year, and the subsequent time and resources needed to support their development – and on many levels, student teachers’ needs differ from those of pupils – school mentors or other school staff are also now delivering academic sessions as part of our bespoke School Direct programme.

School staff have had to address new academic demands, including the need to provide a range of literature appropriate to the sessions they are delivering and underpin the pedagogical guidance they offer with theoretical knowledge and understanding. This has created additional pressures on school staff, whose core business is the teaching and learning of their pupils and who are under immense pressure to raise the attainment of pupils in line with government expectations and determination to improve the country’s rankings in international league tables, such as the OECD’s Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). This has highlighted the need for additional resources and investment in school staff to avoid the potential for these teacher educators simply having this role as a ‘bolt-on’ responsibility. If the core business of teaching schools is to extend to deliver teacher training and education, this cannot be done without increased investment.

It should also be acknowledged that whilst many school staff are involved in ITE as a matter of choice, there are some who are involved because they have been given the responsibility as part of their school role, with little say in this decision. Whilst the expectation would be that any role they are given is done
to a high standard, it is not ideal for the future of the teaching profession to have ‘reluctant’ staff involved. Significantly, it should be noted that being a good or outstanding teacher does not necessarily translate into being an outstanding teacher educator, as the skills and knowledge required by the latter are not identical to those required by the former (Darling-Hammond, 2006).

The need to ensure consistency of practice across the increasing number of partnership schools involved in the programme has never been of such paramount importance, since much of the preparation of student teachers is now conducted in schools. This is reflected in the introduction of the new national standards for school-centred initial teacher training (SCITT) mentors (DfE, 2016b), borne out of the recommendations of the Carter review of initial teacher training (DfE, 2015). However, whilst these standards are welcome, it has to be recognised that it is the consistency with which they are implemented and adhered to that is crucial, and, for this to happen, the role of the mentor (or school-based teacher educator) needs to be valued in terms of the time given to it within schools.

In an internal survey completed with our secondary mentors involved in the programme (conducted in June 2016), the majority indicated that time was the key barrier to fulfilling their role to the level they deemed necessary. This is hardly surprising. The majority of mentors were given just one hour a week to undertake this important role, which has implications for quality and raises questions related to the value given to the role. Of course, at one level, our partnership schools do value the role and would be delighted to give school staff more time to support student teachers and liaise with other staff in the school about their ITE practice, but the reality is that these schools simply do not have the funding to release staff for wider involvement in teacher education.

The lack of time given to support the role also impacts on the capacity to attend meetings and training opportunities, and whilst the partnership can be creative in using digital methodology for some things, the mentors and school staff still need time to access these. Additional challenges are apparent with the use of teachers who are not trained mentors but are often termed ‘host’ teachers. These colleagues have
student teachers leading learning in their classrooms and contribute to training and assessment of student teachers, and it is a challenge to ensure that this growing body of staff is also suitably trained and prepared. As student teachers are responsible for pupil progress, all qualified teachers supporting them need to have the time to ensure student teachers are supported to do this well, as pupil achievement should not be adversely affected by being led by student teachers.

Hence, we are arguably creating a model of teacher education that essentially relies on much goodwill, as staff put in the hours for this role that are not reflected in their prescribed workload. Whilst the new standards for teachers’ professional development (DfE, 2016c) indicate that ‘as [members of] the most important profession for our nation’s future, teachers need considerable knowledge and skill, which need to be developed as their careers progress’, there is no mention of the broadening role of many teachers to include ‘teacher educator’. Rather, the standards focus on the impact of professional development in order to secure pupil progress, which is after all their core business: ‘As the Teachers’ Standards set out, teachers make the education of their pupils their first concern’ (DfE, 2016c:3). Yet the standards also indicate that school leaders should ensure that ‘sufficient time and resource is available’: surely schools cannot be expected to take on the complex role of educating, rather than just hosting student teachers without themselves having additional resources?

Indeed, this is at odds with the DfE’s strategy that suggests ‘there is little point attracting high-potential teachers to the profession if they don’t then receive the kind of quality training that prepares them for a successful and fulfilling career in the classroom’ (DfE 2016d:16). This would surely be best done by strengthening partnerships and investing appropriately in both school and university expertise to deliver high-quality teacher education programmes. Yet a true partnership approach to teacher preparation seems to be undermined by the DfE strategy that simply talks of either ‘school-led’ or ‘university-led’ provision without acknowledging how schools and universities need to work collaboratively in concert, supported by appropriate resources, if teacher education is to do justice
to the potential of future generations and ‘provide world-class education and care that allows every child and young person to reach his or her potential, regardless of background’ (DfE, 2016d:3). Otherwise, the aspiration for ‘educational excellence everywhere’ (HM Government, 2016) is just that, an aspiration.

Partnership is further undermined in the strategy outlined in the priority to ‘recruit, develop, support and retain teachers’, which suggests that the DfE will:

*focus on helping new teachers enter the classroom with sufficient subject knowledge, practical behaviour-management skills and armed with the most up-to-date research into how pupils learn, and we will ensure discredited ideas unsupported by firm evidence are not promoted to new teachers. This will ensure that both university and school-led ITT courses are truly rigorous.*

DfE 2016d:16

There is a disconcerting suggestion here that ‘discredited ideas unsupported by firm evidence’ have thus far been promoted to student teachers. Given that up to 2011/12, higher education institutions were allocated 80% of training places, this would appear to be pointing the finger in a particular direction. While implicitly supporting the policy shift to ‘school-led’ provision, it perpetuates the idea that universities have somehow been getting it wrong and, in making no reference to partnership, undermines the foundation, at once academic, theoretical and practical, that emerges from a range of key players, such as universities and schools, working together. Clarke and Phelan (2017) note how such policy rhetoric reveals the low standing that government policymakers attribute to teachers and teacher educators, and suggest that such reference to using discredited ideas:

*not only reveals a pejorative view of teacher educators as promoters of particular viewpoints rather than facilitators of any viewpoint; it also positions teachers as non-critical dupes incapable of making their own informed judgements on educational arguments and debates.*

Clarke & Phelan, 2017:111
Furthermore, the intention outlined in the White Paper (HM Government, 2016) to introduce a peer-reviewed British education journal for teachers seems to undermine the many education journals already in existence and contributed to by those in teacher education within universities; though the precise focus of the proposed journal is yet to unfold, this potentially represents another missed opportunity to further develop partnership work and support collaboration among key players within initial teacher education. Similarly, the recent introduction of research schools by the Education Endowment Foundation, whilst promoting research-based practice in schools, may also diminish the research projects in schools that university colleagues have been engaged in, and further threaten effective partnerships. The joint BERA and RSA report on the role of research in teacher education (BERA & RSA, 2014:4) states that ‘Higher Education and the broader professional research community have an important role to play in the development of research-rich cultures in schools and colleges’. The report suggests that, ‘the need for this support is vital because of the well-documented pressures that teachers and school and college leaders operate under’, echoing points made earlier in this paper.

The government strategy holds up high-performing education systems in Finland, Germany and Japan as models to aspire to and, as noted in the White Paper (HM Government, 2016), is ‘unapologetic’ about ‘setting stretching goals’ to achieve world-class education. However, as the BERA interim report, *The Role of Research in Teacher Education* (BERA, 2014), indicates, in other high-performing education systems, for example in Finland and Singapore, there is a high degree of university involvement in teacher education, and a focus on research training for teachers. It might be argued that the success of an education system is dependent on a number of variables and ‘cherry picking’ specific elements to support a pre-decided ‘reform’ agenda is unlikely to reap the benefits that maintaining awareness of all variables together may ensure.

Without doubt, the new school-centred programmes of ITE (School Direct) have enhanced the
PGCE secondary partnership. The process of designing, writing and implementing new programmes in conjunction with school-based colleagues has provided an opportunity to synthesise strengths and build on the expertise of the university and its long tradition of educating teachers, as well as capitalising on the expertise of current practitioners in the classroom.

There have been many positive outcomes during the development of School Direct, including identifying new, creative ways of working with existing partners and fostering of new partners. The process has undoubtedly provided a tremendous opportunity for the university to maintain up-to-date contact with schools and sustain dialogue with staff about the current challenges confronting the profession. A shared understanding of the challenges and tensions that currently face both universities and schools has developed in relation to a range of issues, for example the demands and pressures that Ofsted and the relentless ‘pandemic’ of policy initiatives represent.

We value our current School Direct partnerships for their commitment to genuine partnership and their clear recognition of the contribution that the university makes to teacher education. A high proportion of our student teachers are employed in partnership schools. It is interesting to note, though, as ‘school-led’ provision continues to expand, partnership schools are demonstrating a greater degree of independence. There is much debate about the transfer of intellectual property as part of this transition.

In conclusion, the proverbial wheel is turning at an ever-faster pace but all in all, School Direct has offered the opportunity for new, creative and innovative ways of working. There are more changes afoot that will impact on partnership, not least with the suggestion that QTS may no longer be awarded at the end of the training year:

_In future, full accreditation will only be achieved after teachers have demonstrated their proficiency…over a sustained period in the classroom._

_HM Government, 2016:33_
The continued focus on school-led or university-led ITE masks the reality of effective partnership and the collaboration involved in the education of our teachers and potential future leaders. James Noble-Rogers, Executive Director of the Universities’ Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET), outlines a model of teacher education, developed by UCET and the National Association of School-Based Teacher Trainers as:

cohesive groups of schools, universities and others working together to meet the needs of the schools within those partnerships, with the needs of the wider school community met by drawing on research evidence and through adherence to national standards and requirements. These would be cohesive organisations with a shared vision and purpose, with no formal demarcation of roles and with access to shared resources. They would be answerable to a single governing authority that was made up of at least 50% of school colleagues. In that way, the teacher education programmes, which would involve a continuum of ITE and early and ongoing professional development, would by definition be ‘schools-led’. Such partnerships would be stable and large enough to meet the immediate and longer term supply needs of the whole country.

Noble-Rogers, 2015 [online]

Our secondary partnership supports such a model, reflecting the way we aspire to work together as collaborative professionals who each have particular expertise to contribute. Thus we might suggest that the term ‘partnership-led’ better describes the reality of our provision than ‘school-led’ or ‘university-led’ and avoids the oppositional discourse that such terminology perpetuates.

