An examination of the extent to which educational leadership and management principles are practiced in a sample of London schools, with reference to the effectiveness of the OFSTED model

Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education at the University of Leicester

by

Keith Davidson BA (Hons), PGCE, MA

School of Education

University of Leicester

December 2002

UMI Number: U601325

Dissertation Publishing

ProQuest LLC
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Keith Davidson

An examination of the extent to which educational leadership and management principles are practiced in a sample London schools, with reference to the effectiveness of the OFSTED model.

The Education Reform Act (ERA) 1988, introduced major reforms to the education service. Since then education has remained an important national issue, in a climate that focuses on an ongoing drive to raise educational standards. Thus, this study has directed its attention to an examination of the contributions inspection has made to school improvement and the development and effectiveness of leadership/management practices in a sample of London schools.

The research employed a methodology involving elements of documentary analysis, a questionnaire survey and three case study schools. This was against the background of a wide-ranging literature review, covering: theories in leadership; developments in educational management and school improvement; and the OFSTED inspection system.

The findings from the study indicate that schools were better at developing school policies, but less successful in implementing them. Headteachers were less proactive in building and expanding leadership amongst colleagues. Headteachers perceived themselves to be mainly leaders and less as managers, and will vary their leadership style to reflect the prevailing situation. The study also demonstrates that the OFSTED inspection system functions well in describing headteachers' behaviour, but appears inadequate in shaping headteachers' approach and leadership style.

In addition, the findings show that the schools judged to have had effective overall leadership was the outcome of good leadership development strategies by headteachers. Allied to this is the observation that the low performing schools that were now improving were doing so as a result of the impact of positive and purposeful leadership. The study also confirms that while inspection appears to be a catalyst for educational change and reform, school improvement was ultimately the product of direct leadership initiatives.

Finally, the study proposes that while headteachers should consider themselves firstly and essentially leaders, nevertheless, they should recognise the importance of ensuring and developing effective management practices in their schools. Furthermore, the thesis suggests that headteachers should be trained by OFSTED to conduct and develop systematic school reviews and self-evaluation programmes. Schools would also be required to submit annual self-evaluation returns to OFSTED to be part of the data base on which the chief inspector's annual report is derived. This would allow OFSTED more quality time to assist weak schools in building sustainable strategies for school improvement.

KEY WORDS

The key words that can be used as identifiers and for cross referencing from this thesis are:

1. School Leadership

2. Management

3. Headteachers

4. OFSTED

5. School Improvement

TABLES AND FIGURES

Tables

Figures

ABBREVIATIONS

BERA   -   British Educational Research Association

CDPs   -   Community Development Projects
CPD   -   Continuing Professional Development
CPS   -   Centre for Policy Studies

DfEE   -   Department for Education and Employment
DES   -   Department for Education and Science

EiC   -   Excellence in Cities
ERA   -   Education Reform Act

FSM   -   Free School Meal

GCSE   -   General Certificate for Secondary Education
GM   -   Grant Maintained

HEADLAMP   -   Headteachers' Leadership and Management Programme
HMCI   -   Her Majesty's Chief Inspector
HMI   -   Her Majesty's Inspectorate
HMSO   -   Her Majesty's Stationery Office

ICT   -   Information and Communication Technology
IEA   -   Institute of Economic Affairs
ILEA   -   Inner London Education Authority
IQEA   -   Improving the Quality of Education for All

LEA   -   Local Education Authority
LMS   -   Local Management of Schools
LPSH   -   Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers

MSIP   -   The Manitoba School Improvement Programme

NCES   -   National Council for Educational Standards
NCSL   -   National College for School Leadership
NPQH   -   National Professional Qualification for Headship
NQT   -   Newly Qualified Teacher
NUT   -   National Union of Teachers

OFSTED   -   Office for Standards in Education

PICSI   -   Pre-Inspection Context and School Indicator

QCA   -   Qualifications and Curriculum Authority

SATs	-	Standard Attainment Tests
SDP	-	School Development Plan
SEN	-	Special Educational Needs
SLT	-	School Leadership Team
SMT	-	Senior Management Team
TES	-	Times Educational Supplement
TTA	-	Teacher Training Agency

CONTENTS

Chapter 1

Introduction

Purpose

The purpose of the thesis is to investigate the degree to which certain essential features of educational leadership and management (such as: visioning; providing inspiration and a sense of direction; developing management structures, policies and review procedures; planning; monitoring; and evaluation) are intentionally and systematically developed in the practice of headship in a sample of London secondary schools. The study further explores the extent to which the strong headteacher model, advocated by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), can effectively extend leadership in schools today.

In doing so, it will use the judgements of OFSTED reports covering aspects of 'leadership and management'. This will be augmented by a survey of headteachers of the schools included in the study. In addition, there will also be a case study of three schools from the survey population.

