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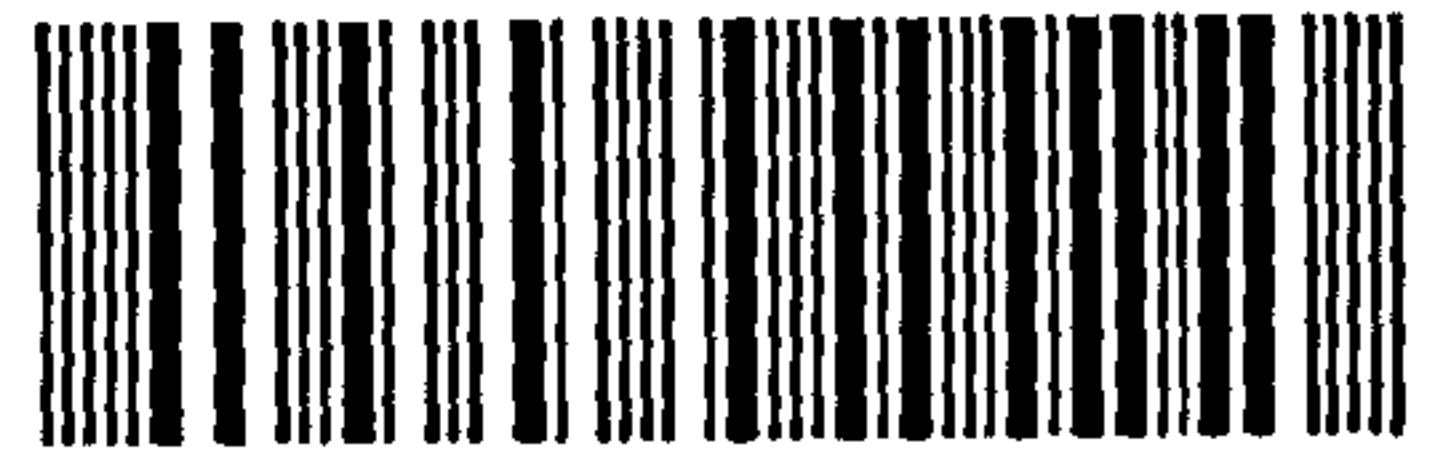
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**DIRECTED ROUTES OR CHOSEN PATHWAYS?
TEACHERS' VIEWS OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL
DEVELOPMENT WITHIN A GROUP OF RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

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Abstract

This research project examines teachers' Continuing Professional Development (C.P.D.) within two clusters of rural primary schools in the north of England. The research considers teachers' attitudes to, and their understanding of, the meaning and purpose of C.P.D., and how it affects themselves and the pupils they teach. The research, which is set within its historical context with particular reference to the impact of the Education Reform Act (1988) and the raft of initiatives that have influenced the direction of teachers' C.P.D., reflects on teachers as professionals.

Through a combination of survey and case study, quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection were used and the initial questionnaires were followed up by semi-structured interviews in the two case study schools. Using Bolam's (1993) tripartite definition as an analytical framework C.P.D. is subdivided into the areas of training, education and support. The data analysis showed that across both clusters teachers' C.P.D. was driven by national government initiatives and, in some cases, the national initiatives became the schools' priorities, leaving little opportunity for an individual school based approach to C.P.D. Across the clusters there was an established relationship between the School Development Plan (S.D.P.), performance management and C.P.D. The one year performance management cycle appeared to dictate the length of the C.P.D. cycle and promoted short term development, reducing opportunities for longer courses, such as advanced diplomas and higher degrees. The constraints of the cycle, along with the emphasis on the deficit model of C.P.D., is viewed as contributing to the general deprofessionalisation of teachers.

Chapter 1

Introduction

The high pace of innovation in educational policy and practice since the Education Reform Act (1988) has made the provision of Continuing Professional Development (C.P.D.) for teachers even more necessary than it was before. Keeping up to date with new developments in one's field has always been an expectation of professionals and teachers are no exception. However, following the Education Reform Act (1988) a new wave of government directed C.P.D. initiatives presents a challenge to teachers and their professionalism. Delivering essential information to schools to help them implement the many policy changes as part of this national agenda is seen as a C.P.D. requirement for schools taking priority over individual school based development.

Continuing Professional Development (C.P.D.), because of its nature, is directly linked to teachers as professionals. Teachers' C.P.D. can be viewed as part of a teacher's role as a professional as it reflects the developmental issues that are deemed to be of greatest importance to the profession at that time. C.P.D. activities, however, can be viewed as something that is imposed and has to be done as part of a national initiative or, in contrast, C.P.D. may be entirely self directed and based at a local level upon the needs of individual teachers and their schools. Through focusing on the question, 'Directed routes or chosen pathways?' I explore the extent to which teachers' C.P.D. is directed externally and how much is driven by individual schools in response to their assessment of their own needs. Through an examination of teachers' C.P.D. within two clusters of primary schools and an analysis of teachers' responses I will take a view of national policy and local practice and of teachers as professionals.

Personal lives and professional contexts are '... a complex and changing mosaic as political, private and public issues impinge upon everything we do' (The Open University, 2001, p27). Autobiography, set alongside an

examination of recorded historical events, can provide an informed view of the past and a meaningful backdrop for educational research. This research, which is rooted firmly in my own autobiography, is written as practitioner research and in the following chapter I will consider the historical context of the development of C.P.D., changing understandings about its format and focus, and of the changing models of professional learning that underpin these changes. I take a view of what it means to be a professional and, more specifically, a view of teachers as professionals. It would appear that teachers are being promoted as professionals through the government reforms following the Education Reform Act (1988), however, in practice this may not be the case.

My career in education, beginning with my earliest experiences as a young secondary teacher during the 1970s, is part of the historical context within which this research question is framed and provides a background to my review of the many initiatives generated by the Education Reform Act (1988). My initial interest in the delivery of C.P.D. developed through my involvement in Local Education Authority (L.E.A.) led In-service Education and Training (INSET) cross-curricular residential courses for primary teachers in the 1980s. Although, over the years, the terminology changed from INSET to C.P.D. both are generic terms for the post-qualification education and training that teachers receive. C.P.D. covers all aspects of teachers' professional development and is an accepted term 'which is in wide international currency across the professions' (Open University, 2001, p14). The James Report defined INSET as 'the whole range of activities by which teachers can extend their personal education, develop their professional competence and improve their understanding of education principles and techniques' (D.E.S., 1972, cited in Earley and Bubb, 2004, p4). Although the terms INSET and C.P.D. are currently used to describe the same developmental activities, INSET is used to a lesser extent and is associated more with the development programmes of the 1970s and 1980s. Before moving to primary schools I taught in a secondary school Art Department and, as I had specialist skills, I delivered the pottery element of the primary INSET courses. This was a time when creativity was promoted across the primary curriculum, subject areas were blurred and the

curriculum was mainly topic based. This was, for many teachers, the 'golden age of teachers' professional autonomy and public regard' (Bottery and Wright, 2000 p12) before the pressures of Ofsted, SATs, performance tables and the raft of initiatives including the National Curriculum, the National Numeracy Strategy (N.N.S.) and the National Literacy Strategy (N.L.S.). In the wake of the Education Reform Act (1988) these initiatives have each contributed to the content and influenced the direction of teachers' C.P.D.

Nostalgia for the so called 'golden age' before the Education Reform Act (1988) and the subsequent raft of initiatives and changes may, however, misrepresent the reality of the effectiveness of the education system at that time. Although there was much excellent work in schools, there was also huge variation in standards across the country, within L.E.As. and within individual schools. There are still issues over 'within-school' variations. Schools were, to a large extent, autonomous and they planned and managed their own curriculum with L.E.A. guidance and little interference. Bottery believes that until the mid-1970s schools were very much the preserve of the teacher. He highlights this by quoting David Eccles, the Minister of Education in 1960, who when referring to teacher controlled education, called it the 'secret garden' (Bottery, 1992, p7). In 1969 Dyson and Cox published a pamphlet which criticised what they considered to be the excesses of progressive education and the introduction by the Labour Party of comprehensive schools. Dyson called this a 'Black Paper' in contrast to the Government's White Papers. Four more Black Papers followed causing a furore at the time but the main political parties later adopted much of what they proposed as policies. The 'Black Papers' provide a useful historical reference point which marks the time when the progressive education of the 1960s and 1970s was publicly challenged, prior to the reforms of the 1980s. Bottery and Wright (2000) see the 'Black Papers' within the wider context of the country's financial difficulties and resulting from the 1970s' oil crisis. In his speech at Ruskin College Oxford in 1976 Prime Minister Callaghan doubted whether 'education was providing industry with workers with training in the basic subject necessities, and unequivocally stated that

government needed to be involved in more than the determination of structure and resource allocation'. (Bottery and Wright, 2000, p11)

Following the Education Reform Act (1988) and the new initiatives it has generated, the nature of C.P.D. and its purpose have changed since the 1980s, when teachers could choose from a wide range of courses across the whole curriculum, into one of providing information to help cope with the many initiatives resulting from government policy. In this research in two rural clusters of primary schools I consider current policy and practice and examine what is understood by teachers' C.P.D., the provision available and teachers' perception of its quality and relevance. I explain and argue against the deficit model of C.P.D. and in favour of my personal position which has an acknowledged bias towards the benefits and growth model where there is a more individual approach to C.P.D. including many positive aspects such as personal study and an emphasis on individual school priorities.

The overarching research question: 'Directed routes or chosen pathways?' derives from a combination of my interest in teachers' C.P.D. as a headteacher, and through my involvement as an Associate Lecturer with teachers studying for an M.A. module with the Open University. My teaching experience spans over thirty years and, during that time, I have had a continuing involvement in both receiving and delivering professional development ranging from informal courses to higher degrees. I began my headship in January 1988, a little ahead of the Education Reform Act (1988), and have worked through what has proved to be a period of unprecedented change in education. I became aware of the unrelenting pressure upon schools to keep up to date with new developments and saw the new wave of initiatives, following the Education Reform Act (1988), dominating school development and leaving little time for individual school based initiatives. It was this shift in the pattern and direction of CPD, as a result of the Education Reform Act (1988), that interested me as it indicated the shift in control from the schools to the government. The shift in the direction of schools' C.P.D., in line with the government's national agenda, can be seen as the outward indication of a change in policy and underlying ideology. For schools there are implications for both epistemology and

pedagogy as the restructured curriculum and programmes of study dictate what is to be taught and inspection criteria influence how subjects are taught.

Inspired by my interest in education, and supported by a National College for School Leadership (N.C.S.L.) bursary, I welcomed the opportunity to explore the area of professional development with colleagues within my own setting. Teachers' CPD occurs at national and local levels and is driven by current initiatives and policy changes; this is an area that has implications for the professional development of teachers and for their schools. In this research I will look at the theoretical approaches to CPD and, through a view of the clusters and case study schools, focus on practice.

My research explores the nature and diversity of teachers' C.P.D. within a rural area and attempts to make links between teachers' CPD and their role as professionals. My enquiry is located within two clearly defined rural 'clusters' of primary schools in northern England in which the majority of schools have less than 100 pupils. Each cluster comprises of a group of neighbouring schools within a defined geographical area around a central market town. The clusters provide a support group for headteachers and schools join together for occasional C.P.D. events. In the clusters the headteachers generally have a substantial teaching commitment and, in some cases, the headteacher of a small school, perhaps with 20 to 40 pupils, will teach for 4 days each week as well as deal with their leadership and management responsibilities.

For the purposes of this study I have chosen to focus on the teachers' views as they play a central part in the delivery and evaluation processes. The cluster schools have much in common being part of a rural setting within the same Local Authority (L.A.): they are subject to the same LA advice and support, follow the same curriculum, have the same pressures to meet their performance targets and ascribe to the same judgemental criteria shared with the LA and Ofsted. The common alignment of each of these

factors strengthens the teachers' common position in their evaluation of C.P.D. within their classrooms and schools.

Every school in the clusters received questionnaires and I carried out interviews with the teachers and pupils in a case study school from each cluster. The results of my enquiry will be reported to and discussed at the headteachers' cluster meetings, and will be shared with the teachers within those clusters. The clusters will be the main target audience for my completed work, however, a report on my study will also be published by the National College for School Leadership (N.C.S.L.).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Introduction

Effective C.P.D. develops teachers professionally and, in so doing, improves schools' performance. The Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) defined C.P.D. as '... any activity that increases the skills, knowledge or understanding of teachers, and their effectiveness in schools' (DfEE, 2001, p3). Establishing a view of what C.P.D. is may be straightforward, but understanding its relationship to teachers as professionals is more complex. To offer such a judgement it is necessary to have an understanding of teachers' C.P.D. and of teachers as professionals.

C.P.D. for all is currently being promoted through government initiatives as a means of raising the professional status of teachers. However, because of central government requirements that they follow the 'directed routes' of prescriptive government led initiatives, teachers appear to have little control over the choice of their C.P.D., its prescribed content and direction. This new wave of C.P.D., by reducing the opportunities for 'chosen pathways', can be seen as reducing teachers' professionalism (Fielding, 1994; Bottery and Wright, 2000; MacBeath, 2008) and as a response this research, through a dual focus, explores teachers' C.P.D. and their role as professionals.

In this chapter I consider the historical context of education, highlighting the changes and developments that have formed the setting for this enquiry. I develop a view of teachers as professionals and the meaning and structure of C.P.D. in relation to the numerous government initiatives, following the Education Reform Act (1988). I examine the nature of C.P.D., how it has developed and how teachers' status as professionals has changed during this period. I consider the issue of deprofessionalisation and forms of professionalism including government professionalism and new professionalism along with what has traditionally been done to raise the 'professionalism' of teachers in terms of both status and practice and how

this has been informed or influenced by the C.P.D. teachers have experienced both before and following the Education Reform Act (1988).

Historical Context

Educational philosophy has always had a range of positions with the main areas categorised as traditionalist, subject orientated schooling and the more 'progressivist' holistic view of education. The rise of progressivism from the 1920s can be traced to the influence of a group of 'child-centred' educationists including Rousseau, Dewey, Froebel and Montessori (The Open University, 2001). Although there were distinctions between them, their beliefs, based on the value of experiential education and an extended view of the classroom that included the outdoors, had much in common. Their beliefs influenced pedagogic practice and challenged traditional methods of teaching and 'the emphasis moved from content to process, and from the acquisition of factual knowledge to the creation of enjoyable learning situations' (The Open University, 2001, p15). The preferred pedagogy is encapsulated in the following quotation:

'... we see that the curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored'

The Hadow Report (Board of Education, 1931, p75)

The preferred methods of the Hadow Report must, however, be viewed within the context of much traditional content-driven education. Through time, and explicit in the Plowden Report (1967), there was clear evidence of a mixture of teaching methods in primary schools and an acknowledgement of the influence of both traditional and progressive methods of teaching on the education system (The Open University, 2001).

From the early twentieth century there was continuous frustration amongst some educators as their progressive ideas failed to be widely adopted. Galton et al (1980, p39) suggest that a 'kind of back-log of progressive ideas and practices built up almost since 1911' and throughout the period of the Second World War when evacuation, poor resources and a degree of

autonomy combined to allow teachers to work more flexibly we see the emergence of a more progressive system. There was an element of liberation in those areas where the 11-plus had been abolished or profoundly modified, which was seen as an enriching experience where the curriculum broadened to include more creative subjects such as art, music, dance and drama. 'Nests of the new breakout', (Galton et al 1980, p39) were developing in Leicestershire, the West Riding of Yorkshire, Oxfordshire, London and Bristol, and it was mainly in these authorities, during the 1950s, that streaming began to be discarded gradually. In the 1960s, supported by the Plowden Report (1967), there was a general movement in junior schools away from streaming and formal class teaching towards child centred experiential education.

Whilst issues were raised about standards in education in the 1960s (Bottery and Wright, 2000) it took the deep financial difficulties brought about by the oil crisis of the mid-1970s to spark government action. In a speech at Ruskin College in 1976, Prime Minister James Callaghan questioned whether education was providing industry with a suitably trained workforce. The Ruskin College speech, in which Callaghan asserted that the government should play a greater part in education is considered, by many, to be a pivotal point in the process of change.

'Callaghan quoted R. H. Tawney: "What a wise parent would wish for their children, so the state must wish for all its children." And towards the end of his speech, he listed areas he wanted further discussion on: the "strong case for the so-called core curriculum of basic knowledge" and the "proper way of monitoring the use of resources in order to maintain a proper national standard of performance"; on examinations and how to provide for less academic students staying at school after 16; and how to improve relations between industry and education.'

(Woodward, 2001, p1)

Callaghan's speech represents a return to that basic view of education as articulated in the 1870 Act. More recently, Alexander (2001) maintained that the curricular reforms of the 1990s, following the 1988 Act with their emphasis on the basic subjects, similarly stem from the dominant values of the 1870s – 'economic instrumentalism, cultural reproduction and social control' (Alexander, 2001, p5).

Changing government attitudes and growing government involvement

In the 1977 Green Paper that followed Callaghan's Ruskin College speech, the Labour government made the following statement that Bottery and Wright (2000) claim has increasingly come to represent the attitudes of governments generally in the provision of education.

'It would not be compatible with the duties of the Secretaries of State to promote the education of the people of England and Wales, or with their accountability to Parliament, to abdicate from leadership on educational issues which have become a matter of lively public concern. (DES 1977 para. 2.19, cited in Bottery and Wright 2000, p13)

DES Circular 6/81 gave clear messages to L.E.As. and schools, regarding the government's advice on the curriculum. It was intended that this circular should be read with reference to 'The School Curriculum' (DES 1981) a paper published a little earlier in which the government's policy on curriculum content was confirmed. In this paper reference is made to the 1944 Education Act and the legal requirement to 'secure education suited to each pupil's age, ability and aptitude' (DES, 1981, p1) and the following six educational aims were set out:

- to help pupils develop lively, enquiring minds, the ability to question and argue rationally and to apply themselves to tasks, and physical skills;

- to help pupils to acquire knowledge and skills relevant to adult life and employment in a fast-changing world;
- to help pupils to use language and number effectively;
- to instil respect for religious and moral values, and tolerance of other races, religions and ways of life;
- to help pupils understand the world in which they live, and the inter-dependence of individuals, groups and nations;
- to help pupils to appreciate human achievements and aspirations.

(DES, 1981, p3)

There are clear links here between meeting the country's economic needs and new measures to take control of the curriculum. The L.E.As., charged with delivering a curriculum for their schools, became the key providers of In-service Education and Training (INSET). INSET courses provided curriculum support through the training of school based subject co-ordinators in primary schools and also secondary schools' heads of department. Circular 8/83 followed two years later and directed L.E.As. to confirm their position regarding curriculum policy, check whether their schools complied and set out their future plans. As a result of government intervention the curriculum was under scrutiny and L.E.As., through their advisers, were directed to encourage and promote improved practice and lead staff development. At this time L.E.As. ran many INSET courses in their local teachers' centres to support the teaching of a wide range of curricular subjects. L.E.A. advisers, who had responsibility for individual curriculum subjects, led INSET courses in their subject area. In the L.E.A. where I worked, and before the demarcation between core and foundation subjects that was made in the National Curriculum when it was introduced in 1991, INSET courses for Maths, English and Science had equal status with the full range of curriculum subjects and teachers had the opportunity to choose their INSET from a wide range of courses. This element of informed professional choice was characteristic of INSET before the Education Reform Act (1988).

The Education Reform Act (1988)

The Education Reform Act (1988) introduced the first statutory National Curriculum for state schools and with it arrangements for its implementation and assessment. In 1991, The National Curriculum programmes of study clearly set out what was to be taught and in so doing firmly established the government's control over the curriculum content in state schools. Levels of accountability were increasing and the schools' curricular autonomy was reduced. School inspections, originally carried out by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI), were now the responsibility of the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) established in 1992. Ofsted provided a rigorous inspection structure with a clearly prescribed framework that emphasised particular approaches to teaching and learning against which schools were graded. Where perceived poor standards raised concerns Ofsted had the power to instruct the LA to issue 'notices to improve' or, where there were cases of perceived inadequacy, place schools in 'special measures'. Those schools placed in 'special measures' were held to account and had to provide detailed action plans as well as having frequent further inspections. The inspection process, with its published detailed reports, made schools accountable within the public domain and, by reinforcing the prescribed curriculum and teaching standards, represented a move towards public managerialism and government control.

The 1988 Education Reform Act also brought with it the promise of compulsory testing for all pupils in state schools aged 7, 11 and 14 - "key stages 1, 2 and 3" - in the core curriculum subjects: Maths, English and Science. Testing was carried out at the end of each Key Stage through Standardised Achievement Tests (SATs) which were then published to create 'league tables' of each local authority's schools' performance in the core curriculum subjects. These school performance tables, first published in 1993, enabled parents to make comparisons between schools' levels of performance, and, when set alongside the published inspection reports, provided detailed information about the schools in terms of the government's educational priorities and procedures, and are further evidence of managerialism. The Act increased the number of parent representatives on school governing bodies, gave parents choice over their

children's schools, and expected schools to compete for pupils. Local Management for Schools (LMS), however, gave schools considerable financial autonomy allowing them to buy in services. All of these measures increased the forms and levels of schools' accountability, to both central government for curriculum content and pedagogy, and to parents as "consumers" of educational services.

Following the Dearing Review (1993), brought about by pressure from the teachers' unions due to their concerns over an unwieldy national curriculum and their boycott of pupils' tests (Barber, 1997), came a slimmer version of the national curriculum, a reduction in the level of testing to include only the core subjects, and the promise of a period with very few further changes. The curriculum was subsequently changed again in 2000 when Curriculum 2000, with its emphasis on the development of secondary education, was introduced. However, the National Literacy Strategy (N.L.S.) and the National Numeracy Strategy (N.N.S.) both introduced in 1998 demonstrated that the newly-elected Labour government intended to continue to tighten central control of education across both primary and secondary schools.

The introduction of Local Management for Schools (L.M.S.) and the withdrawal of funding from L.E.As. allowed schools to choose their own forms of professional development and support from a range of providers including the L.E.As. and an increasing number of independent consultants including universities. The organisational context of these changes was one of devolved financial management which was presented as enhancing rather than reducing school autonomy. However, the changes just outlined created pressure for more conformity to centrally-imposed and monitored standards and practice within a context of increased accountability.

Two further developments in education policy helped to make the period since the early 1980s one of the greatest periods of change in the history of education. Both increased further the accountability of teachers and headteachers by monitoring individual performance as well as school performance. The introduction of Headteacher appraisal by the government in the mid-1990s saw headteachers acting as both appraiser for colleagues

and appraisee. Performance management for teachers and headteachers followed with a more rigorous structure and targets linked to raising standards and with professional development linked to progression through the salary scales. Headteachers or senior members of staff would manage the performance management of teachers; governors jointly with an external adviser and then the School Improvement Partner (SIP) would manage the process for headteachers. It can be argued that the system of salary related performance management has had major implications for the nature of teaching and claims by teachers to professional status. Here we see accountability for individual performance within a strong managerialist and performative framework.

In an attempt to cover the new subject based curriculum, within this climate of increasing accountability, many primary schools returned to subject based teaching. This was supported by subject specific professional development, particularly in the core curriculum areas, and this impacted on the delivery of teachers' C.P.D. To implement initiatives, such as the National Curriculum (1989), the National Numeracy and Literacy Strategies, there was a requirement for practising teachers to be retrained quickly. In order to accomplish this, the 'one size fits all' training package became the established and expected method of delivery.

With the 'one size fits all' package there is an emphasis on speed of delivery and there is no reference to the range of learners such as theorists, pragmatists, activists and reflectors identified by Honey and Mumford (in Earley and Bubb, 2004). Earley and Bubb (2004) maintain that people rarely fall neatly into one of these categories but tend to have a preference for one or two learning styles. Teachers' preferred learning styles have a bearing on the C.P.D. courses they follow and, because they are also involved in the learning of others, an awareness of the importance of their own learning styles can impact on their work with children. Earley and Bubb (2004) see the relationship between 'the learning of teachers' as analogous to 'the health of doctors'. The universal 'one size fits all' form of training used for the government programmes, examined earlier, fails to allow for teachers' personal learning styles.

The use across L.E.As. of these prescriptive training packages, created and funded by the DfEE, enabled the new initiatives to be delivered quickly with the costs met by DfEE funding rather than from the schools' own budgets. This approach, driven by the government's agenda, is central to my enquiry and raises issues regarding the emphasis on training rather than the educational development of teachers.

In-Service Education and Training (INSET) and CPD

Before the Education Reform Act (1988) teachers' access to INSET was controlled by the L.E.As., who held the funding for these courses, and places were limited. Funding was also used to allow seconded teachers to take diplomas and higher degrees but, as with INSET provision, funding was limited and only a small proportion of teachers was able to take advantage of this opportunity. Many of those who were fortunate enough to be selected for secondment would engage in practitioner research within their own schools or departments.

Working in schools from the early 1970s I was comfortable with the methods of staff development such as those encouraged and developed by Sir Alec Clegg, Chief Education Officer of the West Riding of Yorkshire until 1974. Under Clegg's distinctive leadership it had been the L.E.A.'s policy to model good practice by using exceptionally good practitioners to lead courses for their colleagues. This was often in a residential setting in one of the county's residential colleges. The courses, which spanned the curriculum, included Art, Music and Drama. I found that the courses offered a richness of experience for the teachers and provided lots of opportunities for them to observe good practice. Raising standards tended to be implicit rather than explicit but, nevertheless, expectations of pupils' achievement were high. This was a time when the primary curriculum was integrated and topic based rather than subject based, and natural links between subjects were encouraged. Here child centred experiential learning was promoted across a broad and balanced curriculum. Clegg's leadership, although not representative of universal practice (Galton et al, 1980), did represent the

thinking behind most INSET at that time and was in complete contrast with the directed C.P.D. of the last fifteen years.

It could be argued, however, that because of the relatively small numbers of teachers involved, impact on the whole profession was minimal compared to more recent national training initiatives, such as those used for the introduction of the N.N.S. and N.L.S. as part of the government's move to reconceptualise the idea of teaching as a profession. With the emergence of government national training initiatives C.P.D. gradually replaced INSET as the generic terminology for staff development and covered a wide range of development along with new and broader areas of development which were supported by a range of providers in addition to the LEAs.

Where changes are determined by central government and where these changes are planned to take effect within a very tight time scale the training of headteachers and teachers has to be fast. In the wake of the Education Reform Act (1988) came a series of training courses for headteachers and teachers to facilitate the implementation of the National Curriculum and later the N.N.S. and the N.L.S. They had to be instructed in the new ways in order that the government's policies, and in particular the phased introduction of the National Curriculum, could be implemented speedily.

The government's National Curriculum in its original form proved to be too large to be delivered within the normal school timetable. In response to pressure from the teachers' unions and their threat to boycott the implementation of SATs. the Dearing Review (1993) produced a slimmer version of the National Curriculum and the promise of a period without major changes. In 1998 the National Literacy and National Numeracy Strategies were introduced by David Blunkett and training was delivered to teachers through national packages. Tutors were recruited and trained to deliver these prescriptive packages within a short time scale. The training events for headteachers were called 'conferences' but there was little room to debate the issues and principles behind the strategies. In the Numeracy and Literacy Strategies headteachers and subject co-ordinators each received relevant information packs and were trained by L.E.A. advisers on local

courses and expected to 'cascade' their knowledge to the rest of the staff back at school. Dadds (2001) (about which more will be said below), in conversation with headteachers, recognised that many teachers and headteachers, overwhelmed by the rate and amount of change, were 'on the brink of bowing out to the experts' (Dadds, 2001 p51). During this period of change following the Education Reform Act (1988) there appeared to be little or no resistance to the new national curriculum from teachers or their professional associations.