References


Chapter 8: The art of teaching: linking values, behaviour and thought

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Introduction

Effective teaching is based on behaviours and thinking processes that assess learning, break down subject knowledge, engage learners and manage the classroom. The values of the individual teacher contribute to education because they influence, alongside training and culture, behaviours and thinking both in the classroom, in the school or academy, and online. Aspirations to neutrality in education are unfulfilled because although the words related to values can be left unsaid, the behaviours of the teacher are still present. Values held by individuals cannot be assumed, because they involve complex interconnection between sometimes contradictory beliefs. The process of values formation in teachers is therefore an important part of an education system. The importance of the values held by the teacher (Carroll & Alexander, 2016) is acknowledged in the professional standards agenda as well as being evident in pedagogical and curriculum debates. Some values, such as tolerance, are required to be promoted by teachers (DfE, 2013) while others, for example those relating to interpretation of pupil behaviour, depend on individual beliefs (Bennett, 2010).

There is consensus that the values of teachers cannot and should not be neutral (Kelly & Brandes, 2001) because the learning process requires ongoing decision-making in a relationship between professional and learner. Teachers are also required to teach values explicitly through new curricula designs and schemes of work (Halstead, 2010; Brady, 2011), adding a further level of professional formation. The faith foundations of the Cathedrals Group of universities provide a framework in which professional values and requirements can be explored, discussed and developed as part
of a process of formation. This formation requires self-awareness in order for the individual teacher to challenge her/his own thoughts against values. Without the framework and an agreed process of formation, teaching and learning are impoverished.

Educational reform of the last 30 years has changed the relationship between learner and teacher in ways that mirror societal change: technologically, relationally and economically (Sturges, 2015). The process by which learning in a knowledge-based economy becomes commodified impacts on teachers and teaching in ways that highlight the values that underpin education. As the rate of reform increases in response to globalisation, the need for teachers to form a strong set of values through professional training and education becomes more important. The concept that the development of a teacher’s values is part of human and professional formation indicates the presence of a conscious pedagogy that needs to be sited and made accessible. Furthermore, the ongoing formation of a teacher’s values plays an essential part in enabling children and young people to learn. Although the reform process is reducing the autonomy of the teacher, judgements are still made in the classroom about pedagogy, use of resources, behaviour etc. These judgements, made during every lesson, require values that support consistency and integrity whilst taking into account the unique human needs of each learner. The values of the teacher therefore underpin the judgements, relationships and environment that allow learning to take place. The formation of those values has been at the heart of teacher education in the Cathedrals Group of universities. The success of the Cathedrals Group in grounding the education of teachers in agreed and established principles and values has supported a level of sustainable progress in schools over a long period of time.

In a society focused increasingly on the individual (Elliott & Lemert, 2007), the lack of consensus around ethics in public life requires the values of any profession to be more explicitly articulated through the work of the professional. Individualism has also changed the process of values formation, with wider societal influences on thoughts and behaviours reducing.
Whilst some concepts of values are enshrined in the current Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2013), deeper engagement with philosophies and faith are required for the teacher to develop a career that contributes to an education system through which humans can flourish and societies progress. Throughout their career, teachers need to keep asking philosophical questions about education as experienced on a daily basis and at its most immediate; for example, why they are in the classroom with up to 30 young people. Without an answer to those fundamental questions arrived at through ongoing formation and reflection on values related to philosophy and/or faith, a teacher may find that she/he is putting into practice the latest educational fad or scheme of work sold to the profession or to an individual school as providing ‘the answer’ to the needs of all children or young people. Knowing that there has never been, and will never be, one answer to meeting the needs of all learners whether in a subject or across an age group is an important starting point for reflection at a time when education is becoming commodified and marketised.

Choosing one educational commodity from a range on offer will undermine education at a classroom, school, multi-academy trust and national level. Resisting making a choice for a one-size-fits-all educational commodity, and seeking a balance of approaches based on values formed and reflected on over time, allow teachers to engage with individuals and groups of learners at a depth necessary for effective education.

Values and the moral purpose of education

At the heart of education lies a relationship that is intrinsically moral (Fullan, 2001). The individual teacher possesses knowledge, skills and understanding that are desired by the learner or desired for the learner by the family or society. Taking on knowledge, skills and understanding is a transformational process that contributes to the development of the human. Denying access to knowledge, skills and understanding through poor teaching or uninterest in a specific topic or subject creates a barrier to human development. The values of teaching are therefore connected to concepts of vocation, sacrifice and commitment.
The commodity of learning requires not just choice and access but the giving of time and expertise by another, expressed through relationship. In the act of giving, the teacher makes her- or himself vulnerable in a way that requires values formed over time. These values of sacrifice and commitment support a view of teaching as both vocational and professional.

Whilst acknowledging vulnerability in giving to the learner, teachers are also required to act as authority figures in the classroom and school. Society that promotes a level of choice extending to issues of morality expects concepts of right and wrong to be taught by teachers and chooses to hold schools to account through high-stakes inspection frameworks. Through changes to the focus of inspection, different values can be emphasised, giving the impression of a level of impermanence that can undermine education without the mediation of teachers. For example, the introduction in 2007 of the inspection of a school’s responsibility for community cohesion was followed, in 2014, by a change to a focus on the promotion of fundamental British values, indicating a politicisation of values in schools that falsely suggested moral neutrality in teachers that goes beyond a lack of autonomy.

**The formation of the professional in a values-based university**

Values that were part of a student teacher’s own formative education then become apparent through her/his work, behaviours and commitment. The complex relationship between transmission, conformity, self-fulfilment and human development defies the commodification that characterises the aims of current reforms. Curriculum packages labelled as ‘character education’, ‘citizenship’, ‘values education’ and ‘personal, social, moral and cultural education’ suggest a learning process that exists separately from the engagement of the individual with her/his wider society. However, it is only through reflection on the values encountered in wider society that the learner, at any age, can begin to engage with ideas in the classroom.

In the early stage of their careers, student teachers manage their professional identity alongside other existing or developing identities.
By acknowledging her/his values, the student teacher is able to form a new identity that is consistent with other identities and, if necessary, reform other identities in order to maintain personal integrity. Without an emphasis on values, the professional identity lacks the depth necessary to sustain and develop effective classroom relationships.

**Identifying values in the teaching profession**

The 2013 Teachers’ Standards speak of putting the education of pupils first (DfE, 2013), implying that other considerations come second. What the other things may be is not stated, but the statement suggests values linked to selflessness and sacrifice. This notion of sacrifice is present in the teachings of the world’s major faiths and also in humanism but not in the secular cultures of a wider consumer society. Values associated with the Christian gospels include a concept of service based not on an approach to learners as customers but as service to children and young people as unique human beings in families and communities. Jesus describes Himself as having a mission to serve (Mark 10:45), an idea emphasised by St Paul in his letters (Philippians 1:4, 2:6). The Cathedrals Group shares Christian foundations and therefore commitment to, and deep understanding of service to others. Our faculties have a service to students who in turn are formed in the values of service to the wider communities. The teachers we educate and train benefit from an understanding of service that enables the Teachers’ Standards to be met and critically engaged with through a depth of commitment to children and young people.

The tension between different value systems mirrors the issues facing teachers in achieving a work–life balance while fulfilling their vocation. The decreasing retention rate of teachers in the UK is evidence of the difficulties faced by teachers with both school commitments and external (often family) commitments, all of which relate to a concept of vocation. The focus of courses at Cathedrals Group universities on both professional and human formation supports student teachers in exploring the balance that enriches both their teaching and their lives of service to others. The courses aim to provide a professional identity that is neither taken on nor abandoned lightly.
In this way, the Cathedrals Group plays an important role nationally in providing teachers who are able to live out their values and commitment in a modern educational workplace.

In putting pupils first, teachers acknowledge the intrinsic worth of every human being. In societies that are becoming more divided, the teacher’s modelling of inclusivity and fairness in the classroom needs to be more explicit. The short-hand labels used in schools and wider society define learners through distinct group identities including SEN(D) children, EAL pupils, the low-ability table, the Deaf children, the autistic, migrants. In wider society, people are also labelled by wealth, fame, race, ethnicity, sexuality and, in the UK, class. Teachers holding values relating to the intrinsic worth of the individual (whether as an individual or in relationship with others and/or a transcendent God) are challenged to reflect their values in the language used about learners. If every human has worth, no label should come before the words ‘child’, ‘children’ or ‘pupil’. The learner may be ‘a child with special educational needs’ but should not be a ‘SEN child’. The use of labels in schools as short-hand is commonplace but can be challenged by students modelling their own values and, within the university setting, questioning any differential provision. By allowing space outside the classroom to explore the importance of language, Cathedrals Group universities support student teachers in basing their high expectations of children on deep values that underpin pedagogical approaches.

Seeing the worth of a child or young person who most of the time is compliant and positive is relatively straightforward. In order to reflect on the depth of values held, teachers need to consider their behaviours in response to a child or young person who defies authority, disrupts lessons or is being aggressive. The teacher education of Cathedrals Group universities enables teachers to maintain values by de-personalising, reflecting and responding in ways that separate the person from the behaviour.

The Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2013) also require teachers to have honesty and integrity, both of which require careful formation in the context of competing pressures. These two values are key for the trust necessary for a learning relationship to occur. Honesty is
required to prevent deceit either for financial gain or status through the exploitation of the learner’s desire to learn. The learner needs to trust that the teacher is acting in her/his best interest rather than for selfish or institutional reasons. Learners also need to know that institutional rules and sanctions will be applied fairly as part of the teacher’s honest approach. Honesty and integrity in the Teachers’ Standards are therefore rooted in the gospel values of justice, love and reconciliation. Bringing together up to 30 young people, all day, every day, in a space the size of a suburban lounge inevitably leads to disagreements and conflict. The teacher requires not only expertise, and behaviour management and leadership skills, but also an explicit articulation and modelling of deeply held values upon which trust can be built. Until trust is established, learning is inhibited. Acknowledging and meeting the needs of the individual learner within educational systems, whether at class-, school- or multi-academy level, requires sophisticated leadership of learning. Cathedrals Group teacher education courses from initial teacher education, through Master’s-level accredited continuing professional development (CPD), to doctoral study, allow students the space and time to explore how the values of honesty and integrity co-exist in the pedagogy and classroom management of the individual professional in order for learning to be led, modelled and facilitated.

The promotion of tolerance and respect for the law relates to the importance placed on democracy as the fundamental embodiment of a country’s values. If professionals are required to promote specific values in the classroom, and schools and academies are held accountable for that promotion through inspection, student teachers need the opportunities to reflect upon their own values in both the planning and evaluation of lessons.