The specific research questions to be addressed by the study are:-

1. To what extent are essential aspects of school management (such as: routine administration, curriculum management, having a school leadership team or a senior management team (SLT or SMT) in place, implementing staff

appraisal and making school development planning a management process) fully developed in the sample of London schools?

2. Are headteachers, in the context of the OFSTED model, providing effective leadership in the sample of London schools?

3. From the sample of London schools, is there a link between:

(a) The effectiveness of headteachers and overall school leadership, as judged by OFSTED in the inspection reports?

(b) Effective headship and the effectiveness of the SLT or SMT?

(c) Headteachers' vision and school planning, as exemplified through school development plans (SDPs)?

(d) Headteachers' acceptance of the OFSTED findings on leadership and management and the positive nature of the judgments?

(e) Overall school leadership and academic results?

(f) Effective leadership and management, and the quality of teaching?

4. To what extent does the OFSTED inspection process influence headteachers' leadership and management styles?

5. What evidence is there, from the sample of London schools, that school inspection is contributing to school improvement?

To answer the questions above this research will focus on: (1) a number of published OFSTED reports of secondary schools inspected in London education authorities, covering the period 1993 to 1999; (2) a questionnaire survey of the headteachers of the secondary schools in the study; and (3) qualitative data from three case study schools.

Policy Context

The context of the research is also set in the continuing campaign for greater school effectiveness and improvement. The task of raising educational standards in schools occupies a central plank in the government's public policy initiatives and its educational strategy. In its White Paper entitled *'Excellence in Schools'* (DfEE, 1997), the government identifies leadership and management as concerns in its drive to raise standards. It stresses the need for schools to be served by headteachers who are competent and who can inspire colleagues to deliver change. The consultation paper states that:

> *'The vision for learning set out in this White Paper will demand the highest qualities of leadership and management from headteachers. The quality of the head often makes the difference between success or failure of a school. Good heads can transform a school; poor heads can block progress and achievement.'*
> (DfEE, 1997 p. 46)

Supporting agencies such as LEAs, the Department for Education and Skills (DfES), OFSTED and the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) are focused on ensuring that their specific work will contribute to the fulfilment of this mission. However, the assertion from the above quotation is open to challenge. While headteachers have a key role in the outcome of schools, successful and effective educational leaders have found that real improvements in schools are the product of collaborative leadership effort. It is the

empowering of other school leaders by headteachers that have been the defining factors for improving schools.

The remainder of this introductory chapter will consider (a) the background to the function of OSTED; (b) an historical perspective on education prior to the 1988 Education Reform Act (ERA) and (c) the justification and frame of reference for using a sample of London secondary schools for this study.

The Function of OFSTED

OFSTED, also the office of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector (HMCI), came into existence on 1 September 1992. Its main aim, expressed as its corporate purpose, is:

> '...*to improve standards of achievement and quality of education through regular independent inspection, public reporting and informed advice.*'
> (OFSTED 1994 p. 3)

Furthermore, the Chief Inspector, under the Act, is charged to keep the Secretary of State for Education and Employment informed about:

- the quality of education provided by schools in England
- the educational standards achieved by schools
- the management and efficiency of resources used by schools
- the spiritual, moral, social and cultural development of pupils.

(OFSTED, 1995 p. 3)

The 'Framework for Inspection of Schools' (OFSTED, 1999) provides the statutory basis for the inspection of any school under The School Inspections Act 1996, as amended by the School Standards and Framework Act 1998. All inspectors must strictly adhere to the principles and procedures laid out in the in the Framework. The Framework booklet itself states:

'HMCI requires all inspectors to meet the requirements set out in this Framework as a condition of their registration as registered inspector or enrolment as a team inspector.' (OFSTED, 1999 p. 12)

There are now two types of inspection and three phases to an OFSTED inspection. The two types are: *a Short Inspection,* designed for schools believed to be stable and effective; and *a Full Inspection,* to be applied to other schools not judged to be highly successful. In a full inspection the whole Evaluation Schedule of the Framework is used and reported on, whereas, in a short inspection the reduced Evaluation schedule of the Framework will apply. The three phases to the inspection are: pre-inspection; inspection and post inspection. During the pre-inspection stage the Registered Inspector will visit the school after an initial analysis of the following documents: the Pre-Inspection Context and School Indicator (PICSI) report; the inspection forms completed by the school; the school's prospectus; and the school development plan. The main purpose for this visit is to meet the headteacher, the staff and the appropriate authority to gain more

insight into the school and to brief them about the inspection. The Registered Inspector will also hold a pre-inspection meeting with parents, gathering their views and perceptions about the school. The inspection team will also study documents supplied by the school and formulate pre-inspection commentaries and hypotheses for examination during the actual inspection.