In addition to the classroom-focused training packages for the N.L.S and N.N.S, central government also introduced leadership training and management development programmes for headteachers and senior staff.

Educational consultancies were invited to bid to undertake the delivery of these including the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (N.P.Q.H.) and the Leadership Programme for Serving Heads (L.P.S.H.) later to be delivered exclusively through the N.C.S.L. These are both competence based models which were established to promote standardised leadership practice within the scheme of the government's new professionalism (discussed below, p21).

With the introduction of national training initiatives, where the objective was to retrain as many teachers as possible within a very limited time scale, we see the adoption of prescriptive 'one size fits all' training. The plan for the implementation of the National Numeracy Strategy (DfEE, 1998a), with its short time scale and prescriptive training, established the way that teachers were trained in the new Strategy on a national scale. Dadds (2001), commenting on such prescriptive training methods, refers to teachers being treated like 'empty vessels' with no consideration to their prior knowledge or experience.

This plan may well have been an effective method of passing on information quickly, but it is very different to viewing C.P.D. as education and where the values of education are likely to be discussed. There is indeed some conflict here between the way in which 'training' in the curriculum is

delivered to teachers and the expectation that teachers should 'educate' their pupils. When I attended L.E.A. training sessions for staff Performance Management (2003) in response to the government's policy to link teachers' personal targets to their progression through the salary scales and the government's policy on 'Workforce Remodelling' (2004), which aimed to improve pupil outcomes and reduce the workload of teachers by focusing more of teachers' time on teaching and learning, I was reminded of this conflict as I observed large groups of headteachers being subjected, through 'Powerpoint' presentations, to a technological form of didactic 'chalk and talk' training. It is an interesting paradox when we see educationalists using methods they would not advise teachers to use in the classroom, and without any consideration of individuals' preferred learning styles. As there appears to be little or no criticism from teachers it may be that they passively accept this level of training; this is a view supported by Dadds (2001). Dadds is critical of teachers' passive and accepting attitudes in as much as they generally appear to comply with, rather than challenge, change. She considers that the acceptance of change without challenge may well be symptomatic of a general lack of professional confidence and self esteem. These prescriptive methods of training were very different from previous forms of C.P.D. experienced by teachers and the use of the 'one size fits all' deficit model, based on the idea of teachers as 'empty vessels' (Dadds, 2001), can be seen as deprofessionalising.

Towards a New Professionalism?

With the publication of the DfES's 'Teachers' Standards Framework' (2001), and the General Teaching Council for England's (G.T.C.) expectation that every teacher should have access to appropriate C.P.D. throughout their career, development frameworks are now in place and aligned with the government's standards agenda.

'An entitlement to professional development should enable all teachers to enhance their professional knowledge and pedagogic practice in order to: raise standards of achievement for all pupils, manage change,

pursue their own personal and professional development.’

(G.T.C., 2000, para 1.1)

This statement, which begins the G.T.C.’s advice to the government on teachers’ C.P.D. is in line with the government’s claim for a ‘new professionalism’ (Storey, 2009) and gives a clear steer for what is to come. The G.T.C.’s promise of a general C.P.D. ‘entitlement’ for all teachers is important as it establishes the teachers’ right to an expected minimum level as well as establishing a system through which government initiatives can be delivered. The G.T.C. sets out their rationale for C.P.D. for all, but does not refer to the forms that this C.P.D. might take. Whether the G.T.C.’s promise is working in practice, however, remains to be seen.

The government’s ‘new professionalism’ is promoted through the Revised Framework of Professional Standards for Teachers (TDA, 2008) which outlines the requirements needed to progress through the six main scale salary points and then move on to the three post-threshold points. Teachers’ promotion through this new structure is dependent upon the successful outcome of their annual performance management review, which is likely to focus on the schools’ priorities as set out in the School Development Plan (S.D.P.) and may be linked to teachers completing relevant areas of C.P.D.

The S.D.P. is the main driver for school improvement and the result of school self evaluation; it is the plan that identifies the school’s development needs. This important document is required to be shared with staff and governors and is a key document during Ofsted inspections. With the relationship between C.P.D., school improvement and the standards agenda it is questionable whether this form of ‘professional development’, which is based on a competence model where performance is linked to salary, should be considered as true professional development as it is prescriptive and directed; it can be viewed as deprofessionalising.

In my research there was no evidence that the G.T.C.’s advice was being followed. However, the Rural L.E.A.¹ in their leaflet ‘Continuing

¹ Rural LEA is a pseudonym to preserve anonymity

Professional Development Strategy' (2004) provides a guarantee that all staff should have access to an appropriate range and variety of C.P.D. linked through performance management to national initiatives including the Standards Framework, National Strategies and School Improvement Planning. The implementation of this Local Education Authority's C.P.D. Strategy rests with the school where it is recommended that a teacher and a governor be responsible for the oversight of C.P.D. which is linked directly with teachers' Performance Management. In the cluster schools researched for this study, the role of C.P.D. co-ordinator was an additional role for the headteacher. In line with the report commissioned by the T.D.A. (Pedder et al, 2008) most C.P.D. was found to be pragmatic and often disconnected from the performance management process.

Looking back at developments in education from the 1970s and 1980s it is clear that schools' autonomy has been reduced as control of the curriculum has shifted from the school to the government. The debates of the 1960s and 1970s have led to policy changes and, following the Education Reform Act (1988), a shift of control and a new wave of initiatives. This shift in control applies not only to the curriculum but also to the content and delivery methods of C.P.D. as teachers find themselves responding to a multitude of government initiatives. With the control of C.P.D. resting firmly with the government, and with the content of C.P.D. determined by national initiatives, the choice and control of C.P.D. is removed from individual schools together with much of their autonomy. This can be viewed as deprofessionalising and is discussed further below (p 27).

The significant reforms that followed the 1988 Act not only impacted on the role of teachers in the classroom but also challenged their professional status. The string of government initiatives, with their strictly timed delivery schedules and prescriptive content, had implications for teachers as professionals and with the move towards the 'new professionalism' teachers' autonomy was being eroded. Teachers were being directed by government policies and, along with new systems of public accountability, there were fundamental changes that conflicted with the underlying

ideology that had previously recognised the school's control of the curriculum and its approaches to pedagogy.

In this discussion I have suggested several times that the policies and practices underpinning CPD provision since the 1988 Act may be “deprofessionalising” teachers. In order to understand the relationship between teachers’ C.P.D., their attitude towards it and the implications for teachers as professionals, it is appropriate now to explore the extent to which we can consider teaching as a profession and the position of teachers as professionals.

The nature of a ‘profession’

In his review of the early literature on professionalism Troman (in Hextall et al, 2007) points to the work of Flexner (1915) and Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1933) as classic texts in the functionalist tradition. This early writing focused on ‘listing and defining the features or traits of a professional group’ (Hextall et al, 2007, p30) as a form of classification. During the 1950s and 1960s the ‘trait theory’ was widely used with barristers and doctors providing the basic model for many other professions (Siegrist, 1994). A defining trait is the need for specialist esoteric knowledge as evidenced in the medical and legal professions. There is public agreement that doctors and lawyers need to use specialist esoteric knowledge, but the public does not extend this view to teachers and social workers (Simpson and Simpson, 1969). It can be argued, however, that the government’s claim to be creating a ‘new professionalism’ (DfEE, 1998b), along with the prescribed curriculum, new forms of assessment and pupil monitoring systems, has generated a knowledge base that is equivalent to esoteric language and practice.

Leading professions formed themselves into institutions or associations, defined their entry qualifications and supervised the ethical standards and conduct of their members. Defining a ‘profession’, however, is acknowledged to be problematic, there being no single commonly agreed definition (Freidson, 1983).

The 'trait theory' which confirms the status of the older established professions of law and medicine, also relegates others to the lower ranks and represents a traditional but narrow view. However, this traditional view of the professions as 'gentlemen's clubs', whose self regulating constitutions are based on principles of service and public interest, is challenged on the basis that it ignores their symbiotic relationship with the state (Johnson and Illich cited in Mungham and Thomas, 1983). With the increasingly complex division of labour from the 1960s onwards there developed what became known as 'bureau-professionalism' (Hextall et al, 2007) which is a traditional hierarchical relationship, where users are dependent on experts to define their needs, and where the service is overseen and regulated by local or central government politicians. During the 1970s, researchers focused on the twin concepts of 'professionalism' and 'professionalisation'. With the expansion of education and training and an emphasis on professionalisation as a societal development the traditional view of the professional became harder to justify. Burrage (1984), examining the legal and medical professions in France, the U.S.A. and England, recognises the effect of expanding university education on the professions and particularly the importance of the universities where the formalisation of professional knowledge takes place and where C.P.D. is designed, delivered and given status.

Based on a direct comparison with the law and medicine there is a view of teachers as marginal or "semi-professionals" (Simpson and Simpson, 1969; Etzioni, 1969). The substance of this argument centres on teachers' lack of specialist esoteric knowledge (Simpson and Simpson, 1969; Eraut, 1994). This so called semi-professional group, which includes teachers, nurses and social workers is said to lack the esoteric knowledge which is evident in the law and medicine and without which the public does not grant a mandate (Simpson and Simpson, 1969). Certainly in teaching where most knowledge is accessible public knowledge, this is the case. The lack of esoteric knowledge and the absence of the public's mandate, along with the need for bureaucratic state control resulting in weak orientation towards autonomy, positions teachers in the lower ranks as semi-professionals (Simpson and Simpson, 1969; Etzioni, 1969; Eraut, 1994). Hargreaves (2000), by taking a

linear developmental view of professional practice, conceptualizes professionalism into four phases – ‘the pre-professional age’, ‘the age of the autonomous professional’, ‘the age of the collegial professional’ and the ‘post-professional or post-modern age’, and argues that contemporary discourse and experience of teacher professionalism borrows features from all four phases. Hargreaves (2000) believes we are on the edge of post-modern professionalism, and warns that by defining professional standards of knowledge and skills, as in the case of the government’s ‘new professionalism, then equally important emotional areas of teachers’ work may be marginalised, making the point that ‘in teaching, stronger professionalisation does not always mean greater professionalism’ (Hargreaves, 2000, p152).

This notion of professionalism, with its inherent difficulties of definition, can be perceived as a restricting and tired concept which could well be abandoned (Grundy, 1989). In its place Grundy argues for a wider critical view that is ‘a fresh way of looking at teachers’ work and human action through which educators can move beyond professionalism’ (Grundy, 1989, p79) and proposes the idea of ‘pratique’, described as ‘a critical disposition through which the fundamental assumptions underpinning a practice may be examined’ (Grundy, 1989, p80), as a guiding disposition for occupational action. In short this wider view also includes developing the area of professionalism and its associated ideology, thus giving teachers a professional voice and increased control of their profession. Grundy sees the traditional view of professionalism as developmentally limiting as the trait theory precludes many ‘lesser professions’ or ‘semi professions’. His call for a wider view of professionalism which includes elements of ideology, a professional voice and increased autonomy although refreshing is in contrast to the new professionalism being promoted by the government.

The development of ‘new professionalism’ and the role of the state

In contrast to these views, which reflect teachers as semi-professional and of relatively low status, there have been a number of developments in education during the last decade that suggest that teaching is being

promoted by the G.T.C. and the N.C.S.L. in keeping with the government's plan for a 'new professionalism' (Storey, 2009). This new professionalism, promoted and engineered by the government, is dependent upon imposed competence based models of performance and a rigorous inspection system. It has not however grown out of discussions between the teachers' unions and professional associations. The General Teaching Council (G.T.C.) was launched in 2000 by the Teaching and Higher Education Act (1998), with the stated intention of developing teaching as a profession. The G.T.C. (2005) promotes a range of teachers' C.P.D. with an emphasis on policy and practitioner research and the National College for School Leadership (N.C.S.L.), established in November 2000, draws together many areas of development for school leaders and co-ordinates the main leadership training programmes, including the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (N.P.Q.H.), which is now a mandatory requirement for headship, and a range of training for middle managers including 'Leading from the Middle'. The N.C.S.L., now renamed the National College, as it has taken over responsibility for training and developing leaders of integrated children's services, is government funded and subject to government control. It remains to be seen whether it will, through its policies along with the G.T.C., actually raise the status of teaching as a profession.

Referring to the initiatives described above it would appear that the state is taking on the task of promoting teaching from its semi-professional status to a higher professional level. This process of repositioning teaching as a profession comes at a time when there are strong state controls on practice and policy and where teachers' knowledge and practice are very prescriptive. The promotion of teaching by the state can be viewed as 'government-professionalism' as the state continues its interest in and control of the development of teachers by promoting and funding the G.T.C., T.D.A. and N.C.S.L. Burrage (1984) identified the state as controlling the power of the professions and here we can see the government, in its apparent attempt to raise the status of teaching as a profession, circumscribing their actions and maintaining firm control.

Under the umbrella of the N.C.S.L. competence based models are used in programmes such as the N.P.Q.H. where the courses are based around the perceived attributes of 'outstanding' headteachers. This approach can be viewed as reductionist, in that the range of attributes is limited to one preferred model, and therefore anti-professional, since there is a danger of creating a conception of school leadership as a purely managerial enterprise (Pascal and Ribbins, 1998). When allied to the salary related performance management structure outlined above, the knowledge base of the 'new professionalism', which requires conformity to the prescribed competence based model, can be seen as a managerial approach to teaching rather than a professional one because of its prescriptive nature and line management accountability, and raises the question of whether the 'new professionalism', with its lack of autonomy, can actually be interpreted as professionalism at all. This point is taken up in more detail below.

Within the 'new professionalism' the teaching standards and teachers' entitlement to C.P.D. are intended to combine to give a feeling of increased professionalism, together with the revised Performance Management framework which gives teachers access to the Upper Pay Scales by crossing the so-called "Threshold" between the two scales and allows them to develop their careers within the classroom and in line with the national standards promoted by the Teacher Training Agency (T.T.A.) and Teacher Development Agency (T.D.A.). Previously most teachers looking for promotion had to move schools for positions such as assistant headteacher or deputy headteacher. The new process allows more teachers to progress through the salary scales without changing schools. Teachers agree their annual performance targets with their headteacher, based on the school's development plan and with regard to their progress within the standards in teaching and learning, and their progress up the pay scale is dependent upon the successful outcome of their annual performance review. The Performance Management framework along with the above initiatives, promoted through the G.T.C. and the N.C.S.L., would appear to promote the image of the 'new professionalism' by offering the rewards of salary progression in return for meeting development targets, however, the policy developments they support remain controlling and government directed. It

can be argued that the new framework, centred around the G.T.C. and the N.C.S.L., gives only the illusion of professional status and confirms the high level of state control.

When considering the political implications of this proposed new professionalism it is helpful to look at the political role of the N.C.S.L. Thrupp (2005) in his critique of the N.C.S.L. noted how the DfES funding for the N.C.S.L. had increased substantially from £29.2 million in 2001-2 to £111.3 million in 2004-5. The N.C.S.L. provides a single national focus for school leadership, development and research. Thrupp claimed that school leaders, surveyed in 2001, believed that the N.C.S.L. ...

‘needed to show its independence and demonstrate that it was not simply another arm of the government, or more specifically the DfES’

(Earley and Evans 2004, cited in Thrupp, 2005, p14)

The N.C.S.L.’s close relationship to the government and the DfES (Thrupp, 2005) placed it in a strong position to influence government policy directly. This has continued since he wrote in 2005, however with all N.P.Q.H. training being controlled by the N.C.S.L. along with numerous leadership programmes, and with approximately 50% of UK’s educational research funded by the N.C.S.L. (Thrupp, 2005) there remain concerns about its independence. Despite this, the PricewaterhouseCoopers report (DfES, 2007) states that the majority of participants in the N.P.Q.H and its associated Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers valued the programmes. Although much research has been commissioned on behalf of the N.C.S.L. Thrupp claimed that very little has been written about it in terms of critical analysis.

The G.T.C., T.D.A. and N.C.S.L., driven by government policy promote the ‘new professionalism’ alongside the government’s tight control measures over the content, delivery, assessment of the curriculum, and the professional development of teachers, rather than through attempts at professional self-regulation. Political control would appear to be firmly in

place. The structure of the 'new-professionalism' (Storey, 2009) is based on the following interrelated areas: a national framework of professional standards, performance management and C.P.D. and has been evident in official literature since 1998 (Storey, 2009). In her article (Storey, 2009) identifies C.P.D. as the weakest part of the structure of the new-professionalism as it remains 'mainly as a bolt-on, pragmatically allocated and inconsistently accessed by schools' (Storey, 2009, p121). Pedder et al (2008) in the State of the Nation Report found that C.P.D. was falling short of the government's expectations and was, in many schools, disconnected from the T.D.A.'s policy of professional development. This was true of the cluster schools in this research. It is argued (Beck 2008, cited in Storey, 2009, p 122) that the outcome is actually one of deprofessionalisation and an attempt to silence the debate on professionalism. The way N.Q.Ts., worked in their first year in school through planning, C.P.D., evaluation and further target-setting, represented 'new professionalism' in action (Storey, 2009) as they worked towards the government's competences that equate to esoteric knowledge. However, for more experienced teachers, who did not receive this systematic training, the lack of strategically planned C.P.D. was considered as a barrier to the new professionalism (Pedder et al, 2008; Storey, 2009); instead they may have been socialised into seeing themselves as professionals within the new professionalism model.

State control and 'new professionalism'

Control is clearly evident within the framework of school development, where school development plans, along with school self evaluation, play a key role in Ofsted inspections. Control measures also extend to teachers' and headteachers' performance through the Performance Management system which is presented by the government as offering a route for teachers' personal development and as part of the development of a 'new professionalism' (T.D.A., 2008). However, because of the annual cycle of Performance Management, targets are generally short term and may detract from longer term development as teachers. The relationship between teachers' Performance Management, C.P.D., and the School Development Plan establishes the short term target as the norm. It can be argued (Gewirtz 2002) that the current form of Performance Management inhibits teachers

gaining professional status by creating short term target setting as a model of practice, and as a driver for personal training and development. The reinforcement of the hierarchical line-management structure, necessary for the statutory process of Performance Management, can be presented as directly opposed to the collegial model found within the established professions. Hargreaves (2000) however, as discussed above (p26), views collegial professionalism not as a single form of professionalism but as part of a linear view of professionalism where, in practice, aspects of all four parts are valid. Gewirtz (2002) identifies a range of controls and constraints in teaching from the allocation of classes, curriculum content, and the availability of resources, to teachers' performance targets. With the increased competitiveness of target setting and the monitoring of performance Gewirtz sees 'the narrowing of definitions of performance associated with the new managerialism' (Gewirtz, 2002 p.72) and believes that the performance-orientated climate of schools encourages the borrowing of 'macho styles' of management from the private sector. However, in terms of managerial leadership Goddard (2003) considers that there is a place for 'managerial leadership in moderation and moderation in management' (Goddard, 2003, p15).

In their discussion on the deprofessionalisation of teachers Bottery and Wright (2000, p 29) claim that if teachers are continually directed to follow each government initiative and have difficulty dealing with constriction upon their autonomy then, they argue, it threatens their position as professionals. Here they suggest that the very process of development that should indeed move teachers closer to a greater level of professionalism is, in fact, doing the opposite. On the one hand they recognise new forms of professionalism, encouraged through new regulatory structures, whilst on the other they see teachers experiencing the erosion of their professional autonomy. In my research, contrary to Bottery and Wright's claim, I found that teachers didn't appear to struggle with restrictions on their autonomy which may indicate some acceptance of the 'new professionalism'.

Dadds (2001) discussed above (p 21) refers to teachers' passive acceptance of new initiatives and the system treating teachers 'like empty vessels' and

challenges the effectiveness of C.P.D. based on the 'delivery' or 'deficit' model. She maintains that if teachers are constantly told that they need to improve and follow the 'delivery' or 'deficit' models of C.P.D. then their self image as a professional suffers.

The concept of the 'benefits' or 'growth' model on the one hand and the 'sanctions' or 'deficit' model on the other is important as they lie at the heart of the various forms of C.P.D. Dadds argues that where teachers are constantly following prescriptive training packages, such as those used in the N.L.S. and N.N.S. training, where training packages were designed to be delivered simultaneously to cohorts of teachers across the country, this will lead to deprofessionalisation. As indicated above (p 19) those who presented the training had themselves to be trained in its delivery, and presentations were tightly timed with very little opportunity for questions or discussion. This training was delivered as prescribed and it can be argued that recipients, like the course presenters, were reduced to the role of the technician teacher who delivers someone else's lesson. Both Bottery and Wright (2000) and Dadds (2001) paint a picture of current teacher development as one of directed routes rather than chosen pathways; routes that are predetermined and based on established levels of competence within prescribed areas. It can be argued that the prescriptive route not only reduces teachers' professional status but also positions them overtly as agents of the state. This form of technician training, which was designed and used as an effective method of passing on information and instructions, does not allow for debate or discussion that challenges its purpose or related ideology, thus raising the question of its appropriateness as a means of 'professional' development. However, as we shall see when we discuss Bolam's tripartite model, didactic instruction need not necessarily be inappropriate for professional development. This will depend on the extent to which it presents new forms of professional practice, such as pedagogical change, that professionals should properly debate, as opposed to passing on information such as changes in health and safety legislation.

Commodification and Consumerism as policy drivers

With the emergence and domination of Thatcherism and the effects of the 'market place economy', evident in the Education Act (1988) through the open market approach to school places, came concerns that inappropriate business language had become established within education as a result of political and economic forces and growing managerialism (Fielding, 1994). This 'business culture' brought with it not only the 'performance indicators', 'quality assurance' and a 'new system of management' discussed above (p 31), but also a whole new language system. Referring to his notion of 'linguistic robbery' he explains '... not only does it deprive the individual of a means of expression, it diminishes the possibility of understanding, and by implication, critiquing the world in a particular way' (Fielding, 1994, p19). Fielding views these changes as the outward signs of a system which both deprofessionalises and disempowers. His concerns were that through this 'semantic violence' the alternative vocabulary, if widely adopted, would ultimately impact upon our view of education. As the emphasis moved from creativity to the measurement of performance and positions in league tables, we were urged to use statistical analysis to set targets and improve 'standards'. Fielding's (1994) argument extends to include a critical view of professional learning offered to teachers which he sees as 'mechanistic, unremitting and almost exclusively utilitarian' (Fielding, 1994, p 23). He claimed that teachers were reduced to the role of 'curriculum courier' and that curriculum initiatives were presented as complete without the opportunity for discussion. This indeed was the case with the National Curriculum and the subsequent N.N.S. and N.L.S. discussed above (p.19) where the structured training packs included video clips of practitioners who were shown following the guidelines of the strategy. The message was clear – this is how it is done.

It is now 15 years since Fielding's work was published and many of his worst fears have become accepted practice. The T.D.A. Standards Framework, Ofsted publications and material produced by the National College embody the 'new language' and it is interesting that in my research there would appear to be a general supportive acceptance of the current

system and also a familiarity, perhaps even some ownership, of the 'new language'. However, Fielding was writing before the development of 'new professionalism' and his argument supports a view of diminished professionalism and of teachers as deprofessionalised.

It is notable that as the N.N.S. and N.L.S., along with Performance Management and Threshold, where teachers cross the threshold between lower and upper pay scales, have become part of our lives and are embedded in our routines, the resistance felt at their inception and articulated by Fielding (1994) has apparently been forgotten and together with other major changes in education they have been 'taken on board' with very little resistance. Fielding's criticism of the technical nature of C.P.D. draws upon the lack of humanity which reduces it to a soulless process., and against this critical background, where methods of training are called into question, teachers are charged to implement change quickly, effectively and faithfully. There is constant pressure for teachers to keep up with government initiatives focused on the school improvement agenda. Bennett and Marr (2003) along with Dadds (2001) identify this as a 'deficit-remedying' model of C.P.D., the implication being that through the process of C.P.D. there will be perceived improvement.

Bottery and Wright (2000), researching external control of INSET provision, explored the influence of government policy. From their research in schools it was evident that INSET priorities were generated more from internal than from external sources; however, they believed the figures masked the reality, and suggested that 'it could be seen as a mark of success of government policy that their aims and priorities had been significantly taken on by schools in this respect' (Bottery and Wright 2000, p63). They suggest that schools have absorbed external demands to such an extent that they have become the schools' demands too. If this was the case the selection of C.P.D. activities would be viewed as non-controversial. Bottery and Wright (2000) support this hypothesis in two ways. Firstly they claim that new priorities are generally seen as internally generated, and therefore not associated directly with government policy, and secondly that schools' C.P.D. priorities, as articulated in the S.D.P., did not match those they

would choose in an ideal world. This would support the view that the control of C.P.D. is driven by external policies. This theory is closely linked to the discussion on the 'deprofessionalisation' of teachers discussed above (p 32) where it is claimed that the external control of C.P.D. provides directed routes rather than chosen pathways (Bottery and Wright, 2000; Dadds, 2001), thus removing the capacity for informed professional choice. If Bottery's hypothesis is correct it is likely that the actual control of teachers' C.P.D. rests firmly with those directing the new initiatives and not with the schools themselves. The 'Every Child Matters' initiative along with the extended schools scheme are government initiatives that schools are directed to receive training on and which clearly occupy time set aside for staff development.

Related to Fielding's concern over the inappropriate use of language borrowed from the business world discussed above (p 33) and in line with the earlier discussion on managerialism (p 15) and commodification (p 33) are two important publications which develop this argument, by Mulderrig (2002) and Gray (2007), and it is worth looking at them more closely.

Mulderrig's (2002) analysis of policy documents reveals frequent references to the regulatory functions which include meeting targets, standards for pupils and teachers, and the link between pay and performance. Her findings support the work of Bottery and Wright (2000) (p 31) and Fielding (1994) (p 33) discussed earlier and Alexander's (2001) claim discussed above (p 13) that the curriculum reforms of the 1990s stem from the dominant values of 1870s' 'economic instrumentalism, cultural reproduction and social control' (Alexander, 2001 p5). She claims that her analysis demonstrates that policy makers are increasingly treating education as a commodity within a consumer driven society where the outcomes of education support the nation's economy within a global market. Within this system, pupils become the measurable commodities; it is their progress that is measured and their teachers who are held to account through a form of quality control and end of Key Stage SATs, inspections and the process of teachers' performance management.

Mulderrig concludes that although the education policies of New Labour claim to give teachers greater professionalism they mask the subordination of education to government policy. My own experience of accountability measures is that it is not unusual for teachers to have annual performance management targets based on their pupils' academic progress.

Gray (2007) suggests that with the movement towards commodification and the adoption of a competence based approach to the education of younger pupils in particular, is undermining teachers' professionalism and creating practices that misinform parents of their children's progress. Through an analysis of samples of planning, assessment and routine documentation in pre-school and Early Years settings, she argues that the occupational culture of teachers has changed as a result of increased managerialism and the development of an overly systematised approach which, she maintains, has led to confusion over reporting pupils' progress. She claims that the Education Reform Act (1988) has had a profound effect on the way education is delivered in England, creating a quasi-standardised model of curriculum delivery within which teachers are forced to work if they are to be considered to be effective. As a result, the combination of education policy, curriculum content and new assessment frameworks 'can undermine the role of the child as an individual within the schooling process' (Gray, 2007, p194).