The Cathedrals Group and the ongoing formation of values

Many students enter university with a commitment to concepts such as social justice and inclusion. The faith foundations of the Cathedrals Group encourages students to reflect upon the challenges to their professional integrity when the reality of school classrooms or their own practice
deviates from the values with which they identify. Through initial teacher education courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate level, students have opportunities to consider the implementation and outcomes of pedagogies in the light of their own values. Where contradictions arise, students are supported in working through their response as part of professional formation. In designing courses in line with institutional values, the Cathedrals Group supports its students’ formation and the values embedded in the education system.

Within faculties and schools of education, members of the Cathedrals Group hold significant levels of expertise through academics who, alongside teaching and research, undertake the specialised role of tutoring in the professional setting of the classroom. The universities’ staff play a crucial role in supporting students and teachers to make the links between pedagogy and values (Olmstead, 2007). This work often takes place through a review of a student’s planning and also before and after lesson observations. The pedagogical discussion between student teacher, class teacher and tutor moves beyond completion of pro-formas to deeper considerations of how the development of professional behaviours impacts on the relationship between the values the individual brings to the classroom and the ethos of the school.

Outside the university, classroom, staffroom and home, teachers’ values can also be formed, articulated and developed online. Although we may overestimate the numbers of new teachers using social media, those that do network online encounter argument and debate that require engagement and reflection that speak to and draw upon the values of the individual. The connection between online behaviour and values is complicated by the limitations of the media being used. It is far easier to cause offence online, for example by appearing intolerant, than it is in the physical space of a staffroom where the presence of people and non-verbal communication creates context. By engaging with online networks, experienced teachers and tutors from Cathedrals Group ITE partnerships can model values-based professional interactions where debate is rooted in respect.
Looking to the future: developing a profession of hope

The gospel value that has not yet been mentioned in this article has been left until the end because it belongs to a consideration of the way forward. In times of significant reform and change, the Cathedrals Group has engaged with successive proposals and policies through a commitment to the concept of hope. In the same way, irrespective of the wider education debates, teachers are called to engage with change in an ongoing consideration of learners’ interests that reflects a hope in a future of increased human fulfilment through education.

The focus on the development of resilience in the profession, as evidenced by the title of the 2014 BBC television series Tough Young Teachers, fails to identify the value of hope as underpinning our resilience. Retention and recruitment crises are not caused by a lack of resilience but an absence of hope. The thousands of teachers who enter the profession each year from the Cathedrals Group are emerging from institutions whose foundations, heritage, practices, policies and strategic development are centred on the hope of human formation and transformation through education. Our graduates carry that hope into their professional careers as a fundamental value upon which to base their own development and their engagement with children and young people. Without a values-base, a teacher’s ability to contribute to human flourishing is diminished and our society is impoverished.

References


Chapter 9: Realistic clinical practice: proposing an enquiry-based pedagogy for teacher education

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There is a broad international consensus that quality of teaching is fundamental for the development of high-quality schools and educational systems. In this chapter I will argue that teacher education as a sector, particularly in England, would be strengthened considerably by adopting an explicit pedagogy. The meaning of the term ‘pedagogy’ varies considerably between languages and cultures and for the purposes of this chapter and locating my argument primarily within England, I will adopt Alexander’s definition:

*Pedagogy is the act of teaching together with its attendant discourse. It is what one needs to know, and the skills one needs to command, in order to make and justify the many different kinds of decisions of which teaching is constituted.*

*Alexander, 2004:11*

Working within this definition, it is important to note that Alexander positions ‘curriculum’ as subsidiary to pedagogy but as one of its central domains.

I propose that providers of teacher education adopt and work towards implementing an explicit pedagogy for initial teacher education (ITE) based on the ‘clinical practice’ model but that this is adapted to become the ‘realistic clinical practice’ model. This proposed pedagogy for teacher education resolves some of the misunderstandings that policymakers and other stakeholders have held when applying the ‘clinical practice’ model to the field of teacher education.

**Context**

In recent times in England, the structures for ITE have been changed considerably with a shift towards a school-led system. To some varying extent, this shift is also occurring internationally, but
sometimes the claims to rapid and radical policy change say more about the fragile egos and career development ambitions of superficial and careless policymakers than they do about change in practice. Considering recent changes in England from the perspective of student teachers, then to some extent perhaps the changes might seem superficial. In this chapter, I will argue that it is more important to focus on the pedagogy for teacher education than to imagine that a change in the structure of ITE will provide a 'magic bullet' that recruits, educates and prepares new teachers to become high-quality professionals who are retained within the state school system to become lifelong professional learners and educational leaders.

One of the political reasons why the English system for ITE has been vulnerable to radical change in structure by policymakers, particularly since 2010, is that despite strong evidence from research and even from government inspectors in favour of the existing university–school partnership programmes, there was no explicit and widely held pedagogy for teacher education. This lack of an explicit pedagogy allowed a simplistic view, expressed by the then Secretary of State for Education, that teaching is simply learned by ‘doing’ (Gove, 2010), so that increasing the time spent by student teachers on work-based learning, observing and teaching in school, will be sufficient to increase the quality of teacher preparation. An additional issue was that the existing partnerships seemed unbalanced, at least to school-based participants, in terms of the share of resources, the share of control and the share of professional learning outcomes (Boyd, 2002). In this chapter, I am proposing adoption of an explicit pedagogy for teacher education that will help us to refocus away from concerns about changes in structure towards the primary shared purpose of all those involved in ITE, which is to develop a sufficient supply of beginners who are able to provide high-quality lessons and become professional career teachers.

Most student teachers, often currently referred to as ‘trainees’ in England to reflect the emphasis on work-based learning, still experience a mixture of two broad learning activities. First, they experience work-based learning through observing and supporting learning and teaching in classrooms and schools, and...
second they experience formal professional development workshop sessions that introduce elements of learning theory, research evidence and professional guidance. The move towards a school-led system mainly appears to have shifted the balance of time spent on these two kinds of learning activity towards more work-based learning, although most one-year postgraduate partnership programmes already involved at least 50% of time on work-based learning. The shift to a school-led system also appears to have reduced the amount of contact time that some student teachers spend with university-based teacher educators, as they now have more of their formal sessions facilitated by school-based practitioners. A third key characteristic of teacher education within the school-led system is that it has fragmented provision into smaller local units based in schools or alliances of schools, which makes it more difficult to generalise about the nature of provision.

Having provided some context and established that adopting some kind of explicit pedagogy for teacher education would be politically useful in the future, there are four further steps in the argument presented here. First, that adopting ‘clinical practice’ as an explicit pedagogical approach is an ambitious but pragmatic choice for teacher education. Second, that there are weaknesses in the clinical practice model and in its interpretation by some stakeholders so that it requires some modification. Third, that it is possible to specify these required modifications and capture them by adopting the title of ‘realistic clinical practice’ for a proposed pedagogical approach. Fourth and finally, the practical implications are outlined for further development of school-led ITE that adopts ‘realistic clinical practice’ as a pedagogy, in terms of the teacher educator team, the organisation of programmes and the issue of partnership between schools and a university department.

Characteristics and weaknesses of the clinical practice model

The clinical practice model highlights clinical reasoning based on ‘research evidence’ (Kriewaldt & Turnidge, 2013). A clinical practice pedagogical approach recognises schools and classrooms as key sites for work-based learning through ‘enactment’ of the core
practices of a teacher, meaning that student teachers need to teach in order to learn to teach (Grossman, Hammerness & McDonald, 2009). A clinical practice approach therefore places high value on teacher judgement and practical wisdom and this means that as a pedagogy for teacher education, it respects the knowledge of practitioners. Such an approach focuses on the core practices of teachers; these are the high-leverage practices that are proposed as the central spine of the teacher education curriculum. High-leverage practices are those that are essential for effective teaching. Focusing on high-leverage practices means judgement and action become central: ‘Such a curriculum would not settle for developing teachers’ beliefs and commitments. Because the knowledge that matters most is that which is used in practice’ (Ball & Forzani, 2011:19).

Student teachers are likely to value this approach because they are understandably focused on practical advice and how to survive in the classroom. A clinical practice approach, however, goes beyond ‘tips for teachers’ and creates a focus on children’s learning by requiring student teachers to question these core practices in depth, in order to understand ‘why’ they lead to learning. Enactment, in a clinical practice model, is judged by impact on learning (Hattie, 2012) and on learners (Boyd, Hymer & Lockney, 2015). This in-depth enquiry provides the depth of knowledge and professional enquiry skills required so that student teachers can judge new situations and strategies in the future and in different schools, make sound professional choices and be able to evaluate their classroom experimentation. Such professional enquiry involves critical engagement with learning theory and educational research evidence. Student teachers need to experience coherent sequences of professional enquiry built around enactment.

The clinical practice model positions teachers as researchers and it is worth noting that this proposition was articulated by Lawrence Stenhouse, based on his work with teachers leading curriculum development in UK schools more than 40 years ago (Stenhouse, 1975). In their comprehensive review of clinical practice models in teacher education, Katharine Burn and Trevor Mutton position...
the Oxford Internship Scheme as an early example of a clinical practice model (McIntyre, 1980, 1997). Unfortunately some of the key principles and practical arrangements identified within this small-scale university–schools partnership were not embedded more widely in the development of the systems for teacher education across the UK, although recent developments in Scotland have adopted the model explicitly (Livingston & Shiach, 2010; Conroy, Hulme & Menter, 2013). Internationally there are well-established examples of teacher education based on a clinical practice model, although arguably the only example of a national system of teacher education and development aligned to a clinical practice model with ‘teachers as researchers’ is in Finland (Sahlberg, 2011). Development of teacher education in the Netherlands has contributed significantly to wider international understanding of clinical-practice-based teacher education (Hammerness van Tartwijk & Snoek, 2012) and recent developments in Australia also provide strong examples (McLean Davies et al., 2013). Development of a range of innovative schemes in the USA led eventually to the publication of a national strategy for teacher education based on a clinical practice model (NCATE, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010). It is perhaps the strategic scaling up of clinical practice models across national teacher education systems that has proved a challenging next step following its establishment in innovative individual university–school partnerships.

There are some weaknesses in the way that a clinical practice model for teacher education has been understood by some observers and policymakers. A very useful overview and critique is provided by Philpott (2014), who identifies some key challenges to the adoption of the model. I am perhaps more optimistic about the possibilities for resolving the key issues. To some extent the term ‘clinical practice’ itself is now somewhat unhelpful because it is associated with naive assumptions about ‘evidence-based’ practice both in the field of medicine itself, as well as, more importantly, for our purposes in the field of teaching. A helpful way to understand the key issue is to distinguish between the field of ‘medicine’, in
which evidence-based practice based on good science seems a reasonable ambition, and the field of ‘healthcare’, which is a complex, multi-paradigm professional field in which striving towards research-informed practice is a more realistic aim. A clinical practice approach in teacher education places value on theory and research evidence, but has previously been too strongly associated with a simplistic, top-down ‘evidence-based’ understanding of educational research and of change in practice. This view of clinical practice places too much weight on large-scale, quasi-experimental intervention studies, and underestimates the complexity, varied contexts and relationships involved in effective education and the interdisciplinary and multi-paradigm nature of educational research. It does not capture the significance of workplace learning and teachers’ practical wisdom and neglects the possibility for knowledge creation by teacher researchers in schools. In the next section I propose that a more ‘realistic’ clinical practice model is appropriate for the field of teaching, and by extension perhaps also for the field of healthcare.