The inspection phase itself is used for collecting evidence from observations of lessons and from other sources (such as samples of pupils' work, discussion with staff, pupils and governors, documents and policies, school records and data covering the inspection criteria) to make the necessary judgements on the school's performance. Approximately 60% of the inspection time must be spent on observing lessons, the scrutiny of pupils' work and talking to pupils. The post inspection phase involves co-ordinating the evidence and judgements of the inspection team, preparing a draft of the report and its findings for discussion with the headteacher and governors (with opportunity for them to offer clarification and corrections to factual inaccuracies), formulating the final report and the official publication of the report. Parents are entitled to receive the summary to the full report, that is, the 'Main Findings' of the report.

The report of the Parliamentary Education and Employment Committee on the work of OFSTED (The Education and Employment Committee, 1999) concluded that the work of OFSTED must be viewed in the context of a growing expectation from the public that public services should be more answerable to those whom they serve. Teachers also complain that, whereas OFSTED is heavy on diagnosing the faults of teachers, it offers

nothing positive in the way of constructive advice for them to improve (Brighouse, 1997 p. 19).

On the question of the effectiveness and success of OFSTED in raising standards, Keele and Touche Ross (1995) commented that:

'While the data...of this report suggests that in many cases there is improvement prior to inspection, the evidence of improvement as a result of inspection is less convincing...' (Keele and Touche Ross, 1995 p. 4)

Dr Philip Hunter, president of the Society of Education Officers and director of education for Staffordshire found, in a study of 300 secondary schools inspected by OFSTED in six shire counties and one metropolitan authority, that only 44 percent had improved their results to an extent greater than their authority's average in the first year after inspection. The results of the rest improved by less than the average of their individual authority or in some cases deteriorated (Bernard, 1998 p. 24).

The raison d'être for OFSTED can be found in the 1988 Education Reform Act (ERA). This Act sets in motion a series of education reforms, such as the introduction of a national curriculum, local management of schools (LMS) and grant maintained (GM) schools. Its aim was to raise educational standard and focuses on the theme *'education for all'* (DES, 1989). However, prior to the ERA, educational policy determination was

loosely managed. The next section provides an historical account of education during the period 1944 to 1988.

An Historical Perspective of Education (1944-1988)

OFSTED is symbolic of the new order in today's education climate, with respect to education policy and the administration of the education system at national level. Until the enactment of the 1988 ERA, the education service took its shape and form from the provision of the 1944 Education Act. This Act played an important role in the construction of the post-war welfare state. This achievement was made easier by the consensus forged between the two major political parties on the principle that education is important to economic development and social welfare (Chitty, 1944).

In commenting on the 1944 Education Act, and the relationship between the key players that contributed to the unity in education policy-making prevailing at the time, Chitty (1994) says:

> *'Administratively, the 1944 Act set up what is often referred to as "a national system, locally administered." What this amounted to was a tripartite "partnership" between central government, local government and the individual school and colleges.'* (Chitty, 1994 p. 8)

Stress is placed here, by Chitty (1994), on the climate of partnership that existed between the major players in the education process. The era of co-operation and

consensus on education policy making continued unchanged until the mid 1960s. During this period the new Labour Government embarked on a drive to widen and develop comprehensive schooling. However, running parallel and concurrently to this paradigm shift in national policy, with respect to the education structure, was the growth in a number of political pressure groups. With these phenomena began the fracture in the cross-party coalition that existed since the advent of the 1944 Act. The Conservative Party was now drifting to the education far right in politics. This was part of a backlash against what they perceived to be the sins of consensus, collectivism and progressivism in education (Scott, 1994; Chitty, 1994).

An ideological battle was unfolding. The political right mounted an intellectual campaign on what they consider to be the inexorable drift of the education 'middle ground' to the ideological left (Joseph, 1976). Their views were articulated through publications and pressure groups (think tanks) such as: the 'Black Papers' in 1969, 1970, 1975 and 1977; the Centre for Policy Studies (CPS), initiated by Margaret Thatcher and Sir Keith Joseph; the Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA); the National Council for Educational Standards (NCES) founded by Sir Rhodes Boyson; and the Hillgate Group, led by Baroness Cox, Jessica Douglas-Home, Dr John Marks, Lawrence Norcross and Roger Scruton (Chitty, 1994).

The central thrust emanating from these groups was that there existed a general malaise in schools. Standards had declined as a result of an uncertain school curriculum and a departure away from traditional approaches to teaching and education in general. The

Black Papers, referred to above, encapsulate many of the arguments articulated by the education right. The messages they debated were the need for education to return to past social and political norms and traditional values. They presented a picture of the education service being in a state of crisis and disorder.

The contents of these papers, in summary, highlight three central themes. The first claims that academic standards, particular literacy and numeracy, were in great decline. The second argues that the education system was riddled with teachers politically inspired and committed to goals of socialism, feminism and egalitarianism. These left wing teachers were intent on social and political revolution. The third theme of the Black Papers blames the comprehensive system and the open-plan classroom structure in primary