Compliance and Subversion

Whereas Mulderrig (2002) and Gray (2007) discuss the systemic pressures of educational policy change, MacBeath (2008) examines the way in which these pressures are being transformed into action. He examines headteachers' management of government policy changes through the attitudes of a group of twelve primary and secondary headteachers who stand on the boundary between the school and the system. They have the means to create some space between formal policy requirements and their professional judgement. He identifies, through in depth interviews with the headteachers, a mixture of responses which include elements of both compliance and subversion and recognises that the policy environment can be viewed as either supportive or oppressive. Where it is considered to be

supportive it is seen as constructive, helpful curriculum guidance that provides a clear message about what is to be taught and how. However, where it is considered to be unwelcome, imposed government policy, we also see an alternative construction of the policy environment where headteachers operate subversively in order to survive and continue to do what they consider to be important for staff and children. It can be argued that through this subversive response, which enables headteachers to remain faithful to their ideology and, at the same time, fulfil national policy requirements, although not in line with the expectations of 'new professionalism', headteachers are exercising their professionalism. MacBeath's article, published twenty years after the 1988 Education Reform Act, demonstrates how major policy changes, willingly or unwillingly, are adopted and implemented.

Mulderrig, Gray and McBeath confirm that teachers have accepted new initiatives relatively uncritically and without resistance which reinforces my earlier argument (see also Dadds, 2001). I was keen to develop this area and, in my research I explore the data to discover whether there are any age related issues.

The Meaning and structure of CPD

The policy developments discussed above, and the growing importance of the new professionalism as a basis for CPD provision, make it appropriate to consider in more detail how continuing professional development has developed and changed since it first became a part of teacher training.

The nature of initial teacher training, in-service education and training and continuing professional development became the focus of much attention following the formation of the T.T.A. in 1994. However, there are many definitions of C.P.D. Perhaps the most comprehensive, and at the same time the most unwieldy, definition of C.P.D. is that of Day (1999) which serves to demonstrate the complex nature of this area.

'Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities

that are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school and which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills, and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives.' (Day, 1999, p 4)

Day's definition would appear to be all embracing and goes beyond the many simplified definitions relating only to the acquisition of knowledge and teaching skills. This wide definition encompasses INSET and all forms of mandatory C.P.D. including imposed government initiatives. However, Day refers to the important aspect of teachers as agents of change, and the expectation that professional development is all embracing and stretches across teachers' careers. His definition goes beyond the simplistic delivery of the 'training package' and challenges the content of the training package along with the ideology underpinning the content and control of the curriculum.

As Day's (1999) definition indicates, the importance of C.P.D. for the teaching profession, was not a new concept at the launch of the government's C.P.D. Strategy in 2001 (Earley and Bubb, 2004). However, the first national enquiry into in-service education training did not begin until 1970; at this time Cert. Ed. teachers had the opportunity to upgrade their qualifications to degree level and Open University courses were being produced. Tomlinson, cited in Earley and Bubb (2004), recognised the broad assumption that initial training was sufficient to last through a teacher's career and that '... the task of the teacher remained constant.' (Earley and Bubb, 2004, p. 6). The James Report (1972) followed with its recommendations for change and the professional development of teachers became a national issue.

The James Report, published four years ahead of James Callaghan's Ruskin College speech, defined C.P.D. within the context of developments in the 1970s and references to improved standards are at best only implied. Over twenty years later Bolam's advice to the G.T.C. (1993), whilst it encouraged personal and professional development, placed the emphasis firmly on the improvement of teaching and learning which fits well with the government's 'standards agenda'. By tying CPD to the government's agenda of the new professionalism Bolam's analysis is open to the criticism associated with the managerialist route (Fielding, 1994; Bottery and Wright, 2000) and as the new professionalism affects teachers' report writing, the critique of Mulderrig (2002) and Gray (2007).

However, it was necessary for the purposes of this research, to find a workable framework that would both relate to the teachers and also, because of its analytical dimension, act as a research tool. Despite the criticisms that can be made of it, Bolam's model (1993), with its tripartite categorisation of forms of CPD provision, provides a helpful analytical framework. It draws a clear distinction between 'Professional Training', 'Professional Education' and 'Professional Support'. It is possible to amplify this tripartite distinction by reference to the various kinds of CPD activity that might be available to teachers.

- 1 Professional training:
 - (a) Subject based training delivered to support the strategies or specific subject teaching including N.L.S. and N.N.S.
 - (b) Training in management based activities to help teachers deliver their role e.g. subject co-ordinator or Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCo).
 - (c) Peripheral training e.g. first aid and child protection training
- 2 Professional Education:
 - (a) Longer Award bearing courses that examine educational practice and take a view

of beliefs and values in education e.g. higher degrees and diplomas

(b) Non award bearing practitioner research and reflective practice e.g. small scale enquiry

(c) Non award bearing courses and conferences that examine current educational practice

3 Professional Support:

(a) Formal support from colleagues including the areas of Workplace Learning and Communities of Practice.

(b) Informal support from colleagues

(c) Support from external advisers and others e.g. LEA advisers and Advanced Skills Teachers

Bolam's definition is a helpful starting point for more detailed analysis. Some C.P.D. activities will fall neatly into one category whereas others may not. In theory the differences between 'education' and 'training' may be clear, but in practice it may be difficult to make an informed distinction, particularly where elements of training and education merge. My data suggest that many teachers view the preparation for the N.L.S. and N.N.S. as 'training' whereas others consider it to be 'education'; some suggest that it contained elements of 'education' and 'training'. Bolam's model, however, because of its clearly defined areas, is very useful for the following reasons. By drawing the distinction between education and training it allows teachers to consider the most appropriate category for their C.P.D. activity. Professional Education, in the form of long courses, occurs over and above the statutory C.P.D. days and involves a considerable personal commitment from staff. By identifying and valuing this element of C.P.D. Bolam acknowledges its importance along with professional training and support. The area of professional support is broad and includes the support offered by those such as advisory teachers, curriculum leaders, heads and advisers. It also embraces the 'on the job' informal support that is given by colleagues to colleagues and occasionally, as I discovered, by pupils to teachers.

In examining Bolam's typology of CPD there are a number of important factors to consider. First, professional development can only be of value if it has a positive effect on professional practice; there must be some transfer of learning into the workplace, and it is likely that the nature and extent of this transfer will be influenced by the culture of the workplace and relationships within it. Secondly is the nature of adult learning, and how this might influence the character, content and approach of CPD activities. Thirdly, it is appropriate to consider these in relation to the intended learning outcomes of the professional development activity.

If transfer of learning into the workplace is the central test of the effectiveness of CPD, then it is appropriate to begin this discussion by exploring the processes through which this may occur. We will draw on the idea of "communities of practice" first developed by Lave and Wenger (1991) and since extended by Wenger (1998; 2000). Closely related to the idea of communities of practice, which explores the processes through which individuals are socialised into practice and can bring about change, is the concept of learning communities, usually referred to in education as "professional learning communities" (Stoll et al, 2006) which may exist within single organisations or operate as networks across several. Professional learning communities, as the name implies, are more open to development and the trial of new ideas than communities of practice may be, although Wenger (2000, p232) discusses approaches to learning projects in his analysis of communities of practice.

The workplace offers opportunities for personal development through working with colleagues. However, in exploring this, and also the workings of communities of practice, we run up against the distinction in the literature between tacit and explicit knowledge. How this may influence individuals' capacity to learn and apply new knowledge and skills also needs to be explored.

Although these themes are associated particularly with the first and third areas of Bolam's typology – professional training and professional support – they also have a bearing on the nature of effective professional education. A

major element of professional learning has traditionally been long courses, often accredited, and it is appropriate to discuss the nature of these as part of this discussion. This will therefore be analysed, before continuing to the third issue, how we might evaluate the effectiveness of professional development activities.

Whatever the C.P.D. experience may be it can only be useful to the teacher when what has been learned is adopted into their practice. A helpful starting point for analysing this process is the work of Lave and Wenger (1991), on situated learning and communities of practice.

Workplace Learning and Communities of Practice

It would be problematic to look at teachers' C.P.D. in isolation from their work setting and personal practice. Formal and informal development occurs within the school context and with colleagues' co-operation and support.

Personal development is an important part of professionalism and through a view of schools as communities of practice, as described by Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998), informal learning and tacit knowledge can be examined. Wenger (1998) summarises the characteristics of communities of practice in the following three dimensions: a community of mutual engagement, a negotiated enterprise and a repertoire of negotiable resources accumulated over time. Communities of practice also need to be aware of new ideas and Wenger addresses this issue through his concept of alignment which is discussed below (p 43).

Wenger is concerned about the way our experience and the world shape each other, with each interacting with the other. In what he terms the 'complementarity of participation and reification' (Wenger, 1998, p 63) he claims that 'participation' refers to 'the process of taking part and also to the relations with others that reflect this process' (p 55). He maintains that 'reification', however, is a useful concept which describes the process of giving form to our experience by producing 'objects that congeal this experience' (p 55) and, with the creation of objects such as policies and

documents, around which the negotiation of meaning becomes organised. Wenger sees 'participation' and 'reification' as seamlessly woven into work-based practice.

Implicit in the work of Lave and Wenger is the assumption that their theories form a valid generic framework in all organisational settings, whether they are considered to be 'professional' or not, including the school setting where learning takes place on many levels. Their model has been used in educational research by MacGregor (2003), and in the N.C.S.L. (2007) research into learning-centred leadership where success is dependent upon high levels of trust (Bottery, 2004) and professional dialogue.

Wenger (2000) argues that the success of organisations ultimately depends upon their ability to form as a learning system and, at the same time, take part in a broad range of extended learning opportunities within broader and associated areas. In examining the social nature of learning, he identifies 'engagement', 'imagination' and 'alignment' as the three 'modes of belonging' and their associated levels of participation in the learning community. Imagination is seen as essential as it enables the participant, through constructing mental images and metaphors, to see beyond their own setting and understand their position in the social world. Without alignment with external agencies, which in the case of schools could be L.A. advisers, consultants and universities, there is a risk that the organisation becomes inward looking and professional development becomes restricted.

Wenger argues that these 'modes of belonging' provide a foundation for a topology of communities of practice and to be of use in this study they must be accepted as relevant in terms of their application to the primary school setting. The structure of the primary school as a community of learners and also, in Wenger's terms, a community of practice, fits within the framework outlined in the 'three modes of belonging'. Here there is engagement, between the following learning groups: teacher and pupil, pupil and pupil, and between teachers. Imagination, as described by Wenger, is apparent within each of these learning groups as they engage in activities that take them beyond their physical setting. Finally alignment presents as contact with other schools through development projects or cluster based C.P.D.

events, support from inspectors and advisers and through participation in courses that include postgraduate study. It is through alignment that Wenger believes communities of practice are most effective and more productive, in contrast to becoming inward-looking and resistant to change and opportunities for learning.

Professional Learning Communities, however, have a different purpose and are discussed below (p 48). They can be viewed as catalysts for change and, as they are claimed to build the capacity for learning and development, they are being promoted in line with the government's 'new professionalism' (Stoll et al, 2006). Both communities of practice and PLCs can be considered as promoting teachers' professionalism by supporting their personal development, which could include opportunities for extended periods of study on award bearing courses.

Within the context of workplace learning Wenger (1998) warns against the dangers of purely 'extractive' training where the nature of the organisation becomes secondary to the training itself. Extractive training, if it is not aligned to the needs of the individual school, may fall outside Wenger's topology. Wenger, however, highlights what he considers to be the advantages of 'integrative' training. He sees this, in practical terms, as part of a learning community where new members are supported by established staff and where mutually beneficial dialogue occurs between new and established employees. Wenger supports the case for 'integrative' courses where the participants learn and work together as a process of participation and where the emphasis is on learning rather than teaching.

It is helpful to see Wenger's (1998) view of integrative and extractive courses within the context of more recent work (N.C.S.L., 2007) where both are considered to be effective forms of development as long as there is a clear focus on the school's needs. The school's needs are likely to be those areas for development set out in the School Development Plan; they may have been identified by Ofsted or through the process of self evaluation.

In the N.C.S.L. (2007) research referred to above, where the importance of the workplace as a learning environment is recognised, it is claimed that work based learning, although powerful, can also be narrowing and conservative, sometimes lacking a focus on change because it only sustains existing role orthodoxies. The research recognises the value of both integrative and extractive methods but finds the extractive method to be more effective when it relies on in-school processes and conditions to maximise its impact and increase its value. The research recommends that good quality extractive learning should provide opportunities to learn with and from others performing the same roles, along with opportunities for social learning and time for reflection. Wenger, however, sees the value in schools using off-site facilities as part of their 'integrative' training and makes a case for taking staff as a group to a separate location away from the work place. Here he claims, in this new environment, learners can focus on development issues in semi-isolation.

There are times when, because of practical difficulties, the school environment is not conducive to staff development particularly during the working day; there may be too many distractions and a shortage of suitable off-site accommodation. In the case of small schools it is more usual that whole school staff training occurs in school as a twilight session or during a training day when the building is empty. Whether extractive or integrative, Wenger recommends periods of reflection and information sharing following C.P.D. and maintains that teachers' professional development should always refer to their classroom practice. This is in line with the work of Eraut (1997), Clement (2001) and Stenhouse (1975). However, neither Wenger (1998) nor the N.C.S.L. (2007) mention the longer courses which, it has been argued, have much to commend them (Dadds, 1995; Conner, 1994; Webb, 1990), and which are discussed below (p 50). They too, particularly if they are based on practitioner research, may have the specific needs of a school as their focus. In the climate of learning-centred leadership, where staff development linked to the school's needs is taken seriously, the longer courses may continue to offer a different, yet equally important, form of C.P.D.

Explicit and Tacit Knowledge

Explicit knowledge is that which is made clear and is likely to include documents, contracts, agreed procedures and policies. Tacit knowledge may be described as common sense, and include subtle cues, untold rules of thumb and well-tuned sensitivities which may never be articulated but are clearly understood. Wenger stresses their importance and coexistence and recognises that there are forms of knowledge that are difficult to articulate. Being able to 'do' and being able to 'tell' are not equivalent forms of knowledge, and he warns of the problematic nature of classifying knowledge as either tacit or explicit as 'both aspects are always present to some degree' (Wenger, 1998, p 69).

Within communities of practice tacit knowledge clearly exists but is rarely referred to and, because of its private nature, is almost impossible to quantify. Tacit knowledge is acquired from experience and 'preferably from experience in the environment where the tacit knowledge later will be needed' (Sternberg, 1999, p 233). Individuals working alone or in a restricted environment will have difficulty acquiring tacit knowledge because of their lack of interaction with others, however where several individuals share a working environment the opportunities to gain tacit knowledge increase.

The case study schools in my research were both small schools where the staff are closely knit and where there is much tacit knowledge, and where the staff operate at what Bottery (2004) would identify as the highest level of inter-personal trust which involves working so closely with colleagues that there is an intuitive knowledge of what the other will do. Here, where the staff know each other as colleagues and friends, and where there is accumulated knowledge of the school's pupils and systems, there is a depth of tacit knowledge that may be barely visible and is the basis of 'automatic' practice.

Tacit knowledge is recognised by Torff (1999) along with the existing knowledge and understanding that teachers bring when they attend courses

or take part in C.P.D. activities. In recognising that neither students nor teachers are 'blank slates', or in Dadds' (2001, p56) terms 'empty vessels', he affirms the presence of tacit knowledge and the existence of dual pedagogies, 'the tacit and intuitive one with which students begin, and a disciplinary one provided by the teacher-education curriculum' (Torff, 1999 p196). Tacit knowledge may also be inaccurate or out of date and therefore potentially harmful (Sternberg, 1999); however, it is continually being replaced and used effectively by staff at all levels. Sternberg (1999) examines the constant interaction between tacit and explicit formal knowledge and claims that through the sharing of tacit knowledge, between members of a community, tacit knowledge can become explicit knowledge and will in turn be replaced by other forms of tacit knowledge as they evolve. It can be argued that practitioners' tacit and explicit knowledge, which builds up over years of experience, may also embody elements of the esoteric knowledge referred to as a trait of the 'professional' (Simpson and Simpson, 1969).

Sternberg (1999) claims that as people rise within an organisation their repertoire of tacit knowledge develops from one influenced by their personal values to one that is more in line with the values of the organisation. Sternberg and Torff offer this helpful and extended view of tacit knowledge which identifies both the positive and negative aspects and enables me to connect the theory with the practice as seen in the case studies, and in particular the area of professional support offered by colleagues to colleagues. It is recognised (Sternberg, 1999) that all tacit knowledge cannot be good and occasionally forms of tacit knowledge, used in a subversive way, can undermine the values of an organisation and work against change. In the data analysis I was conscious, although it was not always evident, of the interplay of tacit and explicit knowledge within the communities of practice in each school. If we recognise that teachers begin their professional development not with blank slates nor as empty vessels, but with a store of knowledge, then tacit knowledge must also be recognised.

Professional Learning Communities

Hargreaves (2007) notes the rise of the professional learning community (PLC) within schools and considers what it is that makes them successful. He considers that a PLC is embodied in the ethos of a school and an attitude, a way of thinking. It is acknowledged (Stoll et al, 2006) that P.L.C.s have a significant role in promoting capacity building for sustainable school improvement. Hargreaves sees P.L.C.s operating most effectively when they 'are connected to other schools around them, in networked learning communities that spread across a system' (Hargreaves 2007, p 192). This is in line with Wenger's view of the importance of alignment in communities of practice, discussed above (p 43). Hargreaves maintains that teachers' energy is renewed when the professional learning community is used to invigorate their collective learning, which includes personal development, and not simply as a tool to implement mandatory change. However, Mulford (2007), discussing the value of schools collaborating with other schools, families, community and other public agencies, warns against the factors that encourage schools to see themselves as autonomous such as the inspection system and financial provision.

Personal Knowledge, Reflective Practice and Practitioner Research

Earlier (p 24) it was suggested that one aspect of professionalism was the possession of esoteric knowledge. In developing teachers' professional practice personal knowledge, reflective practice (Schon, 1983) and practitioner research, all of which explore and develop such esoteric knowledge, have much to offer. Eraut (1997) views the sharing of teachers' diverse experiences along with reflective practice and practitioner research as important aspects of their professional development. Clements (2001, p 161) asserts that 'only when we recognise our own personal baggage can we arrive at objective truth about our work'. Students' personal histories reveal critical incidents that have had a direct effect upon their careers. In childhood it may have been a response to an inspirational teacher, or in their teaching career the influence of a colleague. Teachers' histories form an important part of their professional background and therefore influence their personal values and philosophies. This supports Eraut's view and Wenger

extends this idea to include the notion of the history of a practice, arguing that ‘... we can make use of that history because we have been part of it and it is now part of us.’ (Wenger, 1998 p153) Clements refers (2001, p161) to Abbs (1974) who argued that through autobiographical research trainee teachers should investigate their memories and values as these would inform their teaching. He did however warn that memories can be deceptive and that the passage of time blurs the reality of the event or occasion. Clements draws a distinction between teachers’ memoirs and critical autobiographies of their professional life and he stresses the value of students’ autobiographies that help to reconstruct past experiences into a harmonious and integrated view of the present. Thus Clements values the autobiographical experience which becomes part of the practitioner’s body of professional knowledge.

Dadds (1995) developed this idea in her writing about practitioner research, arguing that teachers are better placed than academics to match the focus of their research to their practical and professional needs. Dadds believed that ‘there is a ‘Stenhouseian’ teacher centred ideology lurking here, a commitment to promoting teachers’ voices and teachers’ self-perceived needs in educational research’ (Dadds, 1995, p 106). She draws from her own personal history and working class roots as she explains her fascination for the action research she encountered whilst working at the Cambridge Institute of Education in 1981. As a teacher she had viewed herself as a member of ‘an often scorned theoretical underclass’ (Dadds, 1995, p2). Within the context of practitioner research and in this academic setting she found that teachers’ personal histories were valued by researchers and considered a necessary research resource in the development of practical theory. Parallels can be drawn between Dadds’ position as a member of an ‘often scorned theoretical underclass’ who valued personal histories, and the idea of personal history as a form of tacit knowledge that needs to be expressed in order to become explicit, and part of professional esoteric knowledge.

Stenhouse (1975), a central figure in the practitioner research movement, argued that ideas derived from research must be regarded as provisional,

and therefore open to critique and analysis through action research. Teachers were encouraged to see themselves as researchers in their own right exploring issues that were important to them. Critics view practitioner research as too subjective but Stenhouse claimed that in an attempt to improve professional practice through systematic enquiry the practitioner's subjectivity was a necessary part of the knowledge base of action research. 'There is no escaping the fact that it is the teacher's subjective perception which is crucial for practice' (Dadds, 1995, p122). Stenhouse suggested that this should form the basis of a new epistemology of teacher research.

Webb (1990, p6) charts the rise of practitioner research within the research movement and criticises those academics who 'extol the values of practitioner research' but only rarely apply the approaches they advocate to their own practice. Webb also expresses concern that there is a distinct lack of accessible published practitioner research available for teachers in either books or journals. Her published accounts of teacher researchers (Webb, 1990) help to address this problem. Sadly, even though their research is valued and encouraged within the research community, and more recently by the G.T.C., only a relatively small number of teachers engage in academic research or study for higher degrees. For these teachers longer courses were valued and provided a quality learning opportunity (Webb and Vulliamy, 1996; Conner, 1994) and this is examined in the following section.

Perceived or claimed advantages of long courses

There has been a recognised movement away from secondment and long term courses for teachers (Conner, 1994) and a general lack of opportunity to take time to reflect, and very little opportunity to have even a short sabbatical. Instead we see the preference for one day courses, or a series of twilight sessions. Reflecting on Conner in the light of changes such as the introduction of performance management, target setting and the resultant emphasis on short term C.P.D. we see that the formalisation and control of C.P.D. activities has become normal practice. The effectiveness of single day training and the after school twilight sessions, when staff are exhausted following a hard day's teaching, were questioned by Conner (1994) and as

these developments are post 2000 this would suggest that Conner's advice had been ignored.

The value of the part-time, long term professional course such as an M.A., stretching over two years, is explored by Conner (1994) who views it as a very powerful experience for teachers and considers it more valuable than the widely used short courses. Teachers valued the time to reflect as part of a professionally supportive group in a non threatening environment and although physically separate from the school, the school had a central part to play in as much as teachers would use the course and the research methods to inform and develop their practice. Conner (1994) argued in support of the need for part-time M.As., along with Advanced Diploma courses, at a time when funding for these courses was at risk. They were, and still are, expensive courses and their relative value, compared with the short INSET courses of the 1990s, was rated extremely highly by those teachers who commented in Conner's (1994) research. Conner makes a strong case for the place of the M.A. supported by Webb and Vulliamy (1996) and, although the L.E.A. secondment packages associated with full-time degrees have disappeared, there are masters courses for teachers offered by nearly every university.

Drummond and McLaughlin (1994) recognised the value of longer courses and took a specific view which identified an emotional element which pervaded their work and reflected the emotional aspect of the learners' development. They believe that 'emotional' and 'professional' development cannot be separated. Through studying a group of teachers who had completed an advanced diploma they recognised, in some teachers, that the course had brought about changes in their lives. Here they believe that emotions play an important part and that emotional disturbance can be an outcome of a learning experience. The courses they studied, based at the University of Cambridge Institute of Education, had a clear focus on education and students were encouraged to review and question established practices. The course was based on a model of learning shared with tutors and students in which 'learning is more than an addition to an existing store of knowledge' (Drummond and McLaughlin, 1994 p39).

Each school's standards fund, through which funding for C.P.D. is accessed, is now more flexible and headteachers and governing bodies can, if they choose, support staff on award bearing courses such as the M.A. It would appear, however, from my research that very few teachers choose to follow higher degrees even though funding may be available.

There is a clear distinction, however, between what is offered through part-time M.A.s and Advanced Diplomas and what is offered through the N.P.Q.H. and L.P.S.H. programmes. The report (DfES, 2007), discussed below (p 56) claimed that teachers generally found that the N.P.Q.H. and L.P.S.H. were both worthwhile. However, no reference was made to long courses.

Having completed both the L.P.S.H. and a practitioner research M.A. I have a personal view of their relative values. Both were, without doubt, beneficial but they had different purposes. I recall the words of my L.A. link adviser during my headteacher appraisal meeting (1996) and the feeling of disappointment, following the successful completion of my M.A. through practitioner research, when he said that ' ... it was more beneficial to you than to the school'. This may have been because it was difficult to link my qualification directly to school improvement. In contrast, Conner (1994) supports the view that long courses are extremely beneficial to both the school and the teacher, and completing my M.A. was a significant personal development target stretching over two years. I believed that the considerable commitment and effort that contributed towards a two year part-time M.A. in Primary Education, along with the related research projects would be of benefit to me and the school. One useful research project examined the way that teachers adapted the layout of their classrooms to deliver the curriculum. The M.A. did increase my professional knowledge and confidence as a head and in the period before Performance Management completing my M.A. was one of my Headteacher Appraisal targets. The L.P.S.H., however, was viewed by the L.A. as beneficial for the school and therefore, because of that, of benefit to the headteacher too. Of these two examples my 'chosen pathway' which was

engagement with research in relation to my own position, was by far the most worthwhile experience. The L.P.S.H. programme, although enjoyable and revealing, left me in no doubt that through the process of data analysis my management style measured against that of 'leading practitioners' was at best only average and the main purpose of the exercise was to raise my standard through a personal action plan. Here was the 'deficiency' model in operation. The experience gained through a practitioner research M.A. certainly outshone the experience gained on the L.P.S.H. programme. During the two year master's programme I was able to reflect on current practice and identify the values and aims of education as well as engage in small scale research in relation to my own situation. This course was demanding, rewarding and greatly valued and, because it resulted in the award of a higher degree, increased my professional confidence. The L.A. link adviser clearly favoured the 'directed routes' of the N.P.Q.H. and L.P.S.H., rather than the opportunity for me to choose the pathway presented by the flexibility of long courses as a method of school development.

The outcomes of the L.P.S.H. can be viewed as normative towards a specific model of leadership behaviour which does not encourage reflection on practice, except in terms of that model, whereas long courses offer wider, less restrictive opportunities. The main impact of my M.A. course, however, was the development of my personal interest in practitioner research and, through my subsequent work as an associate lecturer, tutoring an M.A. module for teachers. This has contributed, I believe, to the school's culture of professional education within which two members of staff have studied master's programmes and where longer award bearing courses are both relevant and valued within the school's provision for C.P.D. The recently introduced T.D.A. funded masters programme in Teaching and Learning, with its distinct focus on school improvement, is designed to 'develop higher levels of professional skills' (T.D.A., 2009) and can be viewed in the context of 'new professionalism', but response to this degree is uncertain and, according to Pedder et al (2008) teachers' opinions were divided as to whether this new degree would raise the status of the profession.

In my research the long courses, based on ideas of reflective learning through practitioner research (Stenhouse, 1975; Webb and Vulliamy, 1996; Drummond and McLaughlin, 1994), epitomised by my own experience and reinforced by the arguments of Conner (1994), appear to have largely vanished from the scene in the teachers studied. In their place we see a shift in emphasis to the extensive national learning programmes promoted through the N.C.S.L. in the spirit of the new professionalism.

Assessing the effectiveness of C.P.D.

In questionnaire (1) respondents were asked to make judgements about the impact of their C.P.D. within each category of Bolam's (1993) tripartite definition. Measuring impact is acknowledged to be a difficult task (Bennett and Marr, 2003) and in my research I simply asked teachers to give their professional opinions of their own C.P.D., rather than attempt to measure outcomes such as improved pupil performance. This is, at best, a rough tool and relies on the teacher's view of the C.P.D. activity and how it related to their teaching or management. However it could be argued that teachers are well placed to make such judgements as they experience the C.P.D. and also witness its outcomes. Within the categories of 'professional training' and 'professional education' teachers were also asked to indicate if they were directed to attend, thus indicating whether, in the immediate sense rather than the larger structural sense, it was a 'directed route' or a 'chosen pathway'.