**Realistic views of teachers’ professional knowledge**

A strong and explicit drive to develop ‘research-informed’ practice is required to counter the ‘evidence-based’ bias within clinical practice discourses. All participants need to critically engage with this debate and have a reasonable understanding of different ways of knowing in education.

Traditional conceptualisations of top-down views of professional learning (learn theory then apply it) and bottom-up views (socialisation and apprenticeship) may both suffer from positioning themselves solely on a vertical dimension of professional knowledge (Engestrom, Engestrom & Karkkainen, 1995). This ignores the significance of the horizontal dimension of practical wisdom, the situated, socially held knowledge of practitioners about ‘ways of working’ within their particular workplace. The conception of ‘interplay’ between these two vertical and horizontal dimensions of knowledge provides a useful metaphor for teachers’ professional learning and is illustrated in Figure 8.1 (Boyd, 2014; Boyd & Bloxham, 2014; Boyd, Hymer & Lockney, 2015).
The adoption of professional learning as ‘interplay’ between vertical and horizontal domains challenges teacher education programmes to devise learning activities that provide space and support for student teacher enquiry that goes beyond the scope of much current practice that emphasises ‘reflection on practice’. Interplay requires student teachers to identify and critically evaluate relevant public knowledge (i.e., theoretical frameworks and bodies of research evidence) as part of their analysis of classroom evidence of children’s learning and of the impact they are having as a teacher both on learning and on learners.

In addition to consideration of the horizontal domain of teacher knowledge, it is also important that a ‘realistic’ clinical practice approach acknowledges the complexity of the vertical knowledge domain in the field of teaching (and for that matter in the field of medicine). Education
as a field is interdisciplinary (involving elements of philosophy, history, psychology and sociology) but it is also multi-paradigmatic. The term 'multi-paradigm' applied to the professional field of teaching or education is in contrast for example to the natural sciences, which are much easier to consider as single-paradigm disciplines. A student teacher might consider a typical classroom problem that she/he encounters, such as frequent low-level off-task ‘misbehaviour’ of children, from a range of different perspectives, all with their own supporting research ‘evidence-base’. Also within the evidence-base there will be quantitative and qualitative research to be considered, as well as the possibility of co-creation of knowledge through practitioner research. This complex context means that for teachers or other school leaders to depend too heavily on randomised control trial evidence alone is a naive and very limiting engagement with public knowledge – and yet this is sometimes the impression that advocates of a ‘clinical practice model’ seem to imply. Adopting the term ‘realistic’ is in part a reminder of this need to move from the assumptions suggesting that teachers might ‘deliver evidence-based practice’ to the approach that teachers are expected to ‘develop research-informed practice’.

There are at least two additional complexities around teacher knowledge and expertise that require us to adapt a basic clinical practice model to become ‘realistic’ teacher education pedagogy. Teachers need to develop curriculum subject knowledge as part of their initial teacher education and of their continuing professional development. They need to develop pedagogical content knowledge, meaning how best to teach key concepts and skills within a curriculum subject discipline (Shulman, 1986). We know that enthusiasm and commitment to a curriculum subject discipline form an important element of the identity, commitment and resilience of many successful career teachers (Day & Gu, 2014). A more contested area of teacher knowledge development is that beginning teachers should develop some understanding of the wider social context in which they are working, including the community, their workplace and the relevant policy framework. Beginning
teachers need to critically consider and articulate the purposes of education (Biesta, 2010).

And so we should briefly consider the implications of this discussion of teacher knowledge. A realistic clinical practice approach to teacher education requires teacher educators who have ongoing involvement and credibility in both practical wisdom (school and classroom competence and contribution to curriculum development) and public knowledge development (scholarly and research contribution to publication). All teacher educators would need to be boundary-crossing agents between the overlapping fields of school teaching and educational research and be able to produce boundary-crossing objects (such as a professional guidance session or learning resource for student teachers that includes elements of practical wisdom and public knowledge). A realistic clinical practice approach requires a teacher educator who is an effective school classroom teacher and is able to provide classroom coaching of student teachers informed by practical wisdom within a particular school context. It also requires a teacher educator who is able to support student teacher investigation of their enactment using enquiry approaches that include critical engagement with theory, research evidence, professional guidance and policy. A few teacher educators currently manage to sustain identities and work as both expert school teacher and research-active academic, but this is rare and extremely challenging. An alternative is for student teachers to be supported by a team of teacher educators with varying areas and levels of expertise. This team approach is also useful because it allows for teacher educators to follow a trajectory of professional development with more or less emphasis on practical wisdom and public knowledge at different stages of their career. For school-based teacher educators, the challenges include time, access to resources and access to a research mentor. For university-based teacher educators, the challenges include time, the value placed by research audit on published outputs of collaborative practitioner research projects and access to expert school-based teachers and their classroom practice.
In this section, I have argued for the adoption of the term ‘realistic’ clinical practice from the perspective of current understanding of the complexity of teacher knowledge and identified the implications for teacher educator teams. The next section will support the adoption of realistic clinical practice from the related perspective of teacher education programme design.

Realistic views of professional learning sequences

There are some well-established examples of teacher education programmes informed by a clinical practice model and some important lessons have been learned, primarily that school-based and university-based teacher educators need to cooperate closely to plan and facilitate the experience of student teachers. There needs to be a carefully planned sequence of enquiry-based learning activities for beginning teachers so that they are not overwhelmed by the complexity of the role. The student teachers need a regular sequence of opportunities for enactment in the classroom but also for stepping back to analyse their experiences and develop their practice in relation to public knowledge (Burn & Mutton, 2013; McIntyre, 1997; Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005). Each professional enquiry sequence might involve negotiation of a focus, planning (informed by critical engagement), enactment (supported by coaching), collection of evidence, analysis (informed by critical engagement), and action-planning for further enactment. Professional enquiry sequences will often overlap or run in parallel, but the student must experience them as distinctive but interrelated. Such a programme should build around the agreed core practices of a teacher, which would need to be agreed by teacher educators across a teacher training partnership (Grossman, Hammerness & McDonald, 2009; Ball & Forzani, 2009, 2010). It is important that these core practices are learned through enactment within specific curriculum subject areas. ‘It may be that sequencing the study of disciplinary knowledge with the study of learning and teaching may be more fruitful than treating these subjects separately’ (Ball & Forzani, 2010:11). Within the framework of core practices, however, a programme needs to be
sufficiently flexible to allow beginning teachers to bring their own experiences of enactment to the table. One element of the rationale for adopting the term ‘realistic’ clinical practice is to also allow some element of student teacher choice of focus at different times on the programme (Korthagen, 2011).

A programme using realistic clinical practice as a pedagogy for teacher education needs to provide graded sequences of learning activity involving student teachers in enactment in their school and classroom with associated time for collaborative enquiry work within a ‘third space’ that allows explicit and critical consideration of tensions between practical wisdom and public knowledge (Jackson & Burch, 2016). The development across the teacher educator team and student teachers of a common language for discussion of issues and a shared understanding of a realistic clinical practice approach need to be developed. It is important to note that within such a programme, the teacher educator team and the student teachers should not expect any kind of easy consensus to be reached and that all ideas will be evaluated against criteria valued in both school and university contexts (McIntyre, 1990:32). School-based programmes offer considerable opportunities for such learning sequences to be constructed, excepting that the busy and child-focused intensity of work means that other priorities may take precedence (Boyd & Tibke, 2012). There is limited research evidence at this early stage of policy implementation, but the fragmentation of school-led teacher education in England (small numbers in student groups, multiple providers and multiple geographical sites) appears to create considerable practical and perhaps funding challenges that need to be resolved.

An advantage of school-led ITE is that it more clearly locates student teachers within a particular school setting so that their informal work-based learning is more likely to include becoming a recognised member of a teaching team and of a professional learning community. This has advantages for schools because they more clearly experience the continuity of gaining a member of staff as a resource, even if the student teacher carries an entitlement to support and training. The common university-
based programme approach of sending student teachers on block placements of several weeks is potentially more disruptive for schools and may be experienced by them more as a cost rather than as any kind of benefit. Block placements in school do not lend themselves to a realistic clinical practice approach because the student teacher does not experience coherent sequences of enactment with built-in time for enquiry. Perhaps a compromise would be for students to be paired as a job-share, with students A and B based in a school. On a one-year programme, they would start in school on day one of the school year as a job-share with the position of untrained teaching assistant. As they progress through the programme, their status would become trained teaching assistant, and subsequently that of unqualified teacher. Student A would be working in school on Mondays, Tuesdays and Wednesdays, with Thursdays and Fridays as time for their formal sessions in a third space. Student B would also work in school on Wednesdays, allowing paired collaborative working and handover, and would then work in the school on Thursdays and Fridays. An arrangement of this kind allows the school to experience an additional trainee member of staff and for student teachers to experience the sequences of enactment and enquiry required by a realistic clinical practice pedagogical approach. This kind of arrangement aligns with thinking around higher level apprenticeships.

The reality of work-based learning for student teachers is that the culture and routines of workplaces vary considerably and schools responsible for teacher education need to develop expansive workplace learning environments in which the everyday informal learning of teachers is valued and nurtured alongside the learning of pupils (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005). Whatever a programme offers in terms of sophisticated planned sequences of learning activity, it will also need to respond to the individual and collective experiences of the student teachers as adult learners and to the variation in schools as workplaces. This need for flexibility, recognised by Korthagen (2011), is an additional justification for adopting the term ‘realistic’ clinical practice to capture a pedagogical approach that acknowledges the variation
in workplace experiences and individual needs of student teachers.

No matter what solution to timing and the creation of third space is adopted by an initial teacher education programme, the key issue is for the student teacher to experience supported learning activity sequences of enactment and enquiry, with some allowance for the inclusion of student teacher selected focus, leading to overall progression.