The implication of standards-based reforms in educational leadership

Earlier (p 27), I discussed ways in which policies apparently designed to raise teachers' professional status could be seen as being intended to strengthen government control over teachers. Having explored a variety of approaches and analyses of C.P.D., particularly the importance of rooting C.P.D. in practice and experience, and the distinction between short and long courses, it is appropriate to return to the issues of central control and C.P.D. provision.

Since DES Circular 6/81, with its curriculum guidance for LEAs, a sequence of policy developments has influenced the nature of professional development, provision and assessment. The development and range of teacher standards can be seen as a means of political control and enforcement.

Within the current professional development framework that begins with I.T.T. and leads to Newly Qualified Teacher (N.Q.T.), and runs through the upper pay scales leading to the N.P.Q.H. and possible headship, are the standards and competencies which are to be achieved. Gronn, (2003) sees this as 'designer-leadership' and part of a global pattern in educational management. He compares the 'profession-driven' view of leadership in the USA. with the 'national government-driven' approach in the UK. Gronn (2003) identifies the presumption of superiority where the setters of the standards for teachers are deemed to know best and where uniformity of conduct is considered preferable to differences and variations in performance. He asserts that standards based organisations generate a complex system of monitoring and measuring of performance. Gronn (2003) maintains that in education there has been the adoption of a standards-based framework where 'suitably fitted leaders' become accredited according to standards-determined profiles of preferred leader types – hence Gronn's term 'designer-leadership'.

The concept and practice of 'designer leadership' as presented by Gronn is more closely aligned with 'training' rather than 'education'. The standards-based development outlined above, and generated by the T.T.A.'s premise that good teaching raises standards and good leadership improves teaching, is prescriptive both in nature and outcome. Here we see 'designer leadership' within the framework of the government's standards agenda. This competence based model allows professionals to make measured progress through the range of programmes wherever they may be on the professional ladder providing they are successful in achieving their performance management targets. It could be argued, however, that the prescriptive 'directed' route and reduction in autonomy are at odds with this aspirational view of professionalism.

Two Recent Reports on CPD

Before completing this discussion, it is appropriate to refer to two recent studies on CPD in education. The 'Independent Study into School Leadership' (DfES, 2007), undertaken by PricewaterhouseCoopers, places significant importance upon C.P.D. across all phases. The report calls for the DfES to consider its recommendations as part of 'a major ratcheting up of participation in innovative C.P.D. initiatives' (DfES, 2007 p152), but it is clear that teachers' individual development needs are subordinate to system requirements. The report's recommendations emphasise system priorities which act as control measures; here we can see that the C.P.D., as proposed in the report and without reference to award bearing courses, is serving the system's interests rather than developing the personal capacity and understanding of individual teachers. There is an assumption here of 'best practice' and designer C.P.D. as characterised by Gronn. The report highlights the contrast with other professionals who are required to undertake an agreed amount of annual C.P.D. and where the responsibility for doing so rests with the individual and is often enforced by their professional institutes.

The report acknowledges the importance of ongoing C.P.D. along with the need to tailor C.P.D. to the schools' individual needs and foster links with other professions within the Every Child Matters agenda. National courses such as the N.P.Q.H. and L.P.S.H. were found to be valued by the majority of participants. However, no reference was made to the value or importance of the longer courses such as the M.A. or Advanced Diploma.

The State of the Nation report, commissioned by the T.D.A. (Pedder et al, 2008) examines C.P.D. in English schools. The report, among its findings, identifies misalignment between C.P.D. identified by teachers and the T.D.A.'s prescriptive view of effective C.P.D. Teachers' C.P.D. was generally found to be linked to issues for whole-school improvement which were 'prioritised at the expense of personal-professional C.P.D. needs' (Pedder et al, 2008, p 9). Broadly speaking strategic planning was lacking and C.P.D. activities were rarely evaluated against planned outcomes. Here

we see theory ahead of practice and the cluster schools in line with this national research. Storey (2009) identifies this mismatch between current practice and the government's intended role for C.P.D. as a significant barrier to the progress of the 'new professionalism'.

Summary

In this chapter I have given a critical view of C.P.D. and of its changing nature over time and within its historical context. I have considered the meaning of C.P.D. together with responses to different forms of C.P.D., including the deficit model used to implement the many government initiatives which clearly drive the content and direction of teachers' C.P.D. leaving little time for individual school based initiatives and the exploration of alternative delivery methods. I have considered communities of practice as described by Wenger (1998, 2000) and Professional Learning Communities together with the opportunities for support from colleagues and the acquisition of tacit knowledge. Teachers' C.P.D. has implications for teaching as a profession and for teachers as professionals; I have therefore considered teaching as a profession in relation to a range of C.P.D. models including reference to long courses. With a system of increased managerialism (Gewirtz, 2002) and an emphasis on efficiency rather than ethics and with teachers as technicians (Ball, 2004), along with the government's firm control of C.P.D. and the prescriptive nature of new initiatives, there has been a reduction of schools' autonomy. This loss of autonomy is associated with a reduction in professionalism (Eraut, 1994; Etzioni, 1969) even though the T.D.A., G.T.C. and the N.C.S.L. project an image of teaching that aspires to a 'new professionalism'.

Using the analytical structure of Bolam's tripartite model of C.P.D. discussed above (p 39), and building on this literature review within the framework of the main research question, I have raised the following questions which will inform my research within the clusters:

- What is the current attitude of teachers to the way C.P.D. is directed by the government?
- Do teachers identify a policy orientation that has resulted in a culture of managerialism?

- Is there a sense that autonomy has been reduced and that teachers have become the deliverers of prescribed packages?
- What is the range of C.P.D. available to teachers?
- How do teachers at various points in their careers respond to the challenges of C.P.D.?

Chapter 3

Research Methodology and Methods

Introduction and Research Question

As a teacher of thirty-six years' experience, including twenty-one as a headteacher, I am aware of the increasing demands made upon staff, particularly in the area of professional development, resulting from the raft of initiatives following the 1988 Education Reform Act. As the thesis title 'Directed routes or chosen pathways?' implies, I am interested in the apparent shift from school driven development to government driven initiatives and seek to explore this area within a group of local schools. Set within the context of relevant literature this research provides a 'snap shot' of C.P.D. within a group of rural primary schools'.

The thesis title 'Directed routes or chosen pathways?' provides the overarching theme for this enquiry and enables me to look at the range and variety of C.P.D. and the implications for teachers as professionals. The research question therefore can be subdivided into the following strands:

- How much choice do teachers have over the content and direction of their C.P.D.?
- How is the government's policy on C.P.D. affecting the professional status of teachers?

In the previous chapter there is much to support the view that, following the 1988 Education Act, the control of education policy and the subsequent design and delivery of initiatives rest firmly in the hands of the government (Dadds 1995, 2001; Fielding 1994; Bottery and Wright 2000; MacBeath 2008). As a result of this top-down managerialist approach, the autonomy once experienced by schools prior to the 1988 Education Act has been substantially reduced and consequently, it is argued, the professional status of teachers has been weakened. We see teachers subjected to high levels of public accountability delivering a prescribed curriculum where their pupils'

performance is measured in league tables. The imposed curriculum also has epistemological implications and it can be argued that the core curriculum, as well as determining what is taught, brings with it the shift from professional accountability to public accountability and diminished professionalism.

Refining the Research Question

The questions outlined at the end of the previous chapter (p 57) stem from this view of the government's controlling approach and form the basis for my research as I draw upon the experiences of teachers from local clusters. The questions raised at the end of the previous chapter have been incorporated as sub questions into the two strands of the main research question.

How much choice do teachers have over the content and direction of their C.P.D.?

- What is the current attitude of teachers to the way C.P.D. is directed by the government?
- What is the range of C.P.D. available to teachers?
- How do teachers at various points in their careers respond to the challenges of C.P.D.?

How is the government's policy on C.P.D. affecting the professional status of teachers?

- Is there a sense that autonomy has been reduced and that teachers have become simply the deliverers of prescribed packages?
- Is there an awareness of policy changes that have resulted in a feeling of managerialism?

To answer these questions I needed to collect data from teachers that allowed me to explore the areas of choice and direction, along with issues of government control and policy. In the light of the government's initiatives I needed to know whether the teachers felt they had an element of personal

choice in their C.P.D. or if it was chosen for them. It was important to have their perception of who was responsible for the control and direction of C.P.D. and their responses would be followed up in the semi-structured interviews. The semi-structured interview data would also allow me to reflect on this group of teachers as professionals.

Defining C.P.D.

It was necessary at the outset, for purposes of clarity, to find a suitable comprehensive workable definition of C.P.D. that included its many aspects. During the pilot study (2003 – 2004), which formed an earlier part of this doctorate, I asked teachers in the northern cluster to define their understanding of C.P.D. and, although their definitions were useful and demonstrated the wide and varied range of teachers' understanding of C.P.D., none of the definitions was suitably all embracing. The teachers' definitions did, however, reflect their range and understanding of the meaning of C.P.D. and are discussed in Chapter 4. In the absence of a suitable 'catch all' definition from respondents in the pilot study the following comprehensive definition of C.P.D. was chosen as it embraces a wide range of C.P.D. activities as well as examples of support through workplace learning activities. This universal definition, which has a distinct epistemological theme, stresses the ultimate aim which is to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

'... any professional development activities engaged in by teachers which enhance their knowledge and skills and enable them to consider their attitudes and approaches to the education of children, with a view to improve the quality of the teaching and learning process.'

(Bolam 1993, cited in Earley and Bubb, 2004, p 4)

Although this definition is all embracing and serves to include C.P.D. in its widest sense, for purposes of data collection and analysis, it proved to be problematic. There was a need to separate the components of C.P.D. in order to provide an analytical framework for the purposes of this study. This was provided by Bolam's (1993) tripartite definition, discussed above (page

39), which forms the analytical framework within which C.P.D. is subdivided into training, education and support.

Choosing the schools and establishing relationships

Choosing a group of schools with which to carry out this research was a priority. The research project had to be completed alongside my work as a headteacher which included a substantial teaching commitment and as I was a single researcher and unable to leave school for more than the occasional half day, I made the decision to look for a group of local schools.

To make this research as relevant as possible to my own situation, and to build upon preliminary research, I chose to focus on two local primary school clusters. This was an 'opportunity sample' (The Open University, 1996) with one of the clusters, the Northern Cluster, being used in the pilot study. The Northern and Southern Clusters are each made up of a group of rural primary schools that feed into their local secondary school. I have not deliberately sought areas of excellence, or focused on schools where C.P.D. has been identified as outstanding; local clusters were chosen for their 'ordinariness' and convenience and, as time was a major consideration, it made good sense to focus on clusters of schools in my locality.

The clusters are similar in size and geographical location. With few exceptions the majority of the schools are situated in the attractive villages surrounding their respective market towns. This is a particularly rural location in the north of England and the majority of the schools are small with less than one hundred pupils. It is important to understand that each cluster, although in the same L.A., has its own identity and is independent of the other. Several of the smallest schools were in remote rural areas. The schools clustered together around their secondary schools and provided support groups for headteachers, as well as sharing joint training days with teachers and support staff. L.A. link advisers may be invited to attend the headteachers' termly meetings, along with representatives from the local secondary schools. The headteachers' meetings, which generally followed lunch in a local pub, provided an important social aspect as well as a forum where new initiatives and areas of concern were discussed. Each cluster

planned training events for teachers and support staff. Training costs could be used effectively in this way and courses were run centrally in one of the larger schools. The headteachers' meetings, which were informal and usually good humoured, provided colleagues with valuable support. The clusters, which were close, but not neighbouring clusters, were separate and independent of one another, however, they were a similar size and operated on a similar basis. Primary school clusters were firmly established across the L.A. and had been formed around the secondary school that their pupils generally moved to in Year 7. The clusters were originally set up by the L.A. and a link adviser had responsibility for the cluster schools. Link advisers now, for administrative reasons, may be attached to a group of schools that stretch across more than one cluster. Each cluster of schools was centred around a separate market town where there was a large secondary school. A breakdown of each cluster showing schools and numbers on roll can be found in Appendix E.

The Northern Cluster (14 schools)

Centred around an historic market town with two large primary schools each with in excess of 300 pupils and one with 180, there are 11 smaller schools with pupil numbers ranging from 17 to 142. Four schools have less than 50 pupils and 7 schools have between 50 and 150 pupils.

The Southern Cluster (9 schools)

The largest school in the cluster with 300 pupils was in the market town and, apart from a special school on the outskirts of the town and another school of 200 pupils, there were seven smaller schools ranging from 30 to 70 pupils in outlying villages. Within the cluster a group of headteachers had been working together on a N.C.S.L. small schools project.

I approached both headteachers' cluster meetings and explained the nature of the research project and asked for their support. All of the Northern Cluster Schools present at the meeting expressed a willingness to take part, as did the majority of the Southern Cluster schools at their meeting; in this cluster the schools that were unwilling to take part were not included in the data collected for the Southern Cluster group.

From the start it was always my intention to choose local schools for this research; my own school being in one of the clusters was included. I chose to set the research project within these two local clusters of primary schools for the following reasons:

- The opportunity to involve local clusters in a research project based on their own schools
- There was an established relationship with most headteacher colleagues
- Good opportunities for access to the schools and colleagues
- The willingness of colleagues to co-operate with data collection
- The opportunity to present research findings based on the analysis of their data that would identify trends and inform practice

The local setting I hoped would make the project more meaningful for the cluster teachers and, as there was no previous history of research, apart from my pilot study, it had the potential to be an interesting and rewarding experience for teachers and schools. I planned to use the local cluster headteachers' meetings to maintain the interest and co-operation of colleagues through progress reports. One outcome of this study would be the practitioner research paper published by the N.C.S.L. This will be a national publication and will form the basis for discussion within the clusters.

Choosing the best research method

With the schools selected and a workable definition of C.P.D. decided upon it was time to consider the best research method. In order to select the most appropriate method of collecting the data needed to answer the research question, the following range of options were considered:

- Detailed survey, before and after a specific C.P.D. experience
- Sequential surveys over time to chart impact/valuation of C.P.D. experience

- Case studies through interview with a sample of teachers from each cluster or from each school in cluster
- Combination of survey and case study

My choice of approach was influenced by my knowledge of the clusters. A detailed survey, before and after a specific C.P.D. experience would be useful but it was difficult, if not impossible, to find a C.P.D. event that each school would take part in. The sequential surveys would be time consuming for the participants and I was trying to keep form filling to a minimum. Eventually I decided that a combination of survey and case study would provide me with survey data across the clusters and also allow me to follow up this with interviews with the pupils and staff from a case study school within each cluster. I had used questionnaires and interviews in previous work and felt comfortable using a method with which I was familiar.

When designing effective case studies Yin (1994) considers that the following five components are especially important:

- a study's questions
- the proposition, if any
- its unit(s) of analysis
- the logic linking the data to the propositions; and
- the criteria for interpreting the findings'

(Yin 1994, p 136)

In this research there are two exploratory research questions each with sub questions but no proposition. The research questions are open questions that allow for the exploration of C.P.D. within the clusters and Yin (1994) considers this to be justified 'where a topic is the subject of exploration' (p 136). Without clear propositions Yin (1994) maintains there is a risk that the research may not be as focussed as it might be with a clear proposition. The research process will begin with data collected from the initial questionnaire (1) (Appendix B) which will be interpreted from the theory developed in the literature review. Bolam's tripartite definition will provide a helpful analytical framework.

Yin (1994) believes that a major barrier to doing case studies is the question of external validity - whether findings are generalizable beyond the immediate case study. He points out that cases are not sampling units and should therefore not be selected for that reason. In this research there is no intention to treat the case study schools as representative samples of the clusters nor to form generalizations from either of these cases. My aim is to look specifically at the local schools.

Bassey (1999) warns against generalizations that are taken out of the context of the research and presented as mere sound bites which, although memorable, are contrary to the truth ethic of research as they are presented outside of the essential contextual research setting. He does, however, acknowledge the value of the 'fuzzy generalization' where there is a degree of inbuilt uncertainty and where, in an educational setting, human interaction is an important factor. In contrast there are no exceptions with scientific generalizations, indeed if there were the statement would be abandoned and new research would be carried out.

The choice of survey and multiple-case studies allowed me to access data from across both clusters and also to look at two similar case studies in separate schools where data revealed in the survey could be further explored. This is a multiple holistic case study design and in this research, through surveys and interviews, I draw upon both quantitative and qualitative evidence respectively.

Questionnaire Design and Distribution

The questionnaire was chosen as an effective method of collecting data from all the cluster schools and to determine teachers' perceptions of their C.P.D. Questionnaire (1) was intended to collect a range of data that would provide contextual information about the individual teachers e.g. their length of service, Key Stage and areas of responsibility. It also focused on Bolam's (1993) three areas of professional development and asked teachers to rate these. The following guidance was helpful in the design stage.

'There is a simple rule of thumb: the larger the size of the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire may have to be, and the smaller the size of the sample, the less structured, more open and word-based the questionnaire may be.' (Cohen et al, 2007, p320)

The questionnaires were semi-structured being a combination of the closed and numerical type with a more open word-based structure. This allowed respondents to make basic judgements according to Likert rating scales, providing a range of responses to a given question or statement (Cohen et al, 2007). This system allows for the connection between judgements, expressed by using semantic differentials e.g. agree and disagree in conjunction with a five point numerical scale. It allows for a flexible response and presents the opportunity to determine frequencies, correlations and other forms of quantitative data analysis. However, I made the decision that the data set was too small to permit such analysis. In addition to the numerical data respondents could give a more detailed opinion in the spaces provided. Responses to a series of closed questions, measured on Likert rating scales, provided data that could easily be compared across the schools and clusters. These responses were explained and qualified by the respondents' comments; this would avoid the limitations and inflexibility of pre-set categories of response (Cohen et al, 2007). The difficulty with respondents' comments is that the task may be too open ended, resulting in irrelevant data, data that is difficult to code, or simply with the respondent leaving the section blank. I followed the ethical conventions (BERA) associated with the completion of questionnaires and confirmed that the respondents' views and schools were anonymous. The questionnaires were coded and numbered for administrative purposes and to allow them to be analysed according to their school and cluster. I kept a record of questionnaire distribution according to their codes and numbers and recorded each returned questionnaire. Although I was unaware who had responded I was able to identify the number of questionnaires still to be returned and was therefore able to send general reminders about those that were missing. For this purpose follow up letters were sent to encourage late responses and included a second copy of the questionnaire. To maintain

confidentiality, and in line with BERA guidance, questionnaires, with envelopes attached, were sent to headteachers who gave them to their staff who, after completion, returned them to the headteacher in sealed envelopes. The design of the questionnaire was developed and progressively refined during the course of this study. The pilot questionnaire (2003-2004) was, however, not based around Bolam's tripartite definition in a way that would facilitate data analysis according to his three categories. The redesigned questionnaire was structured so that the respondents' views could be analysed within the framework of Bolam's (1993) tripartite definition. This was in line with guidance on questionnaire design (Cohen et al, 2007) and included multi-choice questions about the respondent's age and professional experience. It was designed to be completed quickly by circling answers and writing short responses where necessary. In the revised questionnaire (1) (Appendix B) Bolam's model, with its clear distinctions between 'training', 'education' and 'support', was used as a framework for data collection and analysis. Examples of workplace learning and support from colleagues was, as suggested on the questionnaire, to be included in the section on 'support'. As my research progressed workplace learning appeared to be a more significant area than I had originally recognised, and the area of C.P.D. that appeared to be least explored in schools. Workplace learning happened on a daily basis within each community of practice and in most cases it was taken for granted, it did not appear to carry the same importance as formalised C.P.D. If it did, then we would see evidence of this form of development being promoted and drawn to the attention of practitioners. The questionnaire allowed me to collect detailed data about the schools within each cluster, including teachers' perceptions of the value of their C.P.D. To gather further detailed data about the composition of schools' C.P.D. over a twelve month period supplementary information was requested (Appendix D). This included details about the location of C.P.D. activities, reference to any colleague led activities and whether they were linked to the School Development Plan. The additional data helped to create a richer data base. The completed questionnaire responses were analysed as a whole and also according to clusters, and this allowed me to identify similarities and differences in patterns and trends across the clusters.

Table 3.1**Research Schedule (Northern and Southern Clusters)**

Date	
Jan - March 2005	Two primary school clusters selected and support requested from headteachers at their cluster meetings
April 2005	Questionnaire (1) sent to all cluster schools
Sept 2005	Teacher and headteacher interviews at Greendale C P
Feb 2006	Questionnaire (2) sent to schools
March 2006	Teacher and headteacher interviews at Woodlands C E
March 2006	Pupil and additional teacher interview at Woodlands C E
April 2006	Pupil interviews at Greendale C P

Questionnaire (1) (Appendix B) was designed to collect a range of data from the cluster headteachers and teachers including their role, teaching experience and methods of C.P.D. delivery. The questionnaire included a section on Bolam's tripartite definition namely 'professional training', 'professional education' and 'professional support'. Teachers were asked to rate their responses to specific questions about each area and to qualify their judgements on the impact of C.P.D. on themselves as professionals, on their teaching and on the school.

One of the problems encountered with the collection of data through questionnaires across both clusters was getting responses from the individual teachers. Although headteachers had given their support the response and support of their teachers could not be guaranteed. This was reflected in the relatively low return of questionnaires from some schools. One large school only returned one of the thirteen questionnaires that were sent. In contrast in another large primary school, where the headteacher, intending to get a good response, gave out the questionnaires at the staff meeting and asked the staff to complete them there and then, the response was much higher. This method, although apparently effective, produced several poor quality returns where areas of the questionnaire were left blank. There were also two schools that failed to return any questionnaires, even though they gave the impression of support at the cluster meeting and after polite prompting. However, the overall return rate was 49% (Northern Cluster) and 54% (Southern Cluster).

Table 3.2

<u>Questionnaire (1) Distribution</u>		
Northern Cluster	April 2005	91 questionnaires to 15 schools
Southern Cluster	April 2005	65 questionnaires to 9 schools
Northern Cluster:	May 2005	45 returned out of 91 = 49%
Southern Cluster:	May 2005	35 returned out of 65 = 54%

Questionnaire (2) (Appendix D) was distributed to headteachers 10 months later, following the initial analysis of Questionnaire (1) and because of the progressive focus leading to additional questions. Questionnaire (2), which was accompanied by a letter to the headteacher (Appendix C) asked for information about specific areas of C.P.D. and links with the School Development Plan. This was an area that was missing from Questionnaire (1) which collected more general information. This additional data, linking specific C.P.D. areas with the schools' development plans, would allow more detailed analysis of C.P.D. themes and how they were generated. Respondents were also asked to indicate the number of courses held in and out of school and also the number of courses led by colleagues. As this questionnaire was supplementary to the second it was only sent to the schools that had responded to Questionnaire (1).

Table 3.3

<u>Questionnaire (2) Distribution to headteachers</u>		
Northern Cluster	Feb. 2006	12 questionnaires to 12 schools
Southern Cluster	Feb. 2006	9 questionnaires to 9 schools
Northern Cluster:	March 2006	8 returned out of 12 = 67%
Southern Cluster:	March 2006	7 returned out of 9 = 78%
NB Questionnaire (2) was only sent to the schools that returned Questionnaire (1)		

Selecting the case study schools

My choice of case study schools for the semi-structured interviews was also reasonably straight forward. I planned to choose one school from each cluster and interview the headteacher, teachers and a group of pupils in order to explore more deeply issues raised in the questionnaires. In the first questionnaire I had included a section where teachers could indicate their willingness to take part in a follow up interview. However, in most cases this section had been ignored and in some cases there was a negative response. It was impossible to find schools where all of the staff had agreed to be interviewed. This seemed to be a major problem, however, I approached two colleagues, they were both friends of mine, and their village schools were similar in size and structure to many of the smaller cluster schools. Through their co-operation and the support of their staff these schools, Woodlands C. E. in the Northern Cluster and Greendale C. P. in the Southern Cluster, provided the setting for my interviews. No one was compelled to take part and it was made clear that all were free to withdraw if they chose. I was grateful for their help, particularly as they allowed access to school during lesson time for the pupils' interviews, and fitted in interviews during non teaching time and after school for the headteachers' and teachers' interviews. There was a sense of interest and a feeling of co-operation and they were generous with their time. The interviews were recorded on audio tape in a quiet part of the school to avoid interruptions and then transcribed using a word processor. Copies of their transcripts, apart from the children's, were sent to each interviewee so that any corrections could be made and the content agreed. The interviewees signed a copy of their transcripts giving permission for extracts to be used in this research. The interviewees understood that for the purpose of anonymity names of individuals and schools would be changed in the final report.

Designing the case study

In choosing to complete a multiple holistic case study involving two schools, one from each cluster, I was confident, based on my pilot study in the Northern Cluster (2003 – 2004), that colleagues would show interest in this work and support the project. The physical boundary of this study is defined by the clusters themselves which include the two case study

schools. I chose to collect data using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews as it appeared to be the best method of collecting a range of both quantitative and qualitative data.

Nisbet and Watt (1984), cited in Cohen et al (2007), list the strengths and weaknesses of the case study approach.

‘Strengths

- **The results are more easily understood by a wide audience (including non-academics) as they are frequently written in everyday, non-professional language.**
- **They are immediately intelligible; they speak for themselves.**
- **They catch unique features that may otherwise be lost in larger scale data (e.g. surveys); these unique features might hold the key to understanding the situation.**
- **They are strong on reality.**
- **They provide insights into other, similar situations and cases, thereby assisting interpretation of other similar cases.**
- **They can be undertaken by a single researcher without needing a full research team.**
- **They can embrace and build in unanticipated events and uncontrolled variables.**

Weaknesses

- **The results may not be generalizable except where other readers/researchers see their application.**
- **They are not easily open to cross-checking, hence they may be selective, biased, personal and subjective.**
- **They are prone to problems of observer bias, despite attempts made to address reflexivity.’**

(Nisbet and Watt cited in Cohen et al, 2007, p 256)

For the purpose of this research the strengths of the case study outweigh the weaknesses and the combination of interviews and questionnaires is appropriate for this project as they provide a useful range of data. Cohen et al (2007) draw attention to the wide use of case studies within the social sciences and comment upon the diverse range of techniques used, including the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data. This case study provides a narrative and analysis of data gathered from interviews, together with the presentation and analysis of the associated questionnaire data. The results should be easily understood by teachers as they are written by a teacher with the study's participants in mind. Case studies may capture unique features, sometimes missed when questionnaires are the main source of data collection, and, conveniently, they can be undertaken by a single researcher. It is recognised that case studies do not lend themselves to generalization (Cohen et al, 2007), however, the purpose of this project was not to produce generalizations that could be applied to other schools, but to explore the specific setting and unique nature of these local clusters. The concept of generalizability or representativeness (Blaxter et al, 2006) has special relevance for small scale research when applying the findings to other establishments. Although other schools may be interested in the findings of this research no claims of generalizability are made.

As they are not open to cross checking case studies may be selective, biased, personal, subjective and prone to observer bias (Cohen et al, 2007) and this may have proved to be a problem as I was known to many of the staff in the cluster schools and was a personal friend of the headteachers in the case study schools. The need to maintain an objective view both during interviews and in respect to the questionnaire data provided by my own staff was essential. By using codes the schools, including my own, were not easily identifiable and this helped with objectivity. My relationship with the case study schools' staff, although a concern, did not appear to present a problem as each teacher answered the interview questions thoroughly and professionally. I was careful to keep to the semi-structured interview questions and was careful not to lead the interviewees.

From the outset participants understood that this local study would be published by the N.C.S.L. but that schools and participants would be anonymous. There was, however, a range of ethical issues to be considered and handled sensitively according to BERA guidance. Each respondent and interviewee had to agree to take part and be secure that their responses would only be used anonymously and not read directly by anyone other than the researcher. Before the interview data were analysed each interviewee received a copy of their full interview transcript and gave written permission for its use. Teachers were being asked to discuss their C.P.D. provision and to make judgements about its quality. This may well be particularly sensitive when the C.P.D. was provided by the school and led by a member of staff including the headteacher, or by an adviser from the L.A. It was important therefore, from the outset, to establish an atmosphere of trust with the questionnaire respondents and later with the interviewees.

The children varied in age from 7 to 11 and before each interview I explained that their answers to my questions would be confidential and that their names, like those of the teachers, would be changed so that they would not be recognised. I explained that their teachers would only see the final report when their names had been changed. By including the children in the interviews I hoped to understand their view of their teachers' development and how it affected their learning.

Throughout this research, as well as the ethical issues around gaining permission and the assurance of maintaining anonymity, there were issues associated with insider research and the power relationship of the researcher. It was essential that I gained the trust of the interviewees and that they saw me as an independent researcher rather than the headteacher of a local school who may be making judgements based on their responses. Every opportunity was taken to maintain confidentiality and anonymity with the questionnaires and interviews. Completed questionnaires were returned anonymously in sealed envelopes and kept in a secure place. The audio recordings of the interviews and the transcripts were also stored securely.

Semi-structured interviews

Through taped and transcribed semi-structured interviews areas of interest appearing in the questionnaire responses, along with aspects of workplace leaning, were explored. Although the data from the questionnaire were a potentially rich source, and a good starting point, I found that the semi-structured interviews at Greendale C. P. School and Woodlands C. of E. School provided me with valuable data from the complete teaching staff within each school. In the semi-structured interviews I used the same questions and developed the same themes as a means of exploration and for validation purposes (Appendix F). My relationship with the two headteachers in the case study schools, as explained earlier, was that of a friend and professional colleague. I did not, however, have the same relationship with their staff who knew me less well. They were, however, co-operative, very generous with their time and willingly offered their perceptions of their C.P.D. With their agreement I chose to record the interviews on audio tape to ensure that I had a complete record of the verbal responses that would be typed up and analysed. However, I was aware that relying totally on audio tape can cause potential difficulty in terms of data loss; an interview is 'a social encounter, not merely a data collection exercise' (Cohen et al, 2007, p365) and the creation of a transcript, without reference to visual and non-verbal aspects presents a filtered form of the interview. I had some previous experience of interviews and was aware of the important additional information provided through the visual and non-verbal aspects of the interview. I had considered the advantages of using a video camera to record the interview and provide the additional visual and non-verbal data, however, I had no previous experience of analysing this additional data and opted to stay with the system with which I was familiar. I also considered that, although the video camera, positioned on its tripod, could collect more data, it would be more obtrusive than a small tape recorder and may make the interviewees feel uncomfortable. The setting for the interviews was also very important and I asked in advance for a room to be provided away from interruptions and distractions.

Interviewing Staff

Following the return and initial analysis of Questionnaire (1) a series of interviews was set up in the two schools, one in each cluster, where the headteachers and every member of staff agreed to take part in the research. Throughout the research I was mindful of the following research ethics as described by Bassey (1999): respect for persons, respect for truth and respect for democratic values. Ethical standards are a prerequisite of a research project and my research was carried out in line with Berger and Patchner (1994) who uphold the view that ...

‘Researchers have an ethical obligation to protect their subjects and to act responsibly and morally.’

(Berger and Patchner 1994, p98)

They stress the need to adhere to ethical standards and outline the following guidance:

- The subjects should give informed consent for their participation
- Subjects should not be physically or psychologically harmed
- All information about subjects should be treated confidentially
- Researchers should not deceive the study participants
- Researchers should be honest and accurate in conducting and presenting their research

The semi structured interviews were designed to build on the questionnaire data and arrangements were made to interview all four members of the teaching staff at Greendale C. P. School in the Southern Cluster during September 2005. The teaching staff at Woodlands C. of E. School in the Northern Cluster were to be interviewed at a later date convenient to them. The semi structured interview questions (Appendix F) looked at every teacher’s view of C.P.D., including aspects of workplace learning. The interview questions were intended to be a flexible, progressive framework

that would enable me to explore unexpected avenues of interest that arose in discussion with the teachers.

I confirmed with each headteacher that they and their teachers were willing to take part in a 20 – 30 minute interview. Before each interview each interviewee confirmed their agreement and I explained that, to ensure anonymity, pseudonyms would be used for schools and members of staff. Following the interviews copies of the transcripts were sent to each interviewee for their approval and signature.

In considering the structuring of the interviews I was confident that, because of our mutual interest in and knowledge of the subject matter, there would be a professional relationship with the interviewees. I already had, from the questionnaire data and my knowledge of the schools, the necessary demographic and background information prior to the interview. This allowed me to progress with the interviews within the framework of questions. Whyte, cited in Cohen et al (2007), refers to the subtle ways an interviewer can direct and control an interview. His six point scale of 'directiveness', where 1 is the least direct and 6 is the most, is an indication of the ability the interviewer has to direct the interview.

1. Making encouraging noises
2. Reflecting on remarks made by the informant
3. Probing on the last remark made by the informant
4. Probing an idea preceding the last remark by the informant
5. Probing an idea expressed earlier in the interview
6. Introducing a new topic (Cohen et al, 2007, p363)

It was necessary, to aid with the data analysis, to keep to the interview framework ensuring that common ground was covered by each interviewee. I was conscious of the importance of remaining impartial throughout the interviews, especially when I was in agreement with their views.

Following some difficulties with noise interference in previous interviews I made sure that the interviews were undertaken in a quiet room where there

would be no disturbances. The interviews were all held in rooms with only myself and the interviewee present. Twenty to thirty minutes was allowed for each interview. The tape recorded interviews were fully transcribed and returned to each of the interviewees for their approval and consent prior to analysis. The interviewees understood that all references in the final report would be anonymous.

A system of thematic analysis was applied to the transcripts, using themes that had grown progressively from the literature and questionnaire data, with colour coding used to highlight each relevant area. This allowed me to extract data according to the following identified themes.

- The distinction between training and education
- Identifying your C.P.D. – ‘sanctions’ or ‘benefits’ model?
- Identifying the most effective C.P.D.
- Formal workplace learning supporting teaching
- Informal workplace learning
- Participating in your choice of C.P.D.
- The direction of C.P.D.
- Teachers as professionals

Interviewing Pupils

Pupils’ views were important for my enquiry as they could provide valuable information about their teachers’ C.P.D. at classroom level. They can provide an alternative perspective that may help to create a more complete picture of their attitudes and perception of their teachers’ professional development.

‘It is essential that we learn to see school through the eyes of those who directly experience what we teach and how we teach it.’ (The Open University, 2001, p107)

In order to explore pupils’ perceptions I chose to carry out group interviews with the children in each school. As with the teachers’ interviews pseudonyms were used and the headteachers explained to the children and

their parents the purpose of the interviews and gained the verbal consent of each child and their parents. This is in line with Robson's (2000) recommendation that when interviewing children permission should be requested from parents and pupils. He recommends that children should be asked 'by someone they know and trust' and that the request is appropriately 'tailored to their social and cognitive level of development' (Robson, 2000, p39). I felt confident that their headteachers were well placed to fulfil this requirement. The advantages of group interviews over individual interviews are that they encourage interaction within the group rather than a simple response to the interviewer's question. Group interviews may also be less intimidating than individual interviews and allow the children to challenge responses from other members of the group using the form of language they would normally use with their peers. This was the case during the interviews and occasionally a child would interrupt and correct another, or simply add their comments to the child's response. I considered that the group interviews were preferable to individual interviews as it was the schools' normal practice for children to work in groups. I tried to make the process enjoyable and informal. I chose a location familiar to the children where they felt comfortable and relaxed. There was a sense that the interview groups were 'special' having been chosen for the task by their respective headteachers, and they were eager to give their comments. According to Cohen et al (2007) groups of around six or seven are an optimum size, although they suggest that it can be smaller for younger children. A group of this size will allow the children to feel less exposed than in a smaller group and also allow them to interact with the other pupils. I chose groups of four with an average age of nine years. I considered that a smaller group was more appropriate for younger pupils who knew each other well and appeared comfortable together. I chose two mixed gender groups of four children, each with a child from each year group of the Key Stage 2 age range. The length of each group interview was about fifteen minutes and the children sat around a table, close to the tape recorder. I was known to the pupils of Greendale C. P. School and the atmosphere was relaxed and positive. However, I had not met the Woodlands C. E. School children before and needed to spend some time establishing a relationship with them before the interview began. To

encourage the pupils to speak when it was their turn, I used the circle time practice, with which they were familiar, and passed them a ball and they spoke when they held the ball. The ball was initially passed in turn to each child around the table and then to individual children as they made their responses. This helped the children, particularly the younger children, to focus on their responses and ensured that only one child spoke at a time. I had previously, when practising a recorded interview with children, found difficulty transcribing simultaneous speech. I recognise that using the ball would help to separate the children's voices thus making the transcribing easier, however, I acknowledge there was a risk of losing some of the children's spontaneity.

Table 3.4

Interviews with Greendale C P Pupils			Teachers
Ashleigh	age 10	Year 6	Mr. Pringle
Mary	age 9	Year 5	Mr. Pringle
Jim	age 9	Year 4	Mrs. Stevens and Mrs. Eastley
Donna	age 8	Year 3	Mrs. Stevens and Mrs. Eastley

Table 3.5

Interviews with Woodlands C of E Pupils			Teachers
Lily	age 11	Y6	Mr. Kirkham
Emma	age 10	Y5	Mr. Kirkham
James	age 8	Y4	Mr. Kirkham
Ian	age 7	Y3	Mr. Kirkham

Progress of data collection

In the Spring Term 2005 I attended both of the headteachers' cluster meetings and did a short presentation about my proposed research and how I hoped to carry it out. I explained that the findings would eventually be presented to the cluster meetings and that I would keep schools informed with progress reports. The response was good and there was a general feeling of support in each cluster. The first questionnaire (1) was sent to all of the schools involved and a stamped addressed envelope was supplied for their return. The returned questionnaires were analysed during the summer

term and the first interviews took place at Greendale C. P. School in September 2005. The second questionnaire (2), which was designed to collect additional data, was sent to schools in February 2006 followed by the remaining interviews of staff and pupils in both schools. Each of the interviews was tape recorded and fully transcribed. This was a long process but enabled me to listen carefully to each interview and think about the responses.

By using the Northern cluster consistently for data collection over the past three years I was concerned that my requests may be becoming too demanding. When the proportion of returned questionnaires was compared in each cluster there was slightly less in the Northern cluster. This may well have been because every school was sent questionnaires in the Northern cluster, whereas only the volunteer schools in the Southern cluster received questionnaires.

Table 3.6 Questionnaire (1) Distribution

	Questionnaires distributed	Questionnaires returned	% returned
Northern Cluster	91 (15 schools)	45 (13 schools)	49%
Southern Cluster	65 (9 schools)	35 (9 schools)	54%

Data Analysis

Through a systematic approach this research is designed to provide a range of data. Initially quantitative data will be collected through the questionnaires and followed up with additional qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews in the case study schools. Epistemologically I have adopted a constructivist, interpretivist stance which will inform my data presentation and analysis. The questionnaire responses were collected as a modified form of the questionnaire and ordinal data were collected from the Likert scale questionnaires, and presented for each section of the questionnaire as combined totals and also separately for each of the clusters. This enabled me to view the responses for all schools and also to make

comparisons between the clusters. The quantitative data collected from the questionnaires are shown in tables. The qualitative data were drawn from the written responses on the questionnaire and also from the theme analysis of the interview transcriptions. The data gathered from the interviews were analysed within the context of each school and it was useful to draw comparisons between attitudes and activities in each school. In the following chapter I have analysed the data within the context of the literature.

Chapter 4

Data Presentation and Analysis

In this chapter I present and analyse the data from my questionnaires and case study. The questionnaire data provide contextual information about the sample and, through the use of Bolam's (1993) tripartite definition of C.P.D., provide an analytical framework for this complex area. I explore the questionnaire data under Bolam's headings of 'professional training', 'professional education' and 'professional support' before moving to the analysis of the semi-structured interviews in the two case study schools. Following a summary of the case study data there is a discussion of teachers as professionals.

Research 2005 – 2006

This research follows a pilot study (2003 – 2004) set in the Northern Cluster and builds upon its findings. The pilot study identified established links between the S.D.P., Performance Management, and C.P.D within each school's annual development cycle. In most cases teachers' C.P.D. stemmed from the S.D.P. and was delivered through the Performance Management cycle. There was an overall positive response to C.P.D. and a general attitude of compliance with, and acceptance of, the delivery of government initiatives. The pilot study, however, left me with questions about the following issues: the control and direction of C.P.D.; teachers' responses to C.P.D. where their length of experience was a factor; and teachers' professional status. The question of control and direction is discussed above (p 30) where there is evidence to support the view that the government is in control (Ball, 2003; Gewirtz, 2002). These areas are explored in my research and are incorporated into the following research question.

How much choice do teachers have over the content and direction of their C.P.D.?

- What is the current attitude of teachers to the way C.P.D. is directed by the government?

- What is the range of C.P.D. available to teachers?
- How do teachers at various points in their careers respond to the challenges of C.P.D.?

How is the government's policy on C.P.D. affecting the professional status of teachers?

- To what extent do teachers sense that their autonomy has been reduced and that they have become simply the deliverers of externally prescribed curriculum packages?
- How far have policy changes since the Education Reform Act (1988) resulted in a feeling of managerialism among teachers?

Details of the sample

This preliminary analysis of the raw data is limited to the contextual information collected in the first part of questionnaire (1) and provides quantitative information about the cluster teachers. The following charts provide a background to the make up of all the respondents according to their roles.

Table 4.1 Distribution of Questionnaire respondents across Clusters according to roles

Headteacher 18	Deputy 3	Subject Co-ordinator 28	C.P.D. Co-ordinator 3	Key Stage Co-ordinator 7
Teacher Foundation Stage 15	Key Stage 1 Teacher 24	Key Stage 2 Teacher 27	Key Stage 1 and 2 Teacher 5	SENCo 11

N.B. many respondents identified more than one role

In questionnaire (1) respondents were asked to identify all of their roles. Most people only identified their teaching role, but others, particularly in the smaller schools, also identified their multiple secondary roles e.g. subject

co-ordinator and SENCo. Most of the schools were too small to have deputies and this is reflected in the low figure; also associated with small schools are five teachers who taught cross Key Stage classes. There were only three respondents who indicated that they were the designated C.P.D. co-ordinators for their school, however, all three were also headteachers, we can infer from this that the role of the C.P.D. co-ordinator was therefore exclusively the role of the headteacher in both clusters.

Table 4.2 **Distribution of Teaching Experience**

NQT	1 – 10 years	11 – 20 years	21 – 30 years	Over 31 years
4	20	22	21	10

The distribution of teaching experience shows the majority of teachers (63) spread evenly between 1 and 30 years, with only 4 Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs) and 10 teachers with over 31 years' experience. The small number of NQTs possibly reflects the stable nature of staffing in these rural schools. There was also a high proportion of part-time teachers in the cluster schools and when vacancies occur NQTs, who are more likely to be looking for full time employment, may not be attracted to these part-time posts.

It is clear that both the individual teachers and the headteachers made decisions about C.P.D. priorities and many respondents indicated that these decisions were made in consultation with the headteacher. The S.D.P. was the document in which the school's priorities were detailed and through the performance management process the S.D.P. priorities became the teachers' targets. I expected that where the S.D.P. was used to identify the school's C.P.D. it may limit the opportunity for teachers to have personal professional development opportunities and this indeed proved to be the case. In this research it was interesting that teachers were mainly engaging in C.P.D. opportunities that were in line with the school's development plan (Table 4.7) which may suggest that they were forfeiting their personal needs or possibly that their needs as teachers were aligned with the needs of the school. This reinforces the findings of the pilot study.

Table 4.3 Who decides on C.P.D. Priorities?

Individual Teacher	C.P.D. Co-ordinator	Curriculum Co-ordinator(s)	Headteacher	Other
46	2	10	49	19

N.B. many respondents identified more than one individual

When looking at who decides C.P.D. priorities the pattern is similar to the chart below showing who makes the decision about who attends. Again we see the headteacher and individual teacher sharing this role. Where C.P.D. is subject specific it may be that the subject co-ordinator is expected to attend as part of their leadership role.

Table 4.4 Who decides who attends C.P.D.?

Individual Teacher	C.P.D. Co-ordinator	Curriculum Co-ordinator	Headteacher	Other
30	3	9	54	10

N.B. many respondents identified more than one individual

All teachers, with the exception of three newly appointed teachers, undertook some form of C.P.D., with the majority of those in the '1-5 days' category, reflecting the statutory five days' professional development for full-time teachers. Part-time teachers may choose to attend less than five days according to the hours they work. Although more C.P.D. is delivered in school than externally, the external C.P.D. chart identifies the longer courses and also highlights 11 teachers who have had no external C.P.D. experience in this 12 month period.

Table 4.5 The time taken for C.P.D. activities held 'in school'

None	1 – 5 days	6 – 10 days	More than 11 days
3	52	10	0

Table 4.6 The time taken for C.P.D. activities held 'externally'

None	1 – 5 days	6 – 10 days	More than 11 days
11	35	18	6

The above charts (Tables 4.5 and 4.6) represent a collective view of the frequency of 'in school' and 'external' or 'extractive' C.P.D. across the clusters. The data were compiled from the questionnaire responses and each unit represents a teacher's estimate of the number of days they have spent on 'in school' and 'external' C.P.D. The data showing the high numbers of teachers whose C.P.D. days fall within '1 – 5 days' for both 'in school' and 'external' activities is likely to be related to the general use of the five statutory training days as explained above; however, the figures associated with the 'external' activities are more revealing and show a broader range. It is interesting that eleven teachers stated that they had had no external C.P.D. and at the other extreme that only six have had more than eleven days. On further examination of the group claiming to have had more than 11 days external C.P.D. all of the six respondents were identified as headteachers. Headteachers are expected to attend a wide range of external courses and meetings associated with their role as headteacher and their additional responsibilities such as assessment, curriculum co-ordination, child protection and health and safety.

The figures shown above would suggest that extractive training is used frequently but there is no evidence to suggest that whole school extractive training is being used.

The close links, identified in my pilot study, between the School Development Plan, Performance Management and C.P.D. was an area I explored further in my main research. The following chart shows the areas of professional development over a period of one year, listed by headteachers across both clusters. Those that are S.D.P. related are shown alongside those that are not S.D.P. related.

Table 4.7

Questionnaire (2) Top Ranking C.P.D. over 1 year in both clusters

S.D.P. Related C.P.D.	C.D.P. not related to S.D.P.
Physical Education (18)	Physical Education (3)
Early Years / Foundation Stage (14)	Child Protection (2)
Special Educational Needs (11)	SENCo. Development (2)
Leadership (10)	Assessment (2)
Maths (9)	Behaviour (2)
Workforce Remodelling (7)	First Aid (2)
Literacy (6)	Asbestos Training (2)
Interactive Whiteboards (4)	RE/Collective Worship (2)

An analysis of these data show that, although a wide range of C.P.D. is School Development Plan related there is also a wide range that is not. A full list of S.D.P. based C.P.D. and non S.D.P. based areas can be found for the combined clusters in Appendix H. The difference lies in the incidence of the subject area. For example S.D.P. related activities show a greater rate of incidence with the highest attendance being related to PE, Early Years / Foundation and Special Needs. Where C.P.D. is not linked to the S.D.P. there are lots of courses but in each case the attendance rates are low when compared to the S.D.P. related areas. Similarly the DfES initiative on the transition from the Foundation Stage to Year 1 may have had an effect on attendance levels here. These courses are free and there is an expectation on the part of the L.A. that schools will send representatives. In this sample drawn from data collected from both clusters the courses with the highest attendance levels reflect national initiatives where funding is available, and where both the DfES and L.A. expect schools to attend. Here we see the control of teachers' C.P.D. situated externally and with an expectation that staff will attend.

An analysis of the most popular S.D.P. related areas reflects the individual school's and cluster's priorities. There is currently a PE initiative in each cluster and the cost of supply cover is provided. Some schools have made extensive use of this funding and therefore attendance on S.D.P. linked PE courses ranks highest.

A first impression from the questionnaire data is that control of C.P.D. is predominantly with the headteacher in collaboration with individual members of staff. (see Tables 4.3 and 4.4) At school level the element of control would appear fairly straightforward but a wider view, as discussed above (p 23), would suggest that ultimately control rests with the government through its policies. Schools operate on limited budgets and may have to respond to issues raised through Ofsted inspections and L.A. reviews. New DfES initiatives, complete with funded programmes of training, as seen with the N.N.S. and N.L.S. and more recently Workforce Remodelling and the transition from Foundation Stage to Key Stage 1, were required to be undertaken and therefore rank highly on the school's C.P.D. agenda.

My data support the arguments of Bottery and Wright (2000), Dadds (1995, 2001) and MacBeath (2008) that schools have absorbed the imposed external demands to such an extent that they appear to have become their own priorities. This would suggest that the directed route had become the school's route. My research data support this hypothesis and are in line with Bottery's earlier claim, in relation to INSET, that government led priorities have become the schools' priorities. MacBeath (2008) looks in more detail at what appears to be the school's ownership and apparent compliance with the government's prescriptive policies. He identifies both compliance, and elements of subversion where the government's policy is in conflict with the headteacher's beliefs and values.

Age Related Issues

Those who have taught in schools during or before the 1980s, and ahead of the 1988 Education Act, would remember an era when individual schools had greater control of their curriculum and development needs. I was interested, therefore, to explore whether there were any age related issues within the clusters. The data collected from the questionnaire (1) provided me with each respondent's length of experience in teaching (Table 4.2) and I was able to use that data to separate the teachers' responses into the following groups: 1 to 10 years, 11 to 20 years, 21 to 30 years and over 30

years for each cluster, however, these categories only provided small numbers and therefore for the purpose of analysis I chose to look at the larger groups: 1 – 20 years and over 21 years. At the time of the data collection (2005–2006) these categories conveniently separated those teachers who started teaching before the 1988 Act from those who began teaching after it. I wanted to discover whether the groups' assessments of the quality of their C.P.D. were at variance, bearing in mind their differences in length of experience. The charts below (Tables 4.8 and 4.9) show the overall assessment of the quality of C.P.D. relating to Bolam's tripartite definition. Results are shown for each cluster using a five point Likert scale.

Across the two clusters 40% of the teachers had over 21 years experience including 13% with over 31 years experience. It is this group with over 21 years experience who will have taught before the 1988 Education Reform Act. This group will have experienced teaching in the years before the government's reforms and witnessed the implementation of the post Education Reform Act initiatives. This group, because of their training and experience, may have personal ideologies that are in conflict with those which underpin the changes in education (MacBeath, 2008). Dadds (2001) predicted that, following the Education Reform Act (1988), the rate and amount of change would be overwhelming for many teachers and may result in those teachers leaving the profession. Ball (2003) draws attention to the spread of education reform across the world which has at its core the market, along with a culture of managerialism and performativity. He believes when they are employed together 'these technologies offer a politically attractive alternative to the state centred, public welfare tradition of educational provision' (Ball, 2003, p216). He refers to teachers as ethical subjects and claims that many have left teaching because of conflicts with ethical issues of performativity. It is against this background that we can compare the two groups of teachers according to their length of service and examine their attitudes to C.P.D.

The percentages for the highest two levels of the Likert scales (5 and 4) were combined to show the total number of positive comments for each of

Bolam's three categories in relation to the two groups of teachers (see tables 4.8 and 4.9). The levels of satisfaction for both groups and for each area of C.P.D. were generally very positive; however, the longer serving teachers registered higher and in some cases considerably higher levels of satisfaction with Professional Training, Education and Support (Southern Cluster) and Professional Education and Support (Northern Cluster). When making comparisons based on teaching experience I was aware that the longer serving teachers, having remained in teaching, were likely to have adapted to change over the years in contrast to those colleagues who became disillusioned and left teaching (MacBeath, 2008). In order to examine the basis for some of these judgements I analysed the individual comments where the highest scores had been given (5 and 4).

Table 4.8 Teachers' assessment of the quality of C.P.D. related to the length of their teaching experience. Northern Cluster

		Excellent 5	4	3	2	Poor 1
Professional Training	1-20 yrs (N = 24)	1 4%	12 50%	11 46%		
	21 yrs + (N = 15)		7 47%	7 47%	1 6%	
Professional Education	1-20 yrs (N = 12)		2 17%	8 67%	1 8%	1 8%
	21 yrs + (N = 8)	2 25%	4 50%	2 25%		
Professional Support	1-20 yrs (N = 23)		6 26%	12 52%	3 13%	2 9%
	21 yrs + (N = 16)		6 37%	8 50%	2 13%	

Table 4.9 Teachers' assessment of the quality of C.P.D. related to the length of their teaching experience. Southern Cluster

		Excellent 5	4	3	2	Poor 1
Professional Training	1-20 yrs (N = 21)	1 5%	10 47%	10 47%		
	21 yrs + (N = 13)	1 8%	9 69%	2 15%	1 8%	
Professional Education	1-20 yrs (N = 12)	5 42%	2 16%	5 42%		
	21 yrs + (N = 9)	2 22%	4 44%	3 33%		
Professional Support	1-20 yrs (N = 21)	2 10%	12 57%	5 23%	2 10%	
	21 yrs + (N = 12)	2 17%	9 75%	1 8%		

The following comments are typical of those from each area of C.P.D.

Professional Training (Teachers' Responses)

The range of responses illustrate teachers' understanding of professional training.

- 'Gives necessary tools for my profession' (Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 6, Southern Cluster)
- 'Often feel that courses make me feel valued as a teacher and reinforce my professional status' (Key Stage 2 teacher with 1-10 years experience, School 8, Southern Cluster)
- 'Helped with the job I do and also when completing N.P.Q.H.' (Deputy Head with 21-30 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster)
- 'Updates on co-ordinators' roles and responsibilities and on current issues and thinking' (Key Stage 2 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 14, Northern Cluster)

- ‘Numeracy focus on challenging the more able and on challenging my ideas and thinking – raising of the high jump bar’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with 21-30 years experience, School 4, Southern Cluster)
- ‘I have learnt ideas on courses which I am now putting into practice in the classroom’ (Foundation Stage teacher, NQT, School 2, Northern Cluster)
- ‘Developed PSHCE co-ordinator skills enabling me to be a leading teacher’ (Key Stage 1 teacher with 1-10 years experience, School 1, Southern Cluster)
- ‘We loved the days at high school run by teachers and advisers in the areas they were excellent’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with 10-20 years experience, School 2, Southern Cluster)

The teachers’ comments demonstrate a general understanding of Bolam’s classification and represent areas of training that are, at times, associated with a sense of professionalism. For example comments such as ‘gives necessary tools for my profession’ (Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 6, Southern Cluster) and ‘often feel that courses make me feel valued as a teacher and reinforce my professional status’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with 1-10 years experience, School 8, Southern Cluster) indicate this sense of developing professionalism. A range of curriculum based training, and links with classroom practice are evident in the following comments which demonstrate knowledge gained, ‘updates on co-ordinators’ roles and responsibilities and on current issues and thinking’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 14, Northern Cluster) and ‘numeracy focus on challenging the more able and on challenging my ideas and thinking – raising of the high jump bar’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with 21-30 years experience, School 4, Southern Cluster). Teachers also valued the practical aspects of training as this comment shows ‘I have learnt ideas on courses which I am now putting into practice in the classroom’ (Foundation Stage teacher, NQT, School 2, Northern Cluster). The following comments illustrate that specialist knowledge was appreciated ‘developed PSHCE co-ordinator skills enabling me to be a leading teacher’ (Key Stage 1 teacher with 1-10 years experience, School 1, Southern Cluster) and ‘we loved the days at high school run by teachers and advisers in the areas they were

excellent' (Key Stage 2 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 2, Southern Cluster).