**Conclusion**

The adoption of a ‘realistic clinical practice’ approach offers an explicit pedagogy for teacher education that focuses on the interplay between practical wisdom and public knowledge, that recognises the value of workplace learning, but prepares student teachers to contribute to that during their career through the development of research-informed practice. A ‘realistic clinical practice’ approach offers a feasible strategic direction for school-led initial teacher education. The practical implications of such an approach suggest that continued forms of equitable partnership by schools with university departments are likely to be essential if teacher educators are to be supported in their own continuing professional development and if programmes are to achieve sustained high quality.

In making this proposal for explicit adoption of ‘realistic clinical practice’, I would argue that the next time a ‘wannabe radical’ minister for education decides to rearrange the deckchairs in teacher education, the sector will be in a stronger political position to steer the enthusiasm of the minister in more useful and meaningful directions by having a widely accepted and clearly labelled, through still dynamic and contested, pedagogy for teacher education. Meanwhile, in England as elsewhere, those of us with a long-term commitment to the sector will focus on strengthening the school-led system to ensure that it is not part of a dumbing-down of teacher education and avoids contributing to the reduction of the crucial and challenging role of professional school teacher to become a technician who merely ‘delivers’ the curriculum in compliance with centrally controlled ‘evidence-based’ guidance.
References


Chapter 10: Accredited academic professional development for teachers
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Summary
In this chapter, the case for the accredited academic professional development of teachers in defended. The commitment of universities to this model is affirmed in the context of current uncertainties about the future direction of initial teacher education (ITE) and continuing professional development (CPD). The high value placed on accredited academic professional development for teachers in Singapore and Finland is discussed, and some examples of accredited programmes that are successful at Canterbury Christ Church University are considered, including the Teach First PGCE, the Master’s in transformational leadership and the Doctorate in education. The view that England needs a dynamic model of teacher professionalism is given. Some of the differences in the Finnish and Singaporean contexts are noted. Some initiatives that may be more suited to England as a larger and more diverse country are described. In conclusion, several policy recommendations are made.

Introduction
To say that the arrangements for meeting the initial and continuing professional development needs of teachers are in transition in England is something of an understatement. We have a proliferation of routes into teaching that may or may not include an academic qualification. Whilst it is accepted that teaching should be a graduate-entry profession, there is no consensus about the importance, or otherwise, of academic qualifications as part of ITE. Qualified teacher status (QTS) is formally under review: who should be the gatekeepers of the profession, and when and how they should confirm entry into it, are all under discussion. The development of apprenticeship routes into teaching adds further complexity to the picture by opening up new questions about how far employer-led models of training can and should go.
The national picture regarding CPD is just as complex. For example, the arrangements for the provision of national qualifications for school leaders are in transition towards greater local ownership as the role of the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) diminishes. Meanwhile, chartered teaching status is under development by the new, independent Chartered College of Teaching. One form of decentralisation is countered by a new, if different kind of centralising initiative. Despite occasional positive noises from government about the idea of teaching as a Master’s-level profession, there is little evidence in policy or funding terms of meaningful support.

In this complex context, there is an unresolved tension between what is and will in future be driven, provided or promoted by central government and what is and will be determined and provided locally, regionally or nationally by the school-led system and other organisations acting independently of government. There is no clear consensus about how to determine what teachers should know, understand and be able to do, or how and when they should learn it. Anyone trying to contribute to current or future provision sits in an uncomfortably shifting space partly controlled by government directives but partly left open to market forces and initiatives which may come from the leaders of groups of schools, universities, private providers, faith communities or special interest groups, with varied business interests, motivations and value sets.

Universities have made their very substantial contribution to ITE and the continuing professional development of teachers using models in which accredited academic qualifications are integral. Spaces have been created for studying education theory, for conducting research to generate evidence for practice, and for both social and reflective forms of learning away from the school classroom, as well as for intensive practice. Many would connect this approach to a model of teacher professionalism centred on providing teachers with the resources needed to be innovative in practice, critical about practice and to become professionally resilient.
Accredited academic professional development in Singapore and Finland

In this context, it is interesting to consider the attitudes to accredited academic professional development of the ministries of education in two countries much feted in our national discourses about education because of their OECD rankings: Singapore and Finland.

In Singapore, the standard postgraduate initial training programme is now an enhanced and extended 16-month postgraduate diploma (PGDip) in education. This typically includes education studies, curriculum studies, practicum, and language enhancement and academic discourse skills.¹

The Academy of Singapore Teachers is structured in two branches with clearly defined roles:

**The key role of the Standards and Research [SR] Branch is to build a strong system to lead and strengthen the professional ethos, establish professional teaching standards, create and preserve knowledge, and drive relevant education research to inform the work of the Academy and the Education Service.**

The SR Branch is also responsible for putting in place a process of professional recognition which includes accreditation and appointment of teacher-leaders to the Teaching Track and the presentation of national-level awards related to the teaching profession. Through the establishment of professional networks, the SR Branch will seek to promote a teacher-led culture of professional excellence and build teachers’ sense of identity as professionals through career-long relationships.

The Professional Development (PD) Branch takes charge of the professional development of all officers in the Ministry of Education. It is responsible for spearheading the development and implementation of flagship programmes of the Academy. It will work on enhancing professional learning through teacher collaboration via the Professional Learning Communities.

Academy of Singapore Teachers [online]

The Academy of Singapore Teachers provides a rich network of subject-, interest- and role-based networked learning communities, and a wide range of professional development programmes, including a set specifically designed to promote critical enquiry (Figure 9.1).

Some striking features of the system include:

- the commitment to improving ITE by extending the requirements of the academic qualification
- the clear evidence that academic as well as professional skills are valued, alongside the acquisition of the relevant professional knowledge
- the comprehensive role of the academy as a national body, which allows it both to integrate work on educational ethos, research and standards, and to facilitate and resource a teacher-led system centred on a theory-, practice- and research-informed model of reflective practice.

The commitment to accredited academic professional development goes even further in Finland:
Teachers in Finland are highly trained. In general education all teachers are required [to have] a Master’s degree…The high level of training is seen as necessary as teachers in Finland are very autonomous professionally…Pre-primary teachers in schools hold a Master’s degree.

Finnish National Agency for Education [online]

Teacher training can be either concurrent, with pedagogical training integrated into the Master’s programme, or consecutive, with the pedagogical training completed after the initial degree. The latter is the case for example in vocational teacher education. The consecutive model also serves those who decide on a teaching career later:

At most levels of education teachers are required to participate in in-service training every year. Finnish teachers consider in-service training to be a privilege and therefore participate actively.

In-service training is offered by different providers. The state funds in-service training programmes, primarily in areas important for implementing education policy and reforms. Education providers can also apply for funding to improve the professional competence of their teaching personnel.

ibid.

What we might notice here includes:

- the uncompromising commitment to a Master’s-level profession explicitly linked to a vision of professionalism centred on teacher autonomy
- recognition of a need for diversity in teacher education provision, which is balanced by the requirements that both academic and practical professional development take place
- the accommodation of both nationally and locally provided in-service training within a clear rationale for determining who provides what.

Accredited academic professional development programmes at Canterbury Christ Church University

There are some lessons to learn from both the Singaporean and Finnish experience which I propose to discuss in the context of our experience as a major provider of
accredited ITE and CPD courses for teachers at Canterbury Christ Church University.

Our university is the first and longest serving ITE provider partner of Teach First. As a teacher training route, Teach First has often been misrepresented as a six-week training course followed by ‘in at the deep end, learning on the job’. I am using this example, as it is particularly worthy of note that a programme considered to be intensively work-based has made a very strong commitment to academic professional development.

It is true that in its early years, providers of Teach First were not required to provide an academic qualification for its participants, but just QTS. One of the main reasons for its adoption of the postgraduate certificate in education (PGCE) was demand from its own participants, who recognised that engaging in the theory-, practice- and research-informed model of reflective practice would be of value to them. They were used to being pushed academically, and missed it during their training year, not because they liked studying for its own sake, but because they recognised that academic learning, at its best, informs practical capability and competence because it provides the learner with the reference points and intellectual resources to be able to innovate and problem solve.

In the context of Teach First’s continuing success, it is not surprising that, as in Singapore, it is now planned to integrate the first two years of teachers’ professional development by adopting a two-year PGDip in education, further deepening and extending the opportunities its participants have for reflective, research-informed practice.

Teach First is not unique in England in offering this kind of training route or enabling new teachers to build from it towards a Master’s in education, as is required in Finland. Our collaboration with Teach First has, however, included the provision for its participants of a Master’s in transformational leadership, which is also available to other students and one of our most successful CPD programmes. It includes modules on professional values and contexts, transformational leadership for communities and schools, international perspectives
on transformational leadership, inclusive leadership, learning from good practice in leadership, leading the professional development of others, and evaluation and research methods (studying this supports students’ work on their final dissertations).

The programme is structured to promote the connections among established theory, active research by students and professional practice that are at the centre of Singapore’s model of critical enquiry. As the Finnish Ministry of Education and the Teach First participants we have worked with recognise, this approach to professional development develops teacher confidence and autonomy. We believe that it also contributes to teacher well-being and resilience, things that are important for many ethical reasons, including their contribution to the retention of teachers in the profession.

Our experience is that, by furthering their journey of accredited academic professional development, education practitioners develop their capacity to contribute to leadership at a strategic level. We offer a successful Doctorate in education, which we teach to cohorts of students with shared professional and academic interests, mainly through residential weekends. The taught modules on the programme focus on the development of students’ knowledge and understanding of research methodology, and include: the role and nature of theory, critical theory, the development of professional knowledge, the self and self-positioning in research, methods and methodologies, and policy research and truth. However, this focus on advanced scholarship is combined with a strong practice-based philosophy. The programme builds on the knowledge and skills that students, as professionals, bring to their study, and assumes that professionalism is an integral part of the Doctoral journey. Each module is designed to integrate professional experience with the skills and understanding necessary to innovate and apply new knowledge, to advance practice and enrich learning.

This approach leads to powerful outcomes and can be used to further the exploration of issues and ideas that have particular significance for a group of students and even for the institution in which they are studying.
An example for us is the publication of *Being Christian in Education* (Worsely, Bryan & Welby, 2015), an edited volume of 15 chapters by a single cohort of Doctorate in education students who came together to study this topic in the broad context of learning in a Church of England foundation university. Many of the chapters deal with issues that have direct significance for the professional actions and decisions of the students in their own contexts, which are often issues with substantial leadership dimensions. The titles of chapters such as, ‘What does the metaphor of the good shepherd have to say about school leadership?’ (Susan Thompson) and ‘Re-visioning the teaching methodology in African Pentecostal Church Education (APCE)’ (Nan Kye-Baffour) say enough to illustrate this point.