The N.P.Q.H. experience appears to have been well received and the respondent stated that it 'helped with the job I do and also when completing NPQH' (Deputy Head with 21-30 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster). This prescribed, competence based model has built into its structure the capacity to adapt to meet the needs of teachers in a range of schools. In research for the DfES (2007) teachers undertaking the N.P.Q.H. figure proportionally more prominently than in the clusters. As undertaking the N.P.Q.H. has now become a requirement for new headteachers it is not surprising that, according to the DfES research 23% of headteachers had undertaken the N.P.Q.H. within a three year period (DfES 2007). The DfES report, however, registered some dissatisfaction over issues of insufficient flexibility, personalisation and quality assurance (DfES, 2007). It is possible that, because of the compulsory nature and timescale of the N.P.Q.H. for new headteachers, this is another factor which decreases the opportunity for aspiring headteachers to study for a post graduate degree or follow another route of their choice. None of the teachers was currently studying for a higher degree. This would suggest that the advantages of the longer award bearing courses (Conner, 1994; Webb, 1990) may have been marginalised because of the number of directed courses including the N.P.Q.H.

Professional Training (Headteachers' Responses)

Headteachers' responses were different and focused more on wider professional development than immediate 'hands on' development.

- 'Need time to assimilate changes – C.P.D. provided the opportunity for strategic development time' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 12, Northern Cluster)
- 'Large conference with good speakers stimulates and boosts professionalism' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 14, Northern Cluster)
- 'School Improvement Network Meeting, Inclusion Conference, Thinking Skills, Talk for Learning, Interactive Whiteboard, Excellence and Enjoyment – the raising of awareness of Primary Strategy and

National initiatives' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 1, Southern Cluster)

- 'Ofsted training – great impact on teaching and school' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 2, Southern Cluster)
- 'Training has allowed me to work with colleagues in different networks i.e. Primary Leadership Programme Consultant, N.C.S.L., L.A., cluster work' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster)

The headteachers' reflective responses combine a mix of comments that include elements of education along with training. It is possible that the comment 'large conference with good speakers stimulates and boosts professionalism' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 14, Northern Cluster) although classified as training could also represent professional education. There are very few conferences organised within the county, however, the L.A., in conjunction with a Joint Development Group which includes headteacher representatives, organise a very popular annual conference for primary headteachers. This is an opportunity for invited speakers, which have included one H.M. Chief Inspector and a number of leading academics, to challenge teachers and the L.A. Throughout the conferences there is a clear bias towards education rather than training as conference members are challenged on current educational issues, rather than instructed in the implementation of new initiatives. It is interesting that, although the conferences were found to be valuable, none of the headteachers considered that their references to conferences should be classified as Professional Education. However, there are not clear divisions within these categories and they are open to personal interpretation. Another headteacher recognised that they 'need time to assimilate changes – C.P.D. provided the opportunity for strategic development time' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 12, Northern Cluster). The following comment demonstrates access to a wide range of professional training opportunities, 'School Improvement Network Meeting, Inclusion Conference, Thinking Skills, Talk for Learning, Interactive Whiteboard, Excellence and Enjoyment – the raising of awareness of Primary Strategy and National initiatives' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School

1, Southern Cluster). The following comments identify what are considered to be valuable aspects of training, 'Ofsted training – great impact on teaching and school' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 2, Southern Cluster) and 'training has allowed me to work with colleagues in different networks i.e. Primary Leadership Programme Consultant, N.C.S.L., L.A., cluster work' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster).

Professional Education (Teachers' Responses)

The teachers' responses demonstrated their broad interpretation of this category and the overlap between perceived education and training. This was the area with the lowest response, as only 50% of teachers and headteachers had undertaken what they categorised as this element of C.P.D., but the responses registered the highest levels of satisfaction in each cluster. Those who had undertaken professional education had clearly found this to be a very positive experience, as tables 4.8 and 4.9 show. Combined figures for both clusters show that 51% of all respondents rated it 5 or 4.

- 'Open University ICT – ICT has improved confidence' (Key Stage 2 teacher with over 31 years experience, School 3, Northern Cluster)
- 'P.S.H.C.E. certification (1 year) has led to becoming a leading teacher' (Key Stage 1 teacher with 1-10 years experience, School 1, Southern Cluster)
- 'Theory based courses are important' (Key Stage 1/2 Teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 6, Southern Cluster)
- 'N.P.Q.H. course' (Deputy Head with 21-30 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster)
- 'M.A. with Open University - Active research approach to reflection on practice, flexibility, opportunity to build personal educational philosophy' (Foundation Stage teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster)
- 'Developing analytic faculties to challenge preconceptions' (Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 6, Southern Cluster)
- '20 Day Maths course' (Key Stage 2 teacher with 21-30 years experience, School 13, Northern Cluster)

The following comment demonstrates the perceived value of professional education, ‘developing analytic faculties to challenge preconceptions’ (Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 6, Southern Cluster) and ‘theory based courses are important’ (Key Stage 1/2 Teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 6, Southern Cluster). There are also references to ‘professionalism’, ‘improved confidence’ and ‘educational philosophy’. Teachers identified academic courses in the following comments, ‘Open University ICT – ICT has improved confidence’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with over 31 years experience, School 3, Northern Cluster) and a rare example of a higher degree, ‘M.A. with Open University - Active research approach to reflection on practice, flexibility, opportunity to build personal educational philosophy’ (Foundation Stage teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster). These views support the claim that professional education and the associated university courses (Conner, 1994; Webb, 2000) are an important part of teachers’ professional development. Despite the very low number of teachers who undertook these courses, those who did found them to be rewarding. However, where the N.P.Q.H. has been rated highly in both training and education it represents a high level of satisfaction and an acceptance of this competence based model.

Apart from academic award bearing courses there were a number of valued opportunities for the following examples of school focused professional education, ‘P.S.H.C.E. certification (1 year) has led to becoming a leading teacher’ (Key Stage 1 teacher with 1-10 years experience, School 1, Southern Cluster) and ‘20 Day Maths course’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with 21-30 years experience, School 13, Northern Cluster). The ‘N.P.Q.H. course’ (Deputy Head with 21-30 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster) was considered to be part of this teacher’s professional education.

Professional Education (Headeachers’ Responses)

Headteachers appeared to have a clear and shared common understanding of what is meant by education within this context and demonstrated this in their responses.

- ‘More time to explore reasoning and rationale behind change and time to begin action plan’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 12, Northern Cluster)
- ‘Raises self esteem / professionalism’ (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 14, Northern Cluster)
- ‘N.C.S.L. – Leading from the Middle – training for coaches’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 1, Southern Cluster)
- ‘Time to reflect’ (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 2, Southern Cluster)
- ‘I was appointed to headship soon after completing my M.A. at University it deepened my understanding and gave me confidence’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 5, Southern Cluster)
- ‘Primary Leadership Programme researched and delivered by N.C.S.L. and L.E.A. activities have challenged my own Leadership and Management style’ (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster)

The headteachers’ comments reflect current initiatives and again we see high levels of satisfaction. The view that professional education ‘raises self esteem / professionalism’ (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 14, Northern Cluster) was representative of comments in this category, also valued was the need for ‘time to reflect’ (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 2, Southern Cluster) and to have ‘more time to explore reasoning and rationale behind change and time to begin action plan’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 12, Northern Cluster). Courses run by the N.C.S.L. were valued and categorised as professional education, ‘Primary Leadership Programme researched and delivered by N.C.S.L. and L.E.A. activities have challenged my own Leadership and Management style’ (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster). There is a link between one headteacher’s view of her M.A. and the resulting professional confidence ‘I was appointed to headship soon after completing my M.A. at University it deepened my understanding and gave me confidence’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 5, Southern Cluster). A small number of headteachers had undertaken the N.P.Q.H. but, as they had considered it to

be training, chose not to include it in this category. The valued C.P.D. activities listed above would appear to have been chosen by the individual headteachers.

Professional Support (Teachers' Responses)

Satisfaction levels were high in the Northern cluster (26% and 37%) and very high in the Southern cluster (67% and 92%). It is interesting that professional support appears in the responses as an important and dynamic area, even though it appears to be taken for granted as part of teaching, and not generally included as part of C.P.D. The high levels of support demonstrate the importance of communities and the value of tacit knowledge. Where staff work intuitively with colleagues and where levels of trust are high it is likely that tacit knowledge and the negotiation of meaning may be barely visible (Wenger, 1998).

The following responses demonstrate teachers' clear understanding of professional support.

- 'regular classroom observations – external reinforcement that I am teaching to expectations – morale booster' (Key Stage 2 teacher with 21-30 years experience, School 4, Southern Cluster)
- 'this is the bread and butter of an effective communicating school because you are surrounded by people with a wealth of experience in your work environment' (Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 6, Southern Cluster)
- 'Discussion in staff meetings and general chat can be very helpful and develop teaching but only in the right atmosphere where all teachers are really valued' Foundation Stage / Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 12, Northern Cluster)
- 'Have been an I.T.T. mentor' (Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 1, Southern Cluster)
- 'It is very valuable to discuss my performance with other teachers who are in the same job in the same place because schools and practices vary according to intake' (Key Stage 2 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 2, Southern Cluster)

- ‘Good Key Stage 1 Co-ordinator who has supported and helped me become familiar with Key Stage 1 teaching’ (Key Stage 1 teacher with 1-10 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster)

Teachers, drawing from their experience recognised and valued this area as this comment demonstrates, ‘this is the bread and butter of an effective communicating school because you are surrounded by people with a wealth of experience in your work environment’ (Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 6, Southern Cluster). The formal and informal aspects of professional support are identified as ‘discussion in staff meetings and general chat can be very helpful and develop teaching but only in the right atmosphere where all teachers are really valued’ (Foundation Stage / Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 12, Northern Cluster). The following comments indicate a link with more formal aspects of support, ‘regular classroom observations – external reinforcement that I am teaching to expectations – morale booster’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with 21-30 years experience, School 4, Southern Cluster), ‘it is very valuable to discuss my performance with other teachers who are in the same job in the same place because schools and practices vary according to intake’ (Key Stage 2 teacher with 11-20 years experience, School 2, Southern Cluster). Personal support from a colleague was appreciated, ‘good Key Stage 1 Co-ordinator who has supported and helped me become familiar with Key Stage 1 teaching’ (Key Stage 1 teacher with 1-10 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster).

Professional Support (Headteachers’ Responses)

Headteachers were well placed within the cluster to gain professional support from colleagues through informal networking as their comments demonstrate.

- ‘This is the most useful element of CPD for me – professional dialogue’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 6, Northern Cluster)
- ‘SEN support systems / assessments and resources all updated and more appropriate to individual needs’ (SENCo was part of headteacher’s role) (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 12, Northern Cluster)

- ‘There has been some excellent staff led INSET’ (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 14, Northern Cluster)
- ‘Support mainly through cluster heads or similar – some useful support from L.A. though can occasionally be threatening’ (Headteacher with 11-20 years experience, School 3, Southern Cluster)
- ‘given opportunities to work outside my school/cluster and allowed me to reflect/review’ (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster)
- ‘working together as a team’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 4, Southern Cluster)

Headteachers clearly valued support from colleagues as this headteacher commented, ‘support mainly through cluster heads or similar – some useful support from L.A. though can occasionally be threatening’ (Headteacher with 11-20 years experience, School 3, Southern Cluster). Here there are references to support systems including the headteachers’ cluster and the L.A., although the headteacher’s reference to the L.A. support being occasionally ‘threatening’ would suggest that support from colleagues is preferred to that of advisers who are involved in judging the school’s performance through monitoring and inspection. As L.A. advisers have to provide a ‘note of visit’ following each meeting in school, with copies to the L.A. and the Chair of Governors, heads may be justifiably guarded in their discussions. Headteachers, because of the nature of their role, may not have access to support systems within their schools and are likely to seek support from headteacher colleagues. This was an area that I did not develop, however, it is acknowledged (Flintham, 2003) that headteachers are likely to experience extreme levels of stress and therefore need access to effective support systems. Where headteachers have multiple roles they need additional specialist support and guidance as this headteacher, who was also SENCo, explained, ‘S.E.N. support systems / assessments and resources all updated and more appropriate to individual needs’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 12, Northern Cluster). There was recognition of support gained by, ‘working together as a team’ (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 4, Southern Cluster) and also through professional discussion, ‘this is the most useful element of C.P.D. for me – professional

dialogue' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience, School 6, Northern Cluster). Comments also highlighted the expertise of members of staff, 'there has been some excellent staff led INSET' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 14, Northern Cluster). However, external support was also valued as this comment demonstrates, 'given opportunities to work outside my school/cluster and allowed me to reflect/review' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience, School 9, Southern Cluster).

The questionnaire produced mainly positive responses to the three forms of C.P.D. in Bolam's definition. 'Professional training' and 'professional support' were valued, however, the highest levels of satisfaction were with 'professional education' which had the lowest attendance. There were only occasional examples of teachers doing higher degrees and other academic award bearing courses, however, their levels of satisfaction were high. From the data analysis it is clear that in both clusters the courses with the highest attendance levels reflect the national initiatives which were also priorities in the schools' development plans. Funding was available for most of these courses and the DfES and L.A. expected schools to attend. National initiatives have been adopted and schools appear to have made these initiatives their own priorities. There was no evidence of the G.T.C.'s policy of a C.P.D. entitlement for all and an absence of designated C.P.D. Co-ordinators in schools left headteachers to take responsibility for this role.

The data collected from the survey provided the background and starting point for the semi-structured interviews in which attitudes to and understanding of C.P.D. could be explored in the two case study schools. In the following section I examine the data from the semi-structured interviews with staff and pupils based on thematic analysis (see above, p 78). The interview questions for teachers (Appendix F) and pupils (Appendix G) were used to focus the discussion. The purpose of the interviews was to gain a view of C.P.D. from the headteachers' and teachers' perspectives along with a view of teachers as professionals. Pupils' views of their schools and of their teachers' learning were also valued.

Semi Structured Interview Analysis

Greendale C P School

The staff at Greendale C. P. School were willing to help and in the autumn term I carried out interviews with the headteacher and his three teachers. Earlier this year I had agreed that Simon, the headteacher, should observe two teachers in my school, as part of his Ofsted inspection training, so in a sense, he was perhaps returning a favour. I was grateful for his help and the co-operation of his staff.

Table 4.10

Greendale C. P. School Interview Schedule		
21.09.05	Dawn	Foundation and Key Stage 1 teacher
21.09.05	Susan	Lower Key Stage 2 teacher
21.09.05	Simon	Headteacher and Upper Key Stage 2 teacher
23.09.05	Vicky	Upper Key Stage 2 teacher
03.04.06	Pupils (4)	Year 3, 4, 5 and 6

During the semi structured interviews I used the questions set out in Appendices F and G for staff and pupils respectively, and explored related areas when they arose. The questions probed areas of interest arising from questionnaire 1 (Appendix B) and based upon Bolam's definition. They were a development from the separate lists of questions for headteachers and teachers used in the pilot study. I considered it to be more useful to offer both headteachers and teachers the same questions so that their responses could be compared. The interviews, which were held in the staff room at the end of the school day were spread over two evenings; they were relaxed and informal, each lasted approximately twenty minutes and the recording conditions were good. The questions were formed around Bolam's tripartite definition of C.P.D.

Although Bolam's definition is helpful in that it provides clear categories covering the full range of C.P.D. and, is therefore a useful analytical tool, it was not always possible in the interviews to make a clear distinction between 'training' and 'education' and some courses referred to by teachers, as was the case with the questionnaires, included elements of both.

Generally the difference between training and education was clearly recognised and courses within each category were identified. Dawn, the Foundation and Key Stage 1 teacher, drew the distinction between the training methods of literacy and numeracy courses where it was ‘... an overview for everyone’ in contrast to the educative more tailored delivery of a recent practical ‘hands on’ Foundation Stage course. Here Dawn believes that the literacy and numeracy courses were delivered broadly and that the Foundation Stage course was accessible through its practical nature, and therefore the skills and knowledge were more easily transferable to the classroom. She gave the impression that she really enjoyed this Foundation Stage course, referring to it frequently when speaking about successful C.P.D. In contrast, however, she spoke about a SEN Management course where she felt that the method of delivery was inappropriate.

‘we weren’t being trained to be managers, we were being trained in how to deliver our knowledge to other members of staff ... and it was as if we didn’t know what we were talking about’

The course content was clearly not in line with Dawn’s view of management training but seen simply as a means of disseminating information to colleagues at school through the delivery model. With this course which represents the deficit model as described by Dadds (2001) we see teachers being trained in SEN management practice without reference to their past experience or knowledge. Consequently Dawn felt that there was an assumption that she knew very little and that her professional experience was not acknowledged.

Susan, a Key Stage 2 teacher, spoke about the National Numeracy and Literacy Training and the way it had been delivered. This was, in Susan’s view, clearly training and she recognised the familiar prescriptive package associated with the delivery of the Numeracy and Literacy Strategies.

... I think it was largely training, or retraining really, for us as teachers and it was delivered ... I think it was

valuable and we did retrain as it were. It's not quite the same as being educated, it wasn't quite the same.'

All four interviewees had experience of and could relate to what I described to them as Dadds' image of the 'empty vessel' and, although they recognised that this was applicable to some C.P.D. providers, they made it clear that the most successful courses began with the teachers' knowledge and expertise. This was a recurring theme and parallels were drawn between the way teachers themselves build on pupils' previous knowledge to deliver successful learning experiences and the structure of C.P.D. courses. Susan explained how some courses built upon participants' previous knowledge.

'Some of the training either requests aims and objectives in advance where you do have an input and you say what you hope you will learn from the course'

This is in line with the recommendation (DfES, 2007) that C.P.D. should be tailored to sector specific needs, and the needs of individual schools. This tailored approach is more likely to address the needs of individual teachers and their existing knowledge levels. It is also in line with theories of adult learning (Knowles, 1984) where the previous experience of the learner has to be implicit in the learning process because it is too significant to ignore.

In contrast to the limitations of the 'one size fits all' model discussed above (p17) the preferred C.P.D. was planned and delivered especially for the school. There were two instances of this happening. An advisory maths teacher visited the school and took a demonstration lesson on place value. The lesson was observed by every teacher whilst the two other classes were supervised by teaching assistants. Here the staff observed a lesson with their own pupils in their own setting and found the experience valuable. Speaking about the lesson Susan said ...

'... it's just great to watch someone else teach because again we don't get to do that very often and it was great ... it was good for us to watch and it was very helpful.'

Vicky referred to training that had been led by the headteacher who was also the ICT co-ordinator. Simon had organised a half day's training on interactive whiteboards and this had also been well received. She considered this to be valuable C.P.D. particularly because of the continued support of the headteacher.

'Simon will give a workshop to us one morning on training days and he'll deliver it really well so we'll all understand it and support us and say come and get me if you need me.'

Both of these examples are of C.P.D. that had been tailored to the needs of the staff as opposed to following a 'one size fits all' approach where it is assumed that each school has the same needs and the same level of knowledge. We see an advisory teacher in the teacher's class tailoring their lesson jointly to the needs of the pupils and the class teacher. The headteacher delivered training matched to the needs of the staff whose strengths and weaknesses he knew well through observing their lessons.

Although teachers at Greendale took part in both internal and external C.P.D. they clearly valued 'work place learning' and it was embedded within the school's culture and practice. Recently the school secretary had trained as a teacher under the Graduate Teacher Programme (G.T.P.) and most of the training had taken place in the school under the supervision of the headteacher and another experienced teacher acting as senior tutor and mentor. Susan spoke about this experience underlining the close relationship with the former school secretary and G.T.P. student.

'... we were very close friends and I worked very closely with her ... she developed her own style by the end of the year and yes it was very much an apprenticeship ... but through that I learnt a lot as well'

There is recognition here of the importance of the two way learning process between teacher and student teacher. Within this school's community of practice we can see staff working closely and supportively. Susan also discussed the positive aspects of working with university P.G.C.E. students as a workplace learning experience:

'... our children benefit, but we benefit as professionals from watching someone else develop and seeing what they bring to the job because it gives you a whole set of new ideas yourself, it's not just the new ideas that they have from college, it's the way that they sit down with the children or relate to the children ... they have a different approach'

This example of the external P.G.C.E. students, in contrast to that of the secretary who was completing 'in school' training under the G.T.P. scheme, demonstrates the way that overlapping or aligned communities of practice, in this case the school and the university department, can be mutually beneficial. Susan finds the approach of the university students refreshing and may well be influenced by this successful approach. Where G.T.P. students are inducted into the methods used in a school there may be an unspoken expectation to model what is accepted as good practice within the school. Here difficulties may arise if these methods are not transferable to other teaching situations. Work based learning, although generally acknowledged to be a powerful experience (N.C.S.L. 2007), can also prove to be narrowing and conservative and, because it lacks a broader view of roles and expectations, may lack a focus on change. I questioned Susan about how well the P.G.C.E. students were prepared for teaching. She replied:

'... I think generally they come much better prepared for the classroom – I don't know actually what the difference is as I'm not aware of how they've developed their courses but they seem to come with the strategies ... they seem to

come much better prepared for the classroom itself, so I think they must be doing a good job'

Vicky felt that doing lesson observations of colleagues and also Simon's expertise in I.C.T. were beneficial learning experiences. Vicky had also, in her role as art co-ordinator organised a school mosaic workshop. She had worked with the staff and demonstrated art techniques that they could use themselves in their art lessons. Here we see the learning community working together for the common aim – to benefit the pupils. The willingness of the Greendale staff to engage in high levels of interaction, as demonstrated between headteacher, teachers, student teachers and support staff, reflect the success associated with McGregor's (2003) research into the styles and dynamics within secondary school departments as part of her study of the patterns of association and interaction between teachers. Here staff work collaboratively and supportively and have multiple roles within this small school. Although each member of staff is accountable to the headteacher they have the delegated authority to manage their subject areas.

Dawn summed up her view of the essence of small school workplace learning, in terms of communities of practice as defined by Lave and Wenger, 'individuals bound by shared practice related to a set of problems or tasks, sharing and creating knowledge through participation' (Lave and Wenger, 1991 as cited in McGregor, 2003 p117). In her view she extends the community to include learning from pupils as well as from colleagues. This would fit with the school's ethos and its open approach to C.P.D.

'I think we're all learning something all the time I don't think there's ever a week goes by when we haven't learned something either from each other or from the children themselves. It's an ongoing thing we're always sharing experiences we're always discussing where the children have moved on to, if they have problems or what they're good at, so we're sharing our knowledge between us in positive ways really.'

Pupils' Views

The Greendale pupils provided a unique view of their teachers' C.P.D. based on their own experience in the classroom. They were aware of the times when the staff were attending courses and also of the occasions when the staff supported one another. Through their open conversations within the classroom the staff provided a model for the pupils who recognised that this was a school where everyone helped each other and worked together.

I interviewed a group of four pupils and Mary, aged 9, explained how teaching assistants occasionally need some helpful advice with new work. She had a clear understanding of how the staff were supported and accepted that both teaching assistants and teachers need to be shown how to do new things.

' ... we were doing maths, like this morning actually, Mrs. Clarkson our helper in our school, she's in our class, and when she doesn't know what to do she always calls for Mr. Pringle and they'll work it out together and they sort of help each other ... '

The Greendale pupils were also aware of times when teachers learnt new facts, shared their knowledge with colleagues and when children would pass on their knowledge to their teachers. The Greendale pupils worked in a friendly relaxed atmosphere with Simon, the headteacher who was also their class teacher, who often talked to them about his interests and new things that he had learnt. It was Simon's belief that his pupils should be aware that he is also learning new things and within the course of his teaching he would reinforce this concept. Simon's natural enthusiasm for teaching would transmit to the children as Ashleigh aged 10 described:

'Yes it makes it a lot more fun because if he's excited then we think this is going to be really good. '

Ashleigh went on to explain how Elliot, a Year 6 boy who was very knowledgeable about computers, was relied upon to help with technical

problems. Elliott was the school's unofficial I.T. technician. Ashleigh explained:

'Whenever we have a problem with the computers or the laptops or the smart boards or the laminator or anything really high tech in this school we always shout for Elliot - he just comes down and sorts it out ...'

Unfortunately Elliot was absent on the day of the pupils' interviews and I was disappointed not to be able to include him. However, earlier in the year, when my own school shared a residential outdoor education trip with Greendale, I had met Elliot. Simon had explained how Elliot, working with his father, builds computers in his spare time and, as we walked along, I talked to Elliot about how slow my laptop was. After a few key questions and thoughtful moments, he suggested that I should defragment the hard drive. He then proceeded to explain how it was done and at the end of the week gave me some carefully written instructions. The instructions proved to be accurate and the problem was solved. This conversation was interesting on a number of levels but in particular because here we see not only a 10 year old boy helping a teacher out, but also a pupil who, because of the value his teachers place upon his knowledge, is sufficiently confident to do so. The message that Greendale teachers give to their pupils is clearly 'we learn from each other' and in so doing they reinforce Hargreaves' (2007) concept of the professional learning community as being embodied within the ethos of the school and evident in the attitudes of the staff and, in this case, the pupils. Greendale staff demonstrated the importance of professional development and, through their example, encouraged their pupils to engage in discussion about learning at all levels. The Greendale pupils had an understanding of the way their teachers developed their knowledge.

Professional Development

At Greendale the staff had opportunities to engage in a wide range of professional development because of the way leadership was organised in the school. Simon used a distributed or shared leadership style and the

school therefore did not depend on a single leader. To support the staff with their roles and responsibilities, which included monitoring colleagues' lessons, they were encouraged to access appropriate forms of professional development both in and out of school. C.P.D. was an important and valued activity along with opportunities to work together as a staff within this community of practice. As a form of professional development Simon was encouraging the staff to monitor colleagues' lessons. He explained that this was extremely beneficial for a number of reasons ...

'I think the main one is actually opening the door to allow teachers to monitor each other, I think that's a big one because it was a two pronged attack, firstly I think teachers need to be able to have the confidence to watch each other and feel comfortable with it. I think as an aside I think we need to say that we've added the governors to that, the governors have actually come in and observed teachers and been with teachers, we've also brought the advisory service to sit with teachers and help them develop their monitoring skill, but we realised that each teacher needs to, if they have a curriculum area, have the chance to monitor it so we're working towards tying that in'

As Simon discusses the importance of lesson observations there is some tension between the idea of collaboration and distributed leadership where the staff have the experience of monitoring each other's lessons, and the idea of monitoring as a form of control. Collaboration is clearly part of the working process of Greendale School and lesson observations are a necessary form of self evaluation.

McGregor refers to Lave and Wenger who believe that 'learning is an activity situated in social participation, in communities of practice' (McGregor, 2003, p116). McGregor, who was researching learning within secondary school departments, explains that the theories of 'communities of practice' are far from simplistic and involve several communities of practice

overlapping both in and outside the workplace. In her research she is particularly aware of the importance of the micro politics of secondary schools and this may be also important in small primary schools where there is a structural resemblance to the secondary school department. She concludes that the theories associated with 'communities of practice' are limited and do not enable the unpicking of 'the important power relationships, crucial in decision making and negotiation' (McGregor, 2003, p127). She, however, supports the view that leadership should not be seen as the possession of certain individuals, and focuses on the process and influence of leadership and the value of collaborative 'work place learning'. This collaborative practice is seen in most small primary schools where, often through necessity, responsibilities have to be shared amongst the staff. In most small primary schools there are examples of shared leadership and, at times when individual teachers are leading C.P.D. in their own subject areas, there are elements of mobile leadership in action (Bennett and Marr, 2003). Mobile leadership, when the lead is passed temporarily to a member of staff, is perhaps likely to occur within a collegial approach to school leadership. In small primary schools, where the whole teaching staff often represent the school management team, collegiality often provides an essential workable management system and, as a consequence, the staff are involved in decision making and in the process of change. Bennett and Marr (2003), who refer to 'leadership from behind' as a method of leading an organisation through the development of relationships, consider that mobile leadership is an active form of 'leading from behind'. They believe that the concept of mobile leadership was present in their research although rarely expressed. Mobile leadership was never referred to by name in the case study schools, however, in these small schools all members of staff shared the leadership role by leading specific areas.

This may well illustrate an area of difficulty between academic research and the practitioner. If practitioners were familiar with the constructed terminology that describes educational research then their understanding would be greater and consequently the research would be more useful. Without a working understanding of the terminology associated with forms of leadership it would be difficult for practitioners to identify leadership

styles and engage in professional debate. This illustrates the gap between educational research and practice (Conner 1994; Webb 1990) and the need for teachers to make connections with educational research as a form of professional development.

Simon explained that he needed to look beyond his school setting for the management training experience he needed. He found this in the form of an Ofsted Inspector's training course and also through the Small Schools Leadership Programme with the N.C.S.L. Simon explained how he searched for external courses to meet his needs and the needs of the school.

'Well, I think the first thing we do is look for what's external – you know what is actually tailor made for my needs ... most of what I've tried to do as a headteacher obviously has been aimed at management skills – I find a lot of the, the internal is actually 'on the hoof' learning as you go along, but I have, as time's gone on, I've actually looked for more demanding management extension type activities.'

Referring to his Ofsted Inspector's training he explained that, although he didn't intend to become an inspector, he still wanted to have the knowledge and expertise of the Ofsted course to use in school. Simon outlined the benefits for himself as a teaching head and for the school.

'I did Ofsted inspection training which, although was more curricula based in terms of being analytical in terms of how the school might improve in terms of the management style, it helped me to delve into how I might develop staff as well.'

Clearly Simon was looking beyond his school and L.E.A. for suitable courses and in addition to the Ofsted training he had recently been accepted on the Small Schools Leadership Programme with the N.C.S.L. Both of

these extractive forms of C.P.D. align Simon and his role as a headteacher with other organisations and enrich his own learning community.

‘... that looks as though it’s going to be very thought provoking and it’s allowing me the chance to go and look at other schools as well and develop things through that.’

There are times when the prescriptive package appears to be what is needed. Here we see a headteacher in search of external, national courses that he maintains will meet his personal and school’s development needs. For Simon, meeting his needs and those of his staff would appear to be the essential requirement in the choice of courses. He sees it as irrelevant whether or not the course is a prescriptive model, Simon’s concern is that it must meet his needs whether they are personal or organisational. In small schools it is generally not cost effective to buy in training for small groups of teachers, and joining an established course in another location can provide a better solution. The teachers’ needs will be met and the teachers will have had the advantage of working with teachers from other schools and with other experiences. Simon is an experienced headteacher who endeavours to meet the professional needs of his staff in the most effective way.

We see in Greendale C. P. School a learning community where learning, including teachers’ professional development is evident to all. We see members of staff leading professional development activities, a member of staff completing the Graduate Teacher Programme and pupils sharing an openness of learning with their teachers.

Interviews at Woodlands C of E Primary School

The interviews were spread over two visits and included Adrian, the headteacher, Martha and Rachel, both teachers, and as with Greendale C. P. School, four pupils from across the Key Stage 2 age range. The aim was to see C.P.D. from the staff’s perspective and gain an understanding of the pupils’ perceptions of their teachers’ learning.

Table 4.11

Woodlands Church of England Primary School		Northern Dales Cluster
Interview Schedule		
27.03.06	Adrian	Headteacher and Key Stage 2 teacher
27.03.06	Martha	Key Stage 1 / Foundation teacher and SENCo
31.03.06	Rachel	Key Stage 2 teacher part-time
31.03.06	Pupils (4)	Year 3, 4, 5 and 6

Martha had recently completed a certificate in advanced teaching studies at a local university. This had a Special Needs focus and I asked Martha about her experience and her perception of the course in terms of training and education. She had found the nine month course worthwhile and explained that she thought that there had been elements of both training and education.

‘... it ranged from being purely instructional to being more of a discussion which was quite useful – and again it was invariably the discussion with real people talking about the real things they have done - it is much better than someone standing up telling you about it.’

She identified the instructional element as training and described the discussion in terms of education. I asked Martha about prescriptive courses and she said ...

‘... when the strategies the numeracy strategy came in they were like that ... the foundation I’ve been on was. I thought that nobody really wanted to know the real questions and invariably it was one of those let’s put the questions at the end and yes we can all knock off early if you keep quiet so no one actually does, you know ...’

Here we see the course tutor actively discouraging questions through peer pressure. Clearly Martha used the introduction and retraining courses for the strategies as a point of reference and her response to the recent ‘Transition

from Foundation to Year 1' course was also negative and aligned with the prescriptive N.N.S. and N.L.S. training. She considered that this training package which involved video clips and handouts was poor value and could easily have been done in her own time. In her discussion of the transition course she explained that the package, which was designed for the majority of schools, didn't match the practice in a small school where the Foundation Stage pupils are taught alongside the Year 1 pupils in the same class and with the same teacher.

... it is almost immaterial to the teacher who teaches foundation and KS1 they're not really having a transition in effect so yes I think quite often they are the worst courses ... you think this is just irrelevant to me and I'm not gaining anything.'

In contrast to the Foundation stage course where assumptions had been made about school size Martha was inspired by a phonics course she found very useful and which she recommended to another teacher in a different school.

'I've just done this 'Jolly Phonics' course and it was great and I was full of enthusiasm - I said oh this was brilliant really good ... to a friend as well and I'm lending her the file and saying go on the course, it was really really good'

Martha found that the phonics course was very enjoyable, relevant and accessible and she used it successfully back in her school setting. Martha was also able to identify work place learning taking place in the school and she explained that, particularly in association with behaviour, discussion among the staff was common.

'I think we all generally help each other on behaviour advice we've got a couple of children who have challenging behaviour and we can say we tried this and this really helped ...'

Each member of the Woodlands staff identified the same example of successful workplace learning. This was an approach to paired reading that had proved to be very successful with each teacher. This was introduced following Martha's SEN course when she discovered that each member of staff had a different understanding of paired reading. Martha introduced the preferred method of paired reading which is now used by every teacher. I asked Rachel, a part-time Key Stage 2 teacher about the introduction of paired reading. Rachel, who recognised the scheme from her work in another L.A., was enthusiastic.

'I really believe it helps children learn to read and to hear Martha say the same thing – we then said why don't we – and because Martha's here all the time, full time, it was implemented.'

As headteacher, Adrian viewed workplace learning in a more formal way and discussed their pragmatic approach to feedback from training courses and how, after lesson observations, the staff support each other where areas of development have been identified.

'... when they've been on courses, they come back and the usual tack is was it any good and if it was good share it, if it wasn't any good then don't bother sharing it – it's that sort of rule but it also manifests itself in terms of when we do classroom observations – there's often a sense at the end of it where if there are some areas to work on members of staff help each other out with those particular aspects.'

In the case of new initiatives, where the same information has to be presented to a number of audiences, it was common practice for the L.A. to combine interest groups such as headteachers, teachers, and governors. Adrian accepted that the 'one size fits all' course, that includes an audience

of professionals and non professionals, was necessary if information was to be shared quickly.

‘I think C.P.D. is very much more inclusive than it ever has been within the same room having maybe governors, parents, teaching assistants, advisers, the lot all in the same room’

However, Adrian indicated that he recognised a movement away from prescriptive, curriculum based C.P.D. because of a move towards a more relaxed approach to the National Curriculum.

‘I guess we’re moving away in a sense from that more prescriptive idea of C.P.D. because we’re moving away from the prescriptive idea of national curriculum.’

In answer to a question about effective C.P.D. Adrian said that he found that the L.P.S.H. course provided him with valuable time for reflection away from school. He also spoke about an inspirational three day maths course. Adrian chose not to tell the pupils about the courses he attends but clearly changes his teaching to accommodate new ideas.

‘... on the management side the most effective C.P.D. in terms of what impact it had on the classroom was indeed the L.P.S.H. because it was time for reflective stuff and it gave me a few home truths which was good – in terms of the curriculum by far the best and most effective training I’ve done in the last two years was the three days maths course and it was a source of renewed knowledge, a fountain of inspiration and it was – and I hope it came through into the classroom although I haven’t overtly told the children – by the way children we’re doing this because we’ve had it on a maths course - I think that that’s been one of the most useful.’

It was clear from the interview with the Woodlands' pupils that they were not aware what teachers were doing when they were out of school. The pupils generally thought that they must be attending meetings and were told in advance that a supply teacher would be covering their teacher's absence. Understandably they were also unable to give an example of a change or modification in their teacher's practice. This was a difficult question to ask a pupil but it serves to illustrate that these pupils are unlikely to be aware of changes that are made directly because of teachers' C.P.D. At Woodlands changes in classroom practice would appear to happen more subtly as with the changes that Adrian made as a result of the three day maths course. It appeared that pupils' levels of knowledge about their teachers' professional development was greater at Greendale than Woodlands. It was, I believe, the level of shared dialogue about learning and teaching that made such a difference between the two schools. At Woodlands, however, apart from the youngest pupil, Ian aged 7, who thought that teachers didn't need to learn things 'because they were teachers', the pupils had a good understanding of the need for teachers to continue learning in order for them to work effectively. I asked if they had noticed when teachers had learnt anything new and James replied ...

'Yes ... well sometimes ... Mrs. Vickers doesn't know very much about maths so she goes in Mr. Kirkham's maths book – that big maths book'

Prompted by the teachers' enthusiastic response to the reorganised paired reading activities I asked the group about paired reading and how that had changed but they had not noticed any changes. The reason for the lack of awareness, I discovered afterwards, was that none of the pupils who were interviewed took part in the paired reading, which was only for those pupils who needed additional support. This was done within small groups and only pupils receiving additional support would be aware of any changes.

Rachel, a part-time Key Stage 2 teacher, gave two examples of courses that she had attended recently and explained how they were both beneficial. The first course, a part-time specific learning difficulties course, extended over

five months and Rachel attended for one day each month. Rachel explained why this was a successful course.

‘we looked at all the specific learning difficulties and ways of which you could cope with children with multi-sensory working and ... getting the phonological awareness better so I do a lot of that sort of work when I’m working with special needs children - that was definitely giving me skills, further skills to work which I do use’

Rachel had curriculum responsibility for science and talked about the second course that she had found very useful and that had helped her to make changes in her teaching. The course was ‘Getting children to think’ and had implications for Rachel’s teaching and her pupils’ learning.

‘I do a lot of science at Woodlands and if we were doing any AT1 – investigative work – I would religiously go right through the steps necessary and look for the variables, look for the constants and almost rehearsing with the children beforehand and trying to really focus on and guide them and really what I was doing was doing it for them so they were guaranteed success – now I’m very much with the 5, 6s I’d say now this is our question ... say for example the question was, I’m trying to think, what have we done recently? ... does the height of the ramp affect how far a car will travel?’

Rachel’s comments suggest that she valued this C.P.D. and demonstrate how changes in her teaching style, resulting from the course, brought about changes in her pupils’ learning. The change that Rachel made in her science teaching brought her in line with current practice and her course gave her the confidence to break away from her more traditional methods. It is uncertain whether or not Rachel chose to attend this training as part of, or in addition to, her performance management programme, however, she was

able to build on her previous experience, appreciate that the course had a practical relevance, and make important changes in her teaching style. Rachel's positive experience is in line with Knowles' (1984) characteristics of adult learners. Rachel demonstrated her commitment to this fundamental change.

'I'll say there you go, there's your question have a go, and very very much leave them to it and then spend the time with the 3s and 4s in the class, and because the course tutor said let them make mistakes they will learn more from them I don't worry quite as much.'

By the time I interviewed Rachel I had completed my interviews with the Woodlands pupils and was therefore unable to ask them specifically about the new methods they used for science investigation. I did, however, ask Rachel about the pupils' reaction to the change and whether she received any feedback from them.

'I think the girls get very excited – I like doing this, I like doing this – I like it when we do this – and I'll say I'm not coming over I'm going to trust you to manage together and they'll remind me – no you said you weren't coming - I think they enjoy the independence.'

Summary of the case study

In Greendale and Woodlands we see each school using whatever methods are available to meet their individual and school needs. In both schools C.P.D. was considered to be of value to the school and there was no apparent distinction made between school based or externally driven C.P.D. The essential criterion was, did the course meet their needs, rather than questioning whether the course was integrative or extractive, or tailor made or prescriptive. Searching for courses that met the individual needs of the school was seen as important and in many cases, because they were both small schools, the external courses provided best value. There is also considerable informal dialogue within each community of practice and

examples of shared leadership styles which include mobile leadership. In the interviews with the staff in each school there were many references to the work of colleagues and the sharing of ideas. Both schools had a supportive management structure which allowed the staff to feel valued and confident and work together in a learning community. McGregor (2003) explores the school as a workplace and begins with the understanding that leadership is shared among the staff and not dependent upon one leader and where there is a place for professional dialogue. McGregor (2003) identifies communities of practice as groups sharing similar goals and interests, forming around a skill or professional discipline. Both schools were clearly communities of practice and pupils in each school were aware that their teachers needed to learn new things as part of their job. In Greendale, because of the informal learning atmosphere created by the headteacher (Simon), the pupils were told about interesting things he had done and this helped to support the school's ethos as a learning community.

Discussion: Teachers as Professionals

The T.D.A. and G.T.C., along with the N.C.S.L., where national C.P.D. initiatives including the N.P.Q.H. are managed and co-ordinated, are promoting a view of teaching as a profession and of teachers as professionals. The N.C.S.L. presents their aspirational view through its website and its own quarterly LDR publication for school leaders which is distributed free to schools. Thrupp (2005) in his critique of the N.C.S.L. considers that through its website it has become a conduit for New Labour policy 'while critical perspectives which do not fit with government policy are largely ignored' (Thrupp, p18). In his critique Thrupp considers that the N.C.S.L. is ...

'promoting an approach to school leadership which is very much dominated by New Labour's educational policy agenda and is drawing on academic work which is, by and large, unlikely to challenge that agenda.'

(Thrupp, 2005, p18)

He believes that this position is in conflict with the N.C.S.L.'s official stance which is one of considerable autonomy. With the N.C.S.L.'s view of an improved profession along with the promise of C.P.D. for all and with a C.P.D. Co-ordinator recommended for every school, there is an expectation that all teachers will access their entitlement to professional development, thus improving their professional practice and status. There is tension here between these aspirational claims and the view that teaching is a low status profession (Eraut, 1994; Etzioni, 1969; Simpson and Simpson, 1969) where teachers are, at best, along with nurses and social workers, semi-professionals. Irrespective of the apparent attempt to promote teaching as a profession Mulderrig (2002) sees the adoption of government policy paradoxically resulting in the loss of professional autonomy and the reinforcement of the semi-professional status of teachers.

In contrast with the law we see a long standing, self regulating profession where its members have had lengthy training, and have access to specialist knowledge and which is independent of the government. It is within the context of the debate on professionalism and without a universally accepted definition of a profession (Simpson and Simpson, 1969), that views of professionalism are explored with respondents through an examination of teachers' and headteachers' responses to their C.P.D. From these responses we can gain an insight into aspects of their professional competence and the effect that their C.P.D. has had on them professionally. In the following paragraphs I examine the comments of teachers and headteachers who have rated their C.P.D. experiences highly (4 and 5) within the framework of Bolam's tripartite definition.

Professional Training

Responses from teachers described their experience of professional training as giving them 'the tools for their profession' (Key Stage 1 teacher with 11-21 years experience) and 'helping with their job' and 'with professional development through the N.P.Q.H.' (Deputy Head with 21-30 years experience). Headteachers' comments about the value of their C.P.D. indicated clear references to professionalism either directly, through reference to 'large conferences with good speakers that stimulate and boost

professionalism' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience), or indirectly acknowledging their requirements as a professional by highlighting 'the need for time to assimilate changes and the opportunity for strategic development time' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience). These positive responses indicate a sense of alignment with current educational policies and their underlying ideology.

Professional Education

From teachers' responses to questions about the value of professional education there are references to experience of 'raised self esteem' and 'increased professionalism', and 'building a personal education philosophy' (Foundation Stage teacher with 11-20 years experience) in relation to completing award bearing courses. Although the longer courses figure prominently in teachers' comments and include an Open University M.A., and award bearing courses in ICT, PSHCE and the N.P.Q.H., they are few in number. Within this area of education, where overall responses indicated relatively low levels of involvement, we see high levels of satisfaction. Long courses, particularly the M.A., where teachers can choose their areas of research, are demanding and time consuming and are difficult to fit in with teachers' full-time workloads which include the ever increasing demands for school based C.P.D. The N.P.Q.H. was at the time of the research a requirement for newly appointed headteachers - it is now a mandated qualification for candidates for headship - and is considered by respondents as both training and education. Headteachers' comments included references to 'exploring the rationale behind change' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience) and the benefits of an M.A. for a new head that 'deepened my understanding and gave me confidence' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience). The reference to 'exploring the rationale behind change' is important as it is the only reference of its kind in the data that refers directly to taking a critical view of educational development. Although academic writers provide a wide range of critical analysis of education policy and practice there is no evidence to suggest that this was accessed by cluster headteachers and teachers, apart from the small number who had taken academic courses. Academic courses have always been demanding in terms of time and commitment and with increased workloads,

plus directed C.P.D., they become more challenging. To explore the rationale behind change requires access to academic research and if the only route is by way of award bearing academic courses then access to this area is narrowed. Without this deeper understanding and without access to academic writing and teaching it is possible that teachers will continue to comply with national policies and be unaware of the range of critical academic arguments.

Professional Support

Teachers' responses could all be linked to experiences of work place learning. They valued working together as a team and having members of staff who would support them. Informal staff room discussions were valued too as were the more formal areas of classroom monitoring and lesson observation. Headteachers' responses were more wide ranging and included access to 'professional dialogue' (Headteacher with 21-30 years experience) and time to 'reflect/review' (Headteacher with over 31 years experience). Support from the cluster headteachers was valued and also the opportunity to work outside of school and the cluster. In the case study schools staff supported one another in line with McGregor's (2003) research in secondary school departments. It is the interactions of staff and the sharing of knowledge and experience within communities of practice that she believes ultimately improves pupils' learning. Little (cited in McGregor, 2003) claims that in 'successful' schools, rather than 'unsuccessful' ones teachers share in collegiality and in systems of continual improvement.

Where Professional Development is rated highly headteachers' and teachers' comments reflect their positive view and C.P.D. opportunities are adopted and become part of the schools' development programme. As discussed above (p 27) Burrage (1984) argues that, although there are positive responses from teachers, the state is clearly controlling the power of the profession. Since the Education Reform Act (1988) we see the government's raft of prescriptive reforms being delivered to teachers without resistance and in so doing increasing their accountability and, as a consequence, reducing their autonomy. These positive comments reflect what appears to be a general acceptance of and compliance with national

initiatives and C.P.D. opportunities in general. This suggests that teachers are incorporated into the state by implicating their unions in the process of the government's national reforms as was the case with Performance Management and Workforce Remodelling. MacBeath (2008), however, challenges what appears to be compliance within what he describes as 'the policy environment' (MacBeath, 2008, p125), identifying headteachers' underlying subversive attitudes. MacBeath refers to headteachers who appear to support government policy but admit to focusing on those areas which are in line with their personal values and beliefs. In my research data there were no apparent instances of subversive attitudes and staff appeared to be supportive of the government policies they followed as part of their 'professional practice'. In both case study schools the National Curriculum, N.N.S. and the N.L.S. were well established and embedded in practice and all lesson observations were judged by the Ofsted criteria. Against this background of established practice the C.P.D. activities, which were judged to be of high quality, can be seen as enhancing the established curriculum. Through this process we see the case study schools following, adapting and taking ownership of the established curriculum. This was the case at Greendale where Simon, the headteacher, led an interactive whiteboard course for staff and in Woodlands where the SENCo's Jolly Phonics reading course allowed SEN pupils to access the Literacy curriculum. The positive picture we see in the cluster case study schools where reforms can be seen as 'a positive force for change and highly influential in supporting and improving practice', (MacBeath, 2008, p125) is in contrast to the view of 'a government imposing educational strategies on schools, deskilling and disempowering teachers' practice', (MacBeath, 2008, p125) . In his research MacBeath encountered this polarity in two primary schools which provided the extreme points between which a range of responses were recorded. It was 'the degree of embrace of government policies or a critical distancing from them' (MacBeath, 2008, p127) which highlighted the difference in his case study schools and illustrated the breadth of the spectrum of responses.

Synonymous with the adoption of government policies is the move to an alternative vocabulary. Fielding (1994) as discussed above (p 33) described this as 'semantic violence' and 'linguistic robbery' and was concerned that

the adoption of an alien language, rooted in the business world, would change the epistemological position from one of the creative curriculum to one based on performativity and in line with the commodification of education (Fielding, 1994). In both case study schools, however, there was evidence of a broad and balanced curriculum which included creative elements, and music had a high profile in each school. Both headteachers were musicians and, through their enthusiasm and personal interest, were keen to promote music as an important part of their school's curriculum. There was no suggestion of subversive attitudes here, although emphasis was placed on what was clearly believed to be an important and essential subject. In both case study schools there was no evidence of resistance to the implementation of government policies and national initiatives had been adopted as part of each school's development planning. It would appear that the creative curriculum co-existed alongside the more formal requirements of government policy.

As with the adoption of policies the language of performativity eventually becomes part of practice, although throughout the semi-structured interviews there were no direct references to the actual 'language of performativity'. In practice the use of the language of performativity may be demonstrated in more formal settings such as performance management review meetings, where progress is measured against targets, and also as part of the school's self review process where pupils' progress is measured, analysed and projected outcomes are predicted. In the case study schools the language of the business world, contrary to the concerns of Fielding (1994), may well be used to deal with the school's management systems, but it does not appear to be used generally by the staff. Ofsted inspections and the action plans they generate, together with the school's cycle of self review which includes performance management, and C.P.D. are the outward signs of a culture of performativity and as with the 'language of performativity' were rarely referred to in the case study schools.

It is clear from the data that teachers' C.P.D. is directed and is aligned with the requirements of current educational policies. Although teachers and headteachers may have a degree of choice, government initiatives are

clearly a priority. Throughout this research there was a general acceptance of and a positive response to most forms of C.P.D. irrespective of the distinction between government or school led initiatives. Because of the established links between the S.D.P., Performance Management targets and their C.P.D., teachers saw their C.P.D. as meeting their needs and also the needs of the school as S.D.P. priorities became teachers' personal targets. As the courses with the highest attendance reflected the government's national initiatives we can see that schools had absorbed these external demands as their own. Bottery and Wright (2000) see this as an indication of the successful adoption of government policies.

We see a wide range of available C.P.D. however the government and L.A. initiatives tend to dominate with the highest levels of attendance. The school development plan reflects current initiatives as part of the government's standards agenda and consequently the range of C.P.D. reflects those priorities. With the alignment of teachers' C.P.D. with the needs of the school more personal areas of development may be marginalised, however there was little evidence to suggest that this was the case. The five statutory training days figure prominently and appear to be the point of delivery for most school based C.P.D. Here we see evidence of government control and systems of performativity working in schools.

My intention was to explore the possibility that there may have been differences in response between those teachers who had taught before the Education Reform Act (1988) and those who have only taught since. The data representing teachers' views of the quality of C.P.D. show very little difference between the teaching experience categories. When the data are grouped more broadly (Tables 4.8 and 4.9) into categories (1 – 20 yrs and over 21yrs) the more experienced teachers rate their CPD more highly than less experienced teachers.

Set against the backdrop of those who argued against the deficit model (Dadds, 2001; Bottery and Wright, 2000; Fielding, 1994) it would appear that within the clusters the overall view of teachers' and headteachers' experiences of C.P.D. is mostly positive and in some cases extremely

positive. This research supports the notion that the government's initiatives have not only been supported by schools but have become embodied in the schools' development agendas. If it was the government's intention, through a process of education reform, to engineer such an outcome then, as Bottery and Wright (2000) maintain it has been successful. Those critics (Dadds, 2001; Bottery and Wright, 2000; Fielding 1994) who expressed concerns, based on an ideology which was at odds with prescriptive and directed methods of C.P.D. and teaching, had previously noted the general compliance with the introduction of the National Curriculum. It could be argued that because of the compliant nature of the majority of teachers the government's raft of reforms has been adopted relatively smoothly. MacBeath (2008) writing twenty years after the Education Reform Act (1988) explores attitudes of compliance and subversion. He sees headteachers displaying both total commitment to new initiatives and also the outward appearance of compliance masking subversion. He maintains that some headteachers within his sample appeared to comply with the national policies but in practice found opportunities to use different approaches that were more in line with their personal ideology. In my research, although there was clear evidence of compliance rather than subversion, there was little evidence that the opportunities for C.P.D. presented by the N.C.S.L., T.D.A. and G.T.C. were being taken up. It was clear that, although this is a recommendation of the G.T.C., there was no C.P.D. Co-ordinator in the majority of schools; on the three occasions where there was it was an extension of the headteacher's role. C.P.D. was mainly based on the one year performance management cycle and was therefore short term and examples of teachers taking long courses were rare.

Chapter 5

Conclusions

From this local study it has been possible to obtain an overview of teachers' C.P.D. within two clusters of rural primary schools in the north of England. This research is, by definition, limited to the local setting and cannot therefore be taken to represent a wider view. The purpose of this enquiry, however, was to inform practice at a local level and also to provide a view of an 'ordinary' situation that others, in similar settings, may take an informed view of. The research, which is set within a limited time frame, is recognised as part of a constantly changing view of educational development. It is linked historically to the past through a succession of changes brought about by legislation and in particular the Education Reform Act (1988). It has been written in the spirit of practitioner research with the intention of informing current practice, as well as contributing to the body of knowledge associated with teachers' C.P.D.

The research question 'Directed routes or chosen pathways?' was derived partly from my own experience of C.P.D. and from general dissatisfaction with the deficit model which was widely used to deliver the prescriptive training packages associated with education reform, following the 1988 Education Reform Act (Dadds, 1995, 2001; Bottery and Wright, 2000; Higgins and Leat, 2001). The research which focuses on teachers' C.P.D. and issues of control and direction, also considers C.P.D. in relation to teachers as professionals. The research questions and sub questions set out below have provided the focus for this research and it is helpful to present them again in this concluding chapter.

How much choice do teachers have over the content and direction of their C.P.D.?

- What is the current attitude of teachers to the way C.P.D. is directed by the government?

- What is the range of C.P.D. available to teachers?
- How do teachers at various points in their careers respond to the challenges of C.P.D.?

How is the government's policy on C.P.D. affecting the professional status of teachers?

- Is there a sense that autonomy has been reduced and that teachers have become simply the deliverers of prescribed packages?
- Is there an awareness of policy changes that have resulted in a feeling of managerialism?