**Further observations towards recommendations**

The Finnish Ministry of Education says that Finnish teachers see in-service training as a privilege and participate enthusiastically, but it also indicates that funding is available to support training that meets national priorities, and also, sometimes, local ones. The funding available for accredited professional development in England is limited, making participation in what may seem to be expensive, long-term accredited programmes a challenge. However, if such programmes lead to real change in the professional context of their students, and increase autonomy, resilience and well-being, and consequently teacher retention, there is a strong argument that limiting funding for them is a false economy.

The discussion above is built on the premise that we want a national model of teacher professionalism in which teachers are creative, innovative problem-solvers, not compliant technicians, administrators and deliverers of requirements imposed on them by government or other stakeholders. It is apparent that Finland and Singapore are, in different ways, seeking to implement this kind of model, and that being clear about it informs their approach to teacher development consistently at an operational level.

The role of the Academy of Singapore Teachers is clearly that of a national facilitator of this approach, but Singapore is small country, and its model may not be replicable in
England, or even appropriate for it, in the context of regional diversity and need.

There is a difference between a teacher-led system in which individual teachers are directly supported by government, as in Singapore, and a school-led system in which more autonomy is delegated to the leaders of groups of schools, as in England. However, the Academy of Singapore Teachers does provide an impressive range of resources for professional development, and there has to be a question about whether groups of schools can consistently achieve the capacity to provide them or even if they would wish to do so.

On the first point, there is no doubt that some excellent multi-academy trusts and teaching school alliances are providing a wide range of opportunities for professional development within their groups and offering them to other schools. However, it will take time for all schools to become part of strong groups of schools, and even in strong groups, there may not be the will in the leadership to promote the model of teacher professionalism that Finland and Singapore favour.

In our experience, headteachers and principals who have had themselves, at some point in their own career, a strong experience of academic professional development, have a much deeper sense of its value, and are less likely to set out to favour a technical delivery model of professionalism.

There is therefore an argument for an organisation such as the Chartered College of Teaching to provide some national structure to teacher professional development, which could, for example, be by promoting the theory-, practice- and research-informed model of teacher development through its approach to defining chartered teacher status. This would allow some of the best features of the Academy of Singapore Teachers to apply in the more complex education system of a larger country.

With reference to the particular priorities and work of the Cathedrals Group of universities, the Church of England has created, through the establishment of its Foundation for Educational Leadership, another potential means of developing the theory-, practice- and research-informed model in a manner that...
takes into account a particular set of educational concerns, which, while they apply nationally rather than locally, are not the priorities of national government, including how to provide a distinctively Church of England education. By bringing together organisations, and individuals whose work places different degrees of focus on theory, practice and research, including Church of England universities, diocesan directors of education, teaching school alliances, and, at least in one case, a theological institute, a dynamic is being established that has the potential to bring together the resources, expertise and capacity to emulate the Singaporean model for all Church of England schools, and to allow for regional variations within this large group by setting up regional projects within the Foundation for Educational Leadership.

**Recommendations**

- England should develop and adopt a theoretically informed teacher development model to underpin its initial teacher education and continuing professional development provision.

- The model should reference a definition of teacher professionalism that incorporates creativity, innovation, criticality and resilience.

- The teacher development model should promote the interconnectedness of theory, practice and research.

- Trainee teachers and teachers should have access to accredited academic professional development at all stages of their careers and be required to undertake it at particular points in their professional development journey.

- Accredited academic professional development should draw on the specialist expertise and professional experience of researchers and practitioners.

- Funding assumptions about teachers’ professional development should be reviewed (e.g. the proposition that funding professional development can increase teacher retention should be tested).
References


Chapter 11: Embedding educational research into teaching: what do teachers need to know?

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Introduction

The ‘teacher as researcher’ as a form of professional practice has been evolving since the 1950s, when teachers in the USA generated the first action-research movement (Hammersley, 1993:211): action research emerged in England during the 1960s and 1970s, and Stenhouse (1975) first used the phrase ‘teacher-as-researcher’ in 1975. Over the last four decades, school-based research (and action research in particular) has been promoted and supported passionately (Elliott, 1991; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Durrant & Holden, 2006; Furlong & Oancea, 2005) and its value analysed forensically (Hammersley, 2007). In a keynote address at the Teacher Training Agency Annual Lecture in 1996, Professor David Hargreaves suggested – controversially at the time – that education would increase in ‘efficiency’ if it were research-based (Hargreaves, 1996:2).

Whilst enthusiasm for school-based research has continued into the contemporary period (Bennett, 2013; Groundwater-Smith, Dockett & Bottrell, 2015), we draw attention in this chapter to two themes that have emerged in recent years and that we believe require attention. We suggest first that in the light of increased policy interest in relation to research, the time is ripe for a serious discussion about the nature and form of research methods in school-based research (and in this we include engagement with research ethics), including debate around the terminology used to describe research practices in schools. Second, we argue that structural changes in education and events in society in recent
years have been so profound that a re-engagement with the concept and possibilities of school-based research is timely: previous debates about the need to embed research into teaching made assumptions about the nature of that research and the nature of teaching. We believe that many of those assumptions are misplaced because the environment in which schools and teachers now find themselves has changed radically, and because the relationship between teachers, schools and academia has shifted, creating new and rather different arguments for embedding research into teaching.

Research expectations in a radically changed education environment

Referred to by government as a ‘self-improving system’ (HM Government, 2010), contemporary complex education structures now include research schools (EEF, 2016), teaching schools (with a brief to develop excellence across networks of schools (HM Government, 2010)), and the free schools and academy trusts announced in the Academies Act 2010. The Act heralded a diminishing role for local authorities, realised in the White Paper Educational Excellence Everywhere (HM Government, 2016). More recently still, government has considered whether all schools might become academies (ibid.) and in contrast, the place of grammar schools has been brought back onto the agenda by Prime Minister Theresa May. Within this dynamic system, schools are placed at the centre of activity:

*We believe in supported autonomy: aligning funding, control, responsibility and accountability in one place, as close to the front line as possible, and ensuring that institutions can collaborate and access the support they need to set them up for success.*

HM Government, 2016:4

This ‘front line’ now includes an expectation from government that all schools will both engage with and generate research: the National Standards of Excellence for Headteachers (DfE, 2015) comprise four domains (qualities and knowledge; pupils and staff; systems and processes; the self-improving school system), two of which promote research
engagement. Domain 2.3 (pupils and staff) requires headteachers to ‘Establish an education culture of “open classrooms” as a basis for sharing best practice within and between schools, drawing on and conducting relevant research and robust data analysis’. Domain 4.3 (the self-improving school system) states that headteachers should ‘Challenge educational orthodoxies in the best interests of achieving excellence, harnessing the findings of well evidenced research to frame self-regulating and self-improving schools’. Government is thus promoting specific expectations of research: research used or generated in schools is expected to advance the self-improving school and to ‘achieve excellence’. Interestingly, there are similarities here with the way in which government encouraged headteachers to allocate funding for continuing professional development (CPD) some 10 years ago: the report into CPD, The logical chain: CPD in effective schools (Ofsted, 2006) drew attention to the ways in which the most successful schools had aligned funding and teachers' CPD with their school improvement plans.

**Research as professional practice**

Teachers, then, are increasingly required to both engage with the research of others and to undertake research themselves. With so many research ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors in the educational landscape in contemporary times, it feels important to stand back and ask how and where teachers will develop appropriate research skills that will enable them to either engage critically with other’s research or to undertake research themselves in school, including identifying which questions to ask, make decisions about appropriate methodologies, undertake robust analysis of data and use this information in school contexts. In what ways will teachers engage with past generations of researchers and access current relevant research in a global context? Essential in the armoury of teachers undertaking research is, of course, an understanding of the centrality of research ethics.

We are, of course, not starting with a tabula rasa. The Bologna Agreement of 1999 aligned undergraduate and postgraduate cycles and the National Framework for Higher Education (QAA, 2008) required
all postgraduate programmes to provide Master’s-level credits. The result in education terms saw all postgraduate certificate of education (PGCE) programmes offer students the opportunity to gain Master’s-level credits. Whilst providers continue to offer a range of Master’s credits during the PGCE programme, this requirement ensured that students engage in and with research, albeit in the context of a pressurised programme with competing demands. Nevertheless, these students take with them their research skills and understanding into the school context as early career professionals and many continue with Master’s degrees, during which they become more fully immersed in research.

In addition to applied social science research and research skills encountered on PGCE programmes, teachers for many years were given access to postgraduate professional development (PPD) funding: some 25,000 teachers accessed PPD funding from 2005/06 and engaged in Master’s-level study. With a requirement in latter years for providers to provide a report on impact to the Teaching and Development Agency for Schools (TDA), teachers were immersed in research at Master’s level for (normally) three years and many of these teachers are still in schools. Similarly, the Master’s in teaching and learning (MTL) offered some teachers another funded opportunity to engage in research in relation to their practice. Designed to ‘raise standards, narrow the achievement gap and give children better life chances’ (DCSF, 2008:12), the MTL was offered to newly qualified teachers and newly appointed heads of department in national challenge schools (i.e., schools where less than 30% of pupils achieve A*-C grades, including in English and maths, at GCSE) only. This funding was withdrawn after the first cohorts commenced their studies but nevertheless the initiative resulted in participating teachers having gained specific research skills and knowledge at Master’s level.

Whilst MTL and PPD funding for Master’s-level study has now been withdrawn, teachers are still self-funding Master’s programmes (and in some cases are part funded or fully funded by their respective schools) and these teachers will be in strong positions to support their colleagues in undertaking research in schools.
In addition to individual teachers studying accredited programmes, there are powerful examples of teachers and universities working in partnership to engage in school-based enquiry: HertsCam\(^1\) is one such example. Whilst these examples demonstrate a certain level of research understanding in schools, of the 438,000 teachers practising in state-funded schools in England on a full-time equivalent basis (DfE, 2014), it is clear that many teachers have had minimal research training and as research is used increasingly in schools to determine new ways of working, the need for robust research skills is ever more important. Important, we argue, because research, far from being a simple technical exercise includes:

ontological assumptions…[that] give rise to epistemological assumptions; these, in turn give rise to methodological considerations; and these, in turn, give rise to issues of instrumentation and data collection. Indeed, added to ontology and epistemology is axiology (the values and beliefs that we hold).

Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011:3

Cohen et al. (2011) go on to remind us that educational research is also necessarily intertwined with the politics of education: the process of undertaking research in schools is to be taken seriously, not least because research findings are used to influence how teachers engage with pupils across all areas of school life.