In this chapter, and in response to the above questions, I set out the research findings. I consider the range of C.P.D. priorities, the organisation of teachers' C.P.D., preferred models of C.P.D., professional learning communities and levels of satisfaction. Finally I take a view of teachers as professionals.

C.P.D. Priorities

It is recognised (G.T.C., 2006) that the range of C.P.D. on offer nationally was, to a large extent, limited to national development issues. This was reflected in both clusters where C.P.D. priorities were also in line with national initiatives. Where training for government led initiatives came with funding, and where supply costs were paid centrally, it was likely that these courses would be a priority. In most schools national initiatives were also seen to be S.D.P. targets and therefore a priority. There were clear links between the S.D.P., performance management and C.P.D. Other areas of school development will have to compete and will often, because of a lack of funding and time constraints, be neglected. Reflected in the range of C.P.D. topics across both clusters was the high attendance on courses such as P.E. where teachers were funded, through a local sports partnership, to undergo training. Courses on the transition from Foundation Stage to Key Stage 1 were also part of a national agenda and this was reflected in the high attendance figures for these funded courses. This indicated that national

initiatives continue to influence teachers' C.P.D. and how it is valued, as found by Bottery and Wright (2000) when researching primary schools' in-service training priorities in the 1990s. Bottery found that the training priorities then were also dominated by the current national agenda and particularly by the new national curriculum. In addition to these earlier constraints Bennett and Marr (2003) consider that the effect of the national performance management scheme for teachers 'has affected the range and focus of C.P.D.' (Bennett and Marr, 2003 p 346) They see this within the context of the School Development Plan and a further extension of the technicist-rational organisational model. The focus is on short term solutions, manifesting in short-term action plans which fit neatly into teachers' one year performance management review cycles.

The Organisation of teachers' C.P.D.

From my research headteachers invariably assumed the role of the C.P.D. Co-ordinator along with their many additional roles and responsibilities e.g. subject co-ordination, child protection, educational visits and health and safety and it was rare for teachers to have an established C.P.D. entitlement. It would appear that, although teachers didn't generally have an allocation of funding for their C.P.D. or a specified 'entitlement', teachers claimed to have adequate access to C.P.D. through their headteachers. Although the quality of C.P.D. often varied there was a general agreement across the clusters that it went a long way to matching their needs. The promise of an entitlement of C.P.D. for all (G.T.C.) and a C.P.D. Co-ordinator in each school was not evident in these rural clusters.

Preferred models of C.P.D.

With most teachers in the two case study schools there was a reaction against the prescriptive 'one size fits all' method of delivery as used for the N.N.S. and N.L.S. and a preference for the 'tailored' methods where there was a relationship between the teacher's previous knowledge, their personal setting and the course content. Some 'tailored' training was delivered in school and, where the course or training session was led by a member of staff, the teachers would have the opportunity to follow up related issues with the course leader in school. To a lesser extent, however, one

headteacher actively searched for suitable courses away from school and outside the L.A. It was claimed that this extractive experience, by removing the teacher from their working environment, increased their capacity to reflect and be aware of the bigger picture (Wenger, 1998). C.P.D. in both clusters, particularly where it was school based or closely related, was mainly integrative and it was usual for C.P.D. to take place on the five statutory training days, or during twilight sessions after school. There were, however, occasions when individual or small groups of teachers would attend extractive C.P.D. at a central venue, but it was uncommon for the whole staff to do this. On occasions in both of the case study schools there was a pragmatic approach to the selection of C.P.D. courses and activities. A course may be selected from a range of providers as long as the course met the needs of the school.

Very few teachers indicated that they had taken postgraduate qualifications but those who had, found it to be a very positive and professionalising experience. Bennett and Marr (2003) indicate a low level of interest in extended study and, in their research, only two of their interviewees claimed to have studied for postgraduate qualifications. Across both clusters only three teachers had undertaken accredited courses during the last year. This represents a very low level of interest in this area of development. Apart from my own research degree which is included in the data there is little evidence in the clusters of teachers taking advantage of funded research opportunities; and only one teacher was participating in the N.C.S.L.'s 'Leading from the Middle' programme. A small number of teachers and headteachers had taken the N.P.Q.H. and L.P.S.H. qualifications and these courses were viewed positively. The G.T.C. has recognised the value of practitioner research and, in its booklet (G.T.C., 2006) as part of the 'Teachers' Professional Learning Framework' series, teachers are urged to consider using research-engaged professional practice. The booklet outlines case studies in both primary and secondary schools and encourages schools to engage in educational research and make it part of their school culture. The G.T.C. clearly values this idea which would appear to be in line with the spirit of practitioner research and quotes a primary school headteacher who said ...

'We've been used to seeing C.P.D. as sending one person on a course and getting them to filter it down ... but doing research with support from professional researchers - that's the best form of professional development you can get.'

(G.T.C. 2006, p 3)

This leaflet together with other recent publications from the G.T.C. signal a change in attitude to research based C.P.D. Although the G.T.C. Framework is in existence, it appears to be ahead of practice and there is no evidence of it being used in the clusters. Showering schools with C.P.D. initiatives from the G.T.C. certainly highlights the opportunities for extended C.P.D., but the initiatives will first have to be adopted by schools before they can become effective. With the very low level of interest in research based C.P.D. across the clusters it will be interesting to see how this challenging new initiative develops.

In the course of this research issues regarding teachers and research were raised and, in view of the positive effects of practitioner research, it would be useful to explore the following questions in subsequent research.

- Why don't teachers get involved in educational research?**
- Does academic research connect with classroom practice?**
- Does academic research influence government policy?**

Professional Learning Communities

Within the case study schools it was clear that staff worked together as a team and there were examples of both formal and informal support within these communities of practice. References to the development of the professional learning community (see above, p 48) are present in literature on school reform as well as in the business world (Lieberman, 2007). The development and apparent growth of professional learning communities may, as Lieberman suggests, stem from theories of communities of practice and be embodied in Wenger's claim that ...

'... learning as social participation shapes not only what we do, but also who we are and how we interpret what we do' (Wenger cited in Lieberman, 2007 p199).

The apparent success of professional learning communities may also occur because they are an organisational form that is ...

'uniquely suited to flexibility, looseness and focus, and hence is more adaptable to a variety of different contexts' (Lieberman, 2007 p119).

This structure may well account for the widespread appeal of professional learning communities in the education and business worlds. It could be argued that to some extent the development of the professional learning community is a reaction against prescriptive, 'one size fits all' professional development. In the professional learning community Lieberman (2007) sees the emphasis being placed on 'starting where learners are' and also the recognition that learning comes from colleagues and research generated within the communities. This chimes with the view of teachers in the case study schools, where teachers' existing knowledge and the development needs of the school are of utmost importance. This model is in opposition to the deficit forms of C.P.D. identified earlier (Dadds, 1995, 2001; Bottery and Wright, 2000; Higgins and Leat, 2001), which are claimed to have contributed to the deprofessionalisation of teachers. Lieberman (2007) sees this development giving dignity to participant's work and also enabling participants to connect with knowledge from outside their context. She notes that ...

'when participants were involved in sharing their practice, they felt ownership not only for their work but for their peers as well' (Lieberman, 2007 p201)

She is convinced of the positive aspects of the professional learning communities and the associated practices that can change people's views of learning and presents a strong case against the prescriptive training packages. Underpinning Lieberman's support for professional learning

communities is her view that participants 'learn by participation in their communities, rather than being told what to do' (Lieberman, 2007 p202). She identifies the advantages of internalising new ways of learning which help participants to grow and develop along with the co-operative and connected practices of the communities which, she considers, expose the complexities and problematic nature of teaching. If Lieberman presents the professional learning community in opposition to everything that is embodied in the 'prescriptive package' it is worth considering the implications for teachers as professionals. If deprofessionalisation is associated with the 'deficit' model and the 'prescriptive package' it may be that the professional learning communities will, through the practice of their members, contribute to an increased professional status for teachers. The two case study schools are examples of professional learning communities and match with Hargreaves' (2007) indicators of successful professional learning communities discussed above (p 48). In particular they do not depend on a single leader, they distribute leadership widely, build new leaders and are dedicated to improving learning and achievement.

Levels of Satisfaction

From early in this research project I had been aware of the concerns over the deficit model of C.P.D. (Dadds, 1995, 2001; Bottery and Wright, 2000; Higgins and Leat, 2001) and wanted to establish to what extent there may be levels of dissatisfaction, particularly among those teachers who had the longest experience. I had taken a view of teachers' length of experience in relation to their levels of satisfaction and questioned whether the longer serving teachers, with teaching experience before the post 1988 changes, would have a different view. In both clusters the longer serving teachers generally registered the highest levels of satisfaction with their C.P.D. and levels of satisfaction were highest in the area of professional education. Where teachers had attended a course that had a positive bearing on their practice they were enthusiastic; Martha, one of the longer serving teachers at Woodlands C. of E. Primary School, had enjoyed the Jolly Phonics course and was keen to develop this approach with her class. This, along with the questionnaire data (Table 4.8 and 4.9), suggests that the longer serving teachers were, contrary to my concerns, generally satisfied with the content

and delivery methods of the C.P.D. available to them. It is important to note that this group of teachers had stayed in teaching throughout the wave of initiatives following the Education Reform Act (1988) in contrast to those who left teaching during that period (Dadds, 2001). This group of teachers has adapted to change over the years and appear to view their C.P.D. very positively.

Teachers as Professionals

In the course of the changes resulting from the Education Reform Act (1988) teachers were viewed as compliant as they offered no resistance to the raft of new initiatives (Dadds, 2001; Fielding, 1994) Not only have teachers followed new policies but the government's priorities for education appear, at least from this research, to have become the schools' priorities too. Here we see that C.P.D. associated with national initiatives was, to a large extent also appearing to meet the schools' needs. This is in line with Bottery and Wright (2000) who suggest that schools have absorbed external demands to such an extent that they have become the schools' demands too.

Looking back over the history and evolution of our education system it is clear that although change has occurred at various points the greatest change has occurred with the Education Reform Act (1988). These changes are now embedded in our system and manifest in a structure based on a set curriculum with an emphasis on Maths, English and Science, pupils' targets, SATs, league tables and publicly reported inspections. Those who worked in education before the Act have experienced education in a different form where a degree of autonomy and professional trust allowed for differences in the way schools operated. In that climate, where the performance of schools varied tremendously, there was at least room for experimentation, and control was very much in the hands of the school. Accepting that it is neither feasible nor possible to return to that time, how then can teachers begin to claim back their professional autonomy?

The present emphasis on the value of C.P.D. for teachers' professional development may well hold the answer. A key factor in the deprofessionalisation of teachers (Bottery and Wright, 2000) was the issue

of the direction of teachers' C.P.D. The approach described as one of directed routes rather than chosen pathways (Bottery and Wright, 2000; Dadds, 2001). It is recognised (N.C.S.L., 2007) that learning-centred heads play a vital role in school improvement. Headteachers are well positioned to take control of their school's C.P.D. (DfES, 2007, G.T.C., 2000) and their responsibility is to make sure that it is of a high quality and based on the professional and personal development needs of their school. Not only have teachers followed new policies but the government's priorities for education would appear to have become the schools' and teachers' priorities too. It may be that teachers can reclaim their autonomy through the initiatives of the T.D.A., G.T.C. and the move towards 'new professionalism'. By using teachers' C.P.D. provision whether it is training, education or support there is a means to question and influence change. Using the structure of C.P.D. to deliver change without questioning the nature and implications of that change can be seen as deprofessionalising and not in the interests of the pupils. However, claiming the professional right to question and challenge change, based on a view of education supported by research and development, may enable teachers to claim back some control; allowing schools to meet their individual needs as they feel appropriate. Here is the opportunity to promote practitioner research that is both meaningful to the teachers and beneficial to the school. The long course (Conner, 1994; Webb and Vulliamy, 1996) may be useful here as higher degrees can be tailored to individual needs and also provide teachers with the opportunity to take an informed critical view of current issues. Giving teachers greater professionalism raises them above Fielding's (1994) view of teachers as 'hauliers' who simply deliver the training packages and, through this association, create a view of teaching that deprofessionalises teachers and reduces rather than elevates the education process to the level of a commercial transaction. Fielding upholds the view that ...

'Learning is not just about cognitive structures and systematic approaches: it is about human beings creating, exploring and puzzling over meaning together.'

(Fielding, 1994, p25)

As a reaction against the technicist approach to INSET and to education in general Fielding doesn't see a return to the basics of earlier times as the answer but urges a movement forward towards fundamentals. To this end Fielding calls for a reversal of the trend and the recreation of ...

' ... a language of possibility, a language which celebrates difference, delights in and extends what we share, and understands that the creation of a vibrant inclusive community lies in our capacity to do both together.' (Fielding, 1994, p32)

This was indeed aspirational thinking at a time when the political grip on education was tightening. As the grip remains tight we read in the literature that teaching is viewed as a low status profession (Eraut, 1997), or as a semi-profession (Etzioni, 1969) when compared to the older established professions of medicine and the law. There is, however, with the G.T.C.'s promised entitlement of 'C.P.D. for all' and the N.C.S.L.'s promotion of their range of national professional development courses, a move to raise the level of the teaching profession. If this is the case, and if it is acknowledged that autonomy is a characteristic of professionals (Etzioni, 1969), then teachers' autonomy would undoubtedly increase. However with the government's acknowledged control of teachers' C.P.D. (MacBeath 2008) there is the continued prospect of a reduction in autonomy and therefore a reduction in professionalism.

In contrast to the literature, however, the research data did not reveal concerns over deprofessionalisation among the teachers surveyed and interviewed, nor did it raise any major concerns over managerialism and systems of management and accountability. Perhaps after all the issue of professional status is less significant than the literature suggests, or teachers have accepted the 'new professionalism' in their valuation of their C.P.D. Twenty years after the Education Reform Act (1988), and the wave of initiatives that followed, we see teachers across the age range working within a system that they appear to see as having become theirs.

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APPENDIX A

Cluster Heads' Letter (1)

Date

Dear Colleague,

Re. Teachers' Continued Professional Development Questionnaire
Northern and Southern Clusters

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research project. I am enclosing sufficient questionnaires for you and your teaching staff and I would be most grateful if you would kindly distribute them for me.

In order to meet deadlines the completed questionnaires should be returned to me in the stamped addressed envelope provided, by Monday 9th May at the latest, earlier returns would be appreciated.

The aim of this research project is to examine teachers' C.P.D. and its effectiveness within the Northern and Southern clusters. The completed report will be available to the cluster schools and is expected to be published by the National College for School Leadership.

The completed questionnaires will reflect current attitudes and practices and therefore it is important that all questionnaires are returned for analysis.

Thank you for your co-operation in this research project, your help is greatly appreciated.

With best wishes,

Yours sincerely,

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire (1)

Code:

This questionnaire is designed to collect information about teachers' C.P.D. within the Southern and Northern Clusters and will be used as part of my research project with the National College for School Leadership (2004-2006). The collected information will be used for research purposes and individual schools and teachers will not be identified in the final report. I would be most grateful if you could find the time to complete the questionnaire and return it to your headteacher in the enclosed envelope.

Thank you.

Teachers' Continued Professional Development (C.P.D.) Questionnaire

Please circle the appropriate information regarding your position.

Head	Deputy Head	Subject Co-ordinator	C.P.D. Co-ordinator
Key Stage Co-ordinator		Teacher Foundation Stage	KS1 Teacher
KS2 Teacher		KS1/KS2 Teacher	SENCo

Please circle the appropriate information regarding your teaching experience.

NQT	1 – 10 years	11 – 20 years	21 – 30 years	over 31 years
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Please circle the appropriate response.

Who decides on C.P.D. priorities?

Individual teacher	C.P.D. Co-ordinator	Curriculum Co-ordinator(s)
Headteacher	Other (complete)	

Who decides who attends C.P.D. ?

Individual teacher	C.P.D. Co-ordinator	Curriculum Co-ordinator(s)
Headteacher	Other (complete)	

In the last 12 months how many of the following C.P.D. events have you attended?

In school Out of school

Please respond to the following questions and statements by circling the appropriate number.

How much of your C.P.D. is school based?

(High)	5	4	3	2	1	(Low)
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How much of your C.P.D. is led by colleagues?

(High)	5	4	3	2	1	(Low)
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What level of follow-up support do you receive following school based C.P.D.?						
(High)	5	4	3	2	1	(Low)
How much of your C.P.D. is delivered in twilight sessions ie 2 - 3 hours after school?						
(High)	5	4	3	2	1	(Low)
How much of your C.P.D. is delivered on day courses?						
(High)	5	4	3	2	1	(Low)
Most of my C.P.D. is delivered in single sessions						
(Agree)	5	4	3	2	1	(Disagree)
All of my C.P.D. is funded by the school						
(Agree)	5	4	3	2	1	(Disagree)
Some of my C.P.D. is funded by the school						
(Agree)	5	4	3	2	1	(Disagree)
I have an agreed C.P.D. entitlement						
(Agree)	5	4	3	2	1	(Disagree)
My C.P.D. is recorded as part of my professional development						
(Agree)	5	4	3	2	1	(Disagree)

Professional Training - for example short courses, workshops and conferences, emphasising practical information and skills

Generally how would you rate the quality of this C.P.D.?						
(Excellent)	5	4	3	2	1	(Poor)
How much impact has this had on you as a professional?						
(High)	5	4	3	2	1	(Low)

Please explain

How much impact has this had on your teaching?						
(High)	5	4	3	2	1	(Low)

Please explain

How much impact has this had on your school?						
(High)	5	4	3	2	1	(Low)

Please explain

.....
.....

I chose to attend this training

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

I was asked to attend this training because it was a school development priority

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

I was asked to attend this training as part of my Performance Management Targets

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

Professional Education - for example, long courses and secondments emphasising theory and research-based knowledge

Generally how would you rate the quality of this C.P.D?

(Excellent) 5 4 3 2 1 (Poor)

How much impact has this had on you as a professional?

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

Please explain

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.....

How much impact has this had on your teaching?

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

Please explain

.....
.....

How much impact has this had on your school?

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

Please explain

.....
.....

I chose to attend this training

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

I was asked to attend this training because it was a school development priority

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

I was asked to attend this training as part of my Performance Management Targets

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

Professional Support - for example, activities that aim to develop 'on the job' experience and performance

Generally how would you rate the quality of this C.P.D.?

(Excellent) 5 4 3 2 1 (Poor)

I have received professional support from colleagues through formal discussions

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

I have received professional support from colleagues through informal discussions

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

I have given professional support to colleagues through formal discussions

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

I have given professional support to colleagues through informal discussions

(Agree) 5 4 3 2 1 (Disagree)

How much impact has this support had on you as a professional?

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

Please explain

.....
.....

How much impact has this support had on your teaching?

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

Please explain

.....
.....

How much impact has this support had on your school?

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

Please explain

.....
.....

Looking back over the past three years please respond to the following questions about professional training, professional education and professional support.

Please indicate the level of professional training you have received

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

Please indicate the level of professional education you have received

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

Please indicate the level of professional support you have received

(High) 5 4 3 2 1 (Low)

In this questionnaire you have made judgements on the impact of different forms of C.P.D. on you as a professional, on your teaching, and on your school. Please write a paragraph to explain how you came to these judgements.

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If you would be willing to take part in an interview please indicate.

I would be willing to be interviewed Name

(Please print)

School

School Telephone No

Home Telephone No

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

John Ridley

Research Associate N.C.S.L.

APPENDIX C

Cluster Heads' Letter (2)

23.02.2006

Dear Colleague,

Re. Teachers' Continued Professional Development Questionnaire
Northern and Southern Clusters

Thank you for returning the completed questionnaires for your school in May 2005. The information was very helpful for my research project *which is now in its final stages*.

On examining the data with my supervisor there is some additional information that would be extremely helpful. I am writing to ask if you would kindly complete this brief questionnaire and return it to me by Friday 3rd March. A stamped addressed envelope is enclosed.

The aim of this research project is to examine teachers' C.P.D. and its effectiveness within the Northern and Southern clusters. The completed report will be available to the cluster schools and is expected to be published by the National College for School Leadership. Please note that your school and cluster will not be identified in the report.

Thank you for your co-operation in this research project, your help is greatly appreciated.

With best wishes,

Yours sincerely,

John M. Ridley
N.C.S.L. Research Associate

APPENDIX D

Questionnaire (2)

N.C.S.L. Research Project

Code:

March 2006

Please return by Friday 3rd March 2006

Name of School:

**Looking back over the 12 month period January - December 2005
please estimate the following:**

**Total number of C.P.D. courses attended by head and teaching
staff:**

**Topics/subject areas covered on those courses (Please mark *
areas that are linked to the school's development plan):**

.....
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.....

Number of courses held in school:

Number of courses held out of school:

Number of colleague led courses:

Number of courses linked to the School Development Plan:

Thank you for your help.

**John M. Ridley
N.C.S.L. Research Associate**

APPENDIX E

Questionnaire (2) Schedule

Northern Cluster School Code	Roll	No.	Date Sent	No.	Date Returned
S/01/01-03	35	3	30.04.05	2	10.05.05
S/02/01-10	72	10	30.04.05	6	13.05.05
S/03/01-13	309	13	30.04.05	8	13.05.05
S/04/01-13	312	13	30.04.05	1	16.05.05
S/05/01-08	180	8	30.04.05	4	27.05.05
S/06/01-08	142	6	30.04.05	2	09.05.05
S/07/01-06	94	6	30.04.05	2	19.05.05
S/08/01-05	71	5	30.04.05	1	06.06.05
S/09/01-03	40	3	30.04.05	0	
S/10/01-02	17	2	30.04.05	0	
S/11/01-05	81	5	30.04.05	3	10.05.05
S/12/01-03	39	3	30.04.05	3	27.05.05
S/13/01-06	96	6	30.04.05	5	09.05.05
S/14/01-08	122	8	25.04.05	6 2	09.05.05 27.05.05
	Total	91		45	
Southern Cluster School Code					
B/01/01-13	207	13	25.04.05	6	09.05.05
B/02/01-04	55	4	25.04.05	4	11.05.05
B/03/01-03	33	3	25.04.05	1	17.05.05
B/04/01-04	69	4	25.04.05	4	06.06.05
B/05/01-03	31	3	25.04.05	1	16.05.05
B/06/01-17	?	17	25.04.05	5	09.05.05
B/07/01-05	42	5	25.04.05	4	13.05.05
B/08/01-04	34	4	25.04.05	3	16.05.05
B/09/01-12	334	12	30.04.05	8	09.05.05
	Total	65		36	

APPENDIX F

Teachers' Interview Questions

1. (Distinguishing between training and education)
How would you describe your C.P.D. experience?
2. What about informal work place learning - how do teachers learn from colleagues?
3. Do teachers work together when planning?
4. Do teachers receive professional support from colleagues?
5. How valuable is the support from colleagues?
Please give examples
6. How does this support impact upon teaching?
7. How does CDP impact upon the curriculum?
8. ('benefits/growth' or the 'sanctions/deficiency' model?)
What kind of C.P.D. have you received?
What assumptions were made regarding your existing knowledge in the field?
Was the C.P.D. 'one size fits all' or was it customised?
9. What has been the most effective C.P.D. that you have experienced and why has this been so?
10. Are you able to participate in the C.P.D. you feel is important for you as an individual?
11. How do you evaluate your own or others' C.P.D.?
12. Are there any systems in place in school for evaluating C.P.D.?

APPENDIX G

Pupils' Interview Questions

- 1 Do teachers learn?**
- 2 How do you think they learn?**
- 3 Do they tell you when they go on courses?**
- 4 Have you noticed anything change after they have been on a course?**
- 5 Tell me about the changes**
- 6 Do teachers talk to you about the way they teach?**
- 7 Have they ever changed the way they teach?**
- 8 Has anyone asked you about the way you learn?**

APPENDIX H

Combined Cluster data

S.D.P. Related C.P.D.	C.D.P. not related to S.D.P.
Physical Education (18) Early Years / Foundation (14) SEN (11) Leadership (10) Maths (9) Workforce Remodelling (7) Literacy (6) Science (6) Interactive Whiteboards (4) Child Protection (4) PSHCE (3) SEF (3) KSI moderation (3) Phonics (2) Gifted and Talented (2) Outdoor Provision (2) MFL teaching (2) Assessment (2) First Aid (2) RE (2) Health and Safety (2) Talking Partners (2) Broadband (2) SATs (1) NQT (1) Mentoring (1) Geography (1) Behaviour (1) Creative Curriculum (1) Healthy Schools (1) Ofsted Training (1) Postgraduate KS co-ord. (1) Fire Awareness (1) Moderation of core subjects (1) Extended Schools (1) Strategic Leadership of Curric. (1) Teaching Assistant Induction (1)	PE (3) Child Protection (2) Assessment (2) SENCo Development (2) Behaviour (2) First Aid (2) Asbestos Training (2) RE / Collective Worship (2) Special Needs (1) Finance / Management (1) Leadership (1) Talk for Learning (1) Maths (1) Preparing for Inspection (1) Science (1) Target Setting (1) Story Telling (1) Foundation / Y1 Transition (1) Workforce Remodelling (1) ICT (1) Drama (1) Cycling Awareness (1) MIDAS Training (1) Music (1) HLTA (1) Outdoor Play (1) TA Network (1) Emotional Literacy (1) Art (1) SIAS Inspection (1) Library (1) Research Conference (1) Church Schools' Conference (1)

APPENDIX I

Northern Cluster data

S.D.P. Related C.P.D.	C.P.D. not related to S.D.P.
<p> PE (12) Foundation / Early Years (7) SEN (5) Workforce Remodelling (4) Maths (4) Science (4) SEF (2) PSHCE (2) Phonics (2) Broadband (1) Leadership (1) Geography (1) KS1 SATs (1) Behaviour (1) First Aid (1) MFL Teaching (1) Assessment (1) Outdoor Provision (1) Moderation of core subjects (1) Extended Schools (1) Literacy (1) Creative Curriculum (1) Gifted and Talented (1) Strategic Leadership of Curriculum (1) Child Protection (1) Interactive whiteboards (1) TA induction (1) </p>	<p> SEN (3) PE (3) SENCo Development (2) First Aid (2) Preparing for inspection (1) SIAS Training (1) Finance / Management (1) Leadership (1) KS1 Assessment (1) Talk for learning (1) Learning behaviour (1) Maths (1) Child Protection (1) Foundation Stage (1) KS1 Tests (1) RE / Collective Worship (1) Research Conference (1) Church Schools' Conference (1) </p>

APPENDIX J

Southern Cluster data

S.D.P. Related C.P.D.	C.P.D. not related to S.D.P.
<p> Leadership (7) PE (6) Literacy (5) Maths (5) Workforce Remodelling (4) Early Years / Foundation (3) Child Protection (3) SENCo. (3) SEN (2) Assessment (2) Interactive Whiteboards (2) Talking Partners (2) Health and Safety (2) Science (2) Ofsted Training (1) Small Leading Primary Schools (1) Healthy Schools (1) Gifted and Talented (1) RE / Collective Worship (1) ICT (1) MFL (1) KS1 Moderation (1) Early Years / Foundation Stage (1) Broadband (1) Outdoor Play (1) SATs (1) Mentoring (1) NQT (1) Behaviour (1) First Aid (1) Fire Awareness (1) SHCE (1) Postgraduate KS1 teacher (1) </p>	<p> PE (2) Asbestos Training (2) Behaviour (1) Talk Project (1) Science (1) Assessment (1) Target Setting (1) Story Telling (1) Maths (1) Foundation (1) Drama (1) Cycling Awareness (1) Music (1) HLTA (1) SEF (1) Outdoor Play (1) TA Network (1) First Aid (1) Leadership (1) Art (1) RE/Collective Worship (1) SIAS Inspection (1) Library (1) </p>