**Beyond standards**

Whilst we acknowledge the desire to ‘achieve excellence’ within a self-improving system, and are encouraged that government is promoting research as a vehicle through which practice is enhanced, we suggest above that teachers’ knowledge and understanding of research require urgent attention. However, we argue in this second section of the chapter that this emerging school-based research discourse is unnecessarily restrictive. Whilst research in schools is understandably focused on school improvement issues and raising pupil outcomes, the true value of research is in its capacity to enable researchers to ask wider questions, to situate the practice of education – and the role of the teacher – in the deepest societal issues. As Apple (1996) reminds

1. www.hertscam.org.uk
us, education is necessarily shaped by the cultural politics of the times; the role of the teacher as cultural worker thus situates the practice of education at the heart of society. In contemporary times, the zeitgeist is increasingly shaped by global concern about the threat of radicalisation and extremism, resulting arguably in an atmosphere of fear (Bauman, 2006), of a society under siege. The London bombings of July 2005 were carried out by ‘home-grown’ terrorists, prompting a change in government approaches to addressing radicalisation and extremism. Education is now a vehicle for the prevention of radicalisation and extremism and the requirements on schools are outlined in the Counter-terrorism and Security Act 2015. Teachers are expected to play a key role in implementing new counter-terrorism initiatives as well as the promotion of fundamental British values, as set out in the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2013). These requirements redefine the role of the teacher, explicitly politicising their status as professionals and placing wider expectations not only on their pedagogical abilities but their moral and ethical capacities as well (Revell & Bryan, 2016). Teachers are expected to make judgements about the potential risks of radicalisation, to negotiate issues of religious, cultural and ethnic identity and to maintain a professional and objective stance in relation to the many sensitive and controversial issues raised by their new roles. The threat of radicalisation and extremism provides a clear example of the way in which government has reshaped requirements on teachers (thus redefining teacher professionalism), but this, we suggest, has created opportunities, challenges and most significantly, new arguments for the embedding of research into teaching. Past discussions about the nature of teacher professionalism have highlighted the deskilled nature of the teacher and the loss of professional autonomy (Maclure, 1993; Whitty, 2003). This new focus on extremism and education means that it is essential that teachers can engage critically and reflexively with the demands placed on them by policymakers.

The need for teachers to be free to make judgements about the nature of education in their schools is echoed in many of the debates on the relationship between
Christianity, teaching and education. In *Doing God in Education*, Trevor Cooling (2010) challenges the self-evident view that there is 'an incontestable, neutral and objective way of teaching'. Instead, he argues that teachers should make judgements about the meaning and significance of education. The authors of *Teaching and Christian Practices* (Smith & Smith, 2011), writing about the place of Christian faith in education, make a similar point about the centrality of the teacher and teaching in disrupting traditional narratives, practices and expectations. For them, it is these relationships that are at the heart of teaching with faith. Similarly, the American scholar Gloria Durka (2002) argues that teachers are more than 'dispensers of information' because at the heart of teaching are ethical concerns about our relationships with students, the care we take in our work, the responsibilities we assume: teaching for Durka is no less than a 'moral obligation'.

The vision of the teacher outlined by Cooling (2010), Smith and Smith (2011) and Durka (2002) assume that teachers are questioning professionals, not just of themselves and their students but of the dominant messages from politicians and their colleagues. Embedding research into teaching will facilitate the dialogues teachers need to enable them to situate ethics and ethical behaviour at the heart of their profession but also to identify the moment when asking the difficult question is both necessary and meaningful.

And so…

There is a danger that teachers will be unprepared to interpret, navigate and engage professionally with research initiatives or with wider policy initiatives. Teachers whose work is not embedded within research could lack the knowledge, pedagogical and academic authority and critical skills that they need to situate themselves professionally in this new climate. The teacher who is an active researcher is one who is able to make judgements that are informed not just by their immediate experiences or by policy but by a culture of asking difficult questions, not just of their own practice but of every aspect of education. Ensuring that teachers have a secure grounding in research will empower them to address not only the
questions relating to standards and outcomes, but questions relating to the young person as citizen in a complex society. In this, universities and schools should be in a symbiotic relationship, with the young person at the heart of their endeavours.

References


This chapter considers the place of primary education (for the purpose of this chapter primary refers to the compulsory years of schooling from the age of five through to 11 years whether in a primary or separate infant/junior school) in the development of an effective educational experience for all children in the UK. The structure, content and ethos of the primary phase of schooling are considered with discussion of some of the contemporary issues included to provide the basis for debate and a context for the work of the Cathedrals’ Group of universities. The type of school, whether state-faith- or non-faith-based, free school or academy is not the central focus here, more so the nature of the experience of the child in this formative phase of schooling and the impact this might have on future educational experience and/or achievement.
Amongst the issues to be considered are: the age of children entering formal education; the curriculum: content and assessment; class size and the impact of the teacher – (including the impact of initial and ongoing education and training).

**Context of compulsory schooling**

The primary school is the first experience many children will have of a formal education setting. In the UK, children from the age of five (or in many cases before their fifth birthday) will begin the compulsory phase of their educational journey. In England, in the September following a child’s fifth birthday, there is a move from the often informal, play-based, child-focused environment of nursery/reception, the latter part of the early years foundation stage (0–5 years), into ‘Year 1’ and a potentially more formal educational set up. A national curriculum is in place for children from this point, which outlines programmes of study across a range of subjects including English and mathematics, with a further expectation that literacy and numeracy skills are also developed across the wider curriculum. This formalised approach begins earlier than in many other countries across Europe and the world, although the results of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2016) survey of pupil performance in 2015 across 39 countries suggests that this early ‘formal’ start does not necessarily result in better performance by children when they reach the age of 15.

Arguably, the early experience of children both before they enter compulsory education and in the first years of schooling, is key to educational success. Educationalists have questioned the UK’s early start to children’s compulsory education and children’s readiness for a formal curriculum at this stage. Whitebread (2013) refers to a letter, published in the Daily Telegraph in September 2013, in which he and around 130 early childhood education experts, [...] advocated an extension of informal, play-based pre-school provision and a delay to the start of formal “schooling” in England from the current effective start until the age of seven in line with a number of other European countries, who currently have higher levels of academic achievement and
child well-being, (Whitebread, 2013 [online]). Finland, for example, is often cited in this context as children there start compulsory schooling at the age of seven, yet the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) results comparing the attainment of 15-year-olds shows Finland easily within the top 10 countries in reading and science and above the average and the UK in mathematics (girls score top in reading and second in science, boys are seventh in reading and eighth in science, OECD, 2016). Back in the UK, although compulsory schooling in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland also begins at the age of five, it should be noted that there are different approaches in operation. In Wales, for example, the foundation stage currently continues to the age of seven, and Donaldson (2015) has advocated extending some of the principles of this approach into subsequent years of schooling.

In terms of compulsory schooling alone, more than half of this time is spent at the primary level and the experience that children have during this time can have a long-term impact on their attitude and achievement throughout their education. The Effective Pre-school and Primary Education 3–11 project (EPPE 3–11), a major longitudinal study funded by the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF), provided evidence to demonstrate how the primary school and the teaching quality during the primary years can have a significant impact on the child (Sammons et al., 2008). Within this extensive piece of work, the authors make reference to research into school and teacher effectiveness undertaken by several researchers, including Teddlie and Reynolds (2000), Scheerens and Bosker (1997), and Sammons (2007) in which features such as a positive school culture, good leadership, creating a positive learning environment, high expectations and good quality teaching, are considered to be of importance in promoting better outcomes for pupils (Sammons et al., 2008). Their own study confirms these findings but also concludes that, both the quality of teaching and the overall effectiveness of the school are found to be significant predictors of better cognitive progress and social/behavioural development, (Sammons et al., 2008:4).
The curriculum

We believe that the single most important outcome for any primary school is to give as many pupils as possible the knowledge and skills to flourish in the later phases of education.

DfE, 2014:4

This DfE statement and Greening’s more recent reference (2016), at least in part suggesting that the main aim of the primary years is preparation for the next stage of education will likely cause some consternation amongst many primary teachers and educators; whilst this preparation is clearly important, surely the learning experiences afforded at primary level should be valued in their own right and this phase not simply be viewed as a stepping stone to the next stages of learning. Alexander (2010:196) powerfully makes this point in his exploration of the principles of primary education. He suggests that official statements ‘tend to see primary education solely as preparation for what follows... and to neglect the fact that children have needs and powers now, as children rather than merely as future adults’.

Many would argue that the primary years are a time to provide children with a rich and engaging curriculum and despite widely held concerns about introducing an early focus on curriculum content rather than considering the child’s readiness for factual learning at the age of five, education policymakers appear to focus on subject-specific content and have developed a number of iterations of a national curriculum for the primary years focusing on what should be taught to pupils during each phase or year of their schooling (Shuayb & O’Donnell, 2008). The intention of the primary years of education should surely be to foster a love of learning, nurture creativity, health, well-being and global citizenship, as well as to ensure that all pupils are supported to develop the foundations for future learning. Children’s individual developmental stages, appropriateness and relevance of curriculum content, knowledge, understanding and skills, are key considerations for the primary teacher.

Despite various reviews of the impact of the national curriculum, since its introduction in 1988, demonstrating a positive impact on pupil achievement, many academics
(Walsh et al., 2008, for example) believe that the formal nature of the curriculum in England and many other countries, especially in the first few years of compulsory schooling, is problematic. It is interesting to note, as an aside that, in England, neither academies nor free schools are legally obliged to follow the national curriculum, leading one to question the purpose of having a national curriculum at all. However, the provision of a ‘common’ curriculum, though as stated, not actually for all, implies that all children develop at the same rate and the curriculum is therefore chronological-age dependent rather than stage of development related. It could be argued that this approach causes future issues for children who are not ready to learn a specific concept at a particular age and thus may not develop the basic building blocks required for later learning.

There is no doubt that all children deserve the best opportunities to develop the foundations of literacy, e-literacy and numeracy in order to be better assured of their future educational achievement. This would enable a progressive curriculum to be built on solid foundations, allowing children to develop the knowledge, skills and understanding for successful future learning. However, it is also clear that a positive attitude to learning and high levels of aspiration are essential to future educational success. The role of the primary school in achieving these ends whilst simultaneously supporting children’s individual appreciation and enjoyment of the world around us, and in particular, their physical and mental health and well-being, is paramount. Positive experience through the primary school years can do much to support children’s confidence and promote independence to be better equipped to face the challenges of secondary education and adult life.

In a world of fast-paced technological advance, with concerns at the global level around environmental and sustainability matters, Donaldson’s words are poignant.

Our children and young people only have a relatively short time at school. We must use that time judiciously and productively to help each one of them to grow as a capable, healthy, well-rounded individual.
who can thrive in the face of unknown future challenges…
What our children and young people learn during their time at school has never been more important yet, at the same time, the task of determining what that learning should be has never been more challenging.

Donaldson, 2015

Assessment
Good primary teachers will, by necessity, make regular use of formative and diagnostic assessment to determine what learning has taken place, to ascertain whether any misconceptions are present, to identify where to move the learning next and to support the monitoring of a child’s progress:

Good teachers assess children regularly to inform teaching, provide feedback to pupils and to communicate children’s progress to parents. This assessment does not need government to prescribe how it should be done.

DfE, 2014

The title of the 2014 document published by the Department for Education, Reforming assessment and accountability for primary schools: Government response to consultation on primary school assessment and accountability, indicates an additional perceived function of assessment, one that government and policy-makers view as inextricably linked to the accountability of schools, in which the outcomes of pupil assessment are viewed as a measure of the quality of schools and the teacher.

Whilst in the publication it is stated that the government does not need to prescribe how assessment should be undertaken, the intention to develop more challenging tests at particular points in a child’s primary education is noted.

We also need to consider the effect on children of explicit forms of assessment. Bradshaw, co-editor of a 2015 report for The Children’s Society, claimed that ‘dissatisfaction of school performance’ was a contributory factor to unhappiness amongst children in the UK:

There is something going on in the UK and it seems to be focused on self-esteem and confidence. It’s very difficult to prescribe what to do about it, but I think one thing that we
certainly ought to do is make more effort to manage bullying. I think schools in Britain really need to be friendlier places, more concerned with social relationships and less focused on attainment. It’s interesting that Norwegians are much happier at school than we are. They don’t do so well in the educational attainment league table. I think their schools are happier places, but they are perhaps not as successful in achieving attainment outcomes – there’s a bit of a trade-off there. We perhaps haven’t got the balance right.

Bradshaw, cited in the Guardian, 2016

(For the actual report, refer to The Children’s Society, 2015.)

In considering Bradshaw’s comments, reference to the OECD (2016) data on pupil attainment in the PISA tests confirmed that the UK scored more highly in the 2015 science tests (mean scores: UK boys 510, girls 509 compared to Norway boys 500, girls 497); however, in the reading tests undertaken in the same year, Norway’s children performed more highly than was the case in the UK (mean scores: Norway girls 533, boys 494 compared with UK girls 509 and boys 487). This area is certainly worthy of greater consideration and, as Bradshaw suggests, there is a need to look more carefully at the balance between attainment – or perhaps more so how that is measured and monitored – and consideration of well-being.

The recent change in assessment policy to remove attainment levels, following the report Commission on Assessment without Levels (2015), while being broadly welcomed by teachers, has presented them with a challenge in that the requirement remains for children to attain national targets at age 11 but now without the support of intermediate targets at earlier ages.

Despite being intended only for use in statutory national assessments, too frequently levels also came to be used for in-school assessment between key stages in order to monitor whether pupils were on track to achieve expected levels at the end of key stages. This distorted the purpose of in-school
assessment, particularly day-to-day formative assessment. The Commission believes that this has had a profoundly negative impact on teaching. Too often levels became viewed as thresholds and teaching became focused on getting pupils across the next threshold instead of ensuring they were secure in the knowledge and understanding defined in the programmes of study. Depth and breadth of understanding were sometimes sacrificed in favour of pace. Levels also used a ‘best fit’ model, which meant that a pupil could have serious gaps in their knowledge and understanding, but still be placed within the level. This meant it wasn’t always clear exactly which areas of the curriculum the child was secure in and where the gaps were.

DfE, 2015:5

Schools and teachers have been grappling with these changes in assessment policy. Since the introduction of the national curriculum in 1988 they have followed statutory assessment requirements which have standardised formats. In addition to standard assessment, teachers will also have undertaken formative, informal assessment as part of their day-to-day practices. Now, aside from the national tests in years 1 (phonics), 2 and 6, teachers are more free to develop assessment approaches that suit their own pupils and individual context. Continuing professional development that supports assessment practices will likely prove helpful to them and is noted by the Commission as of importance (DfE, 2015).

Class sizes
For many years the issue of class size has been debated. Just recently the policy of the Welsh government Education Secretary, Kirsty Williams, to cut infant class sizes to below 25 was questioned by one of their education advisors, Professor David Reynolds. Whilst this seems to be popular with parents and some teachers and educators, the suggestion was that there are other more beneficial ways to spend the education budget, for example on continuing professional development for teachers (Martin, 2016). The key question is whether or not children benefit, in terms of achievement and experience, from being in smaller
classes. Teaching unions view class size as important and some have previously presented policies on this. The National Union of Teachers, in its 2012 policy (no longer available), argued that it would view 30 to be excessive (in primary classes and fewer in mixed-age and nursery/reception classes). It is worth considering teacher well-being in this context, not just in terms of the time needed to develop crucial relationships with the learners, but also in regard to excessive workloads that might occur with larger classes and potentially cause some very able teachers to leave the profession prematurely.

In reality, the number of children in the class is probably one of a number of factors impacting on pupil performance. Clearly an able, more experienced teacher with a number of well-qualified learning support assistants may well be better able to manage a large class and thus a larger class size would not necessarily have a negative impact on the children.

Interestingly, private schools promote themselves to pupils/parents on the premise that class sizes are small and therefore achievement will be higher. The results of many of these schools might suggest that this can be the case but again it is difficult to claim cause and effect and there are many other factors that may lead to better results in some of these schools. Blatchford has spent considerable time investigating class size. His earlier study (Blatchford et al., 2003) suggested that class size can impact on academic performance; however, this was in the context of a reception class and literacy. In an article for the Guardian, Blatchford (2015) concluded that the class-size debate is much more complex than some seem to think. Simply suggesting that because some high-performing countries (in the PISA tests) have large class sizes that this somehow provides sufficient evidence that class size is not linked to attainment does not take into account possible other factors such as parental involvement in education and other cultural differences. Additional adults in the classroom, particularly those who are well qualified, the experience level of the teacher, quality of teaching and the learning environment and other considerations will also have an impact.
The OECD (2012) has undertaken extensive research of education across the world. Whilst it is acknowledged that class size may be one factor influencing outcomes, there are many other factors that have an effect. The conclusion that, ‘reducing class size is not, on its own, a sufficient policy lever to improve the performance of education systems, and is a less efficient measure than increasing the quality of teaching’ clearly shows where the focus of attention should be – improving the quality of teaching.

**The teacher: teacher training and development**

The government marketing campaign – ‘everyone remembers a good teacher’ encapsulates the effect a teacher can have on all children. The class teacher in the primary school may well be the first adult outside the family with whom the child will spend a significant amount of time and as such has the potential to become a significant influence on the child’s development. The primary school child will spend nearly as many waking hours with their teacher as they do with their parents or carers.

The research evidence clearly identifies the role of the teacher as a pivotal influence on pupil progress and achievement. A poor teacher during the primary years of formal schooling can potentially have a long-term negative impact on the education of a child. Clearly it is therefore essential that initial teacher education (ITE) and the continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers throughout a teaching career are of high quality.

All schools and teachers need to contribute to the future of the profession. Schools and experienced teachers who work with initial teacher trainees (student teachers) and early career teachers will have a significant impact on the next generation of teachers. In Scotland, all schools are required to work with trainee teachers and this work is inspected. In Wales, in producing draft ITE accreditation proposals, Furlong (2016) similarly recommended that Estyn revise its criteria for school inspections to recognise their contributions to ITE. Training the next generation of teachers is the responsibility of all. This accountability is not the case currently in England and whilst many schools do acknowledge and act on
this responsibility, some do not and as a result there is, in some areas, a shortage of high-quality training opportunities for the next generation of teachers with some schools not fulfilling their part in contributing to the future of the profession. The training of teachers has traditionally been carried out by universities/higher education institutions (HEIs) in close partnership with schools. Since 1998, to become a qualified teacher specific competences or standards have had to be met and these national common standards have acted as a threshold for entry into the profession. The standards in their various iterations (e.g. DfEE, 1998; TTA, 2002; DfE, 2011) have ensured that only those who achieve the benchmark of qualified teacher status (QTS) are allowed to teach in state schools. The standards to achieve QTS have been through a number of changes and there are currently proposals to introduce a new form of QTS. Although it is still unclear what this new QTS will look like, it would appear that this move will be consistent with the government’s drive to further improve teaching standards and hopefully retain teachers in the profession for longer. It is important that all those involved in the training and development of teachers work together to raise standards and that there is clarity and a shared understanding of the QTS threshold.

The measures introduced in ITE have aimed to raise the standards of those entering the teaching profession and ultimately the learning experience of children whilst also ensuring that the supply of teachers meets the demand. However, in certain areas, for example some coastal and rural locations, headteachers report the difficulties they experience filling teaching posts and the numbers of teachers leaving the profession continue to rise. There appears to be a number of factors that are influencing the recruitment, development and retention of high-quality teachers despite the changes in training over the last few years. The constant focus on the raising of standards and the workload increases have added to the pressures placed on the teaching profession. The need for CPD for teachers at all stages of their careers has previously been prioritised at governmental level, by for example proposing a Master’s-led profession
through the introduction of a funded Master’s in teaching and learning. However, this was discontinued, and currently teachers are unable to gain specific funding for further study but are able to increase their student loans to pay for their studies if they undertake a full Master’s course. In theory, this is a good opportunity to continue to study and to improve standards, although in reality it has not been hugely popular as it leads to a greater financial burden and teacher workload continues to be a concern to many.

For the profession continually to improve to meet the challenges of the 21st century there is an imperative that initial and ongoing education and training are of the highest quality. Changes in the routes into teaching, the increase in the number of providers and uncertainty around allocations to providers of student teacher numbers, affecting the effectiveness of resource planning, have however led many to reconsider their involvement in teacher training. School-centred initial teacher training (SCITT) and HEI providers alike have struggled to develop models of provision that are financially viable and that allow for the necessary investment in the future of the teaching profession and the education of our children and young people. Despite these concerns, the Cathedrals Group of universities retains a significant commitment to offering high-quality provision of both ITE and CPD through both non-accredited and accredited routes (postgraduate certificates, diplomas, master’s and Doctoral-level degree programmes). The Cathedrals Group maintains a moral and social obligation to support the development of the teachers who will ultimately have a positive influence on the life chances of the next generation of children.
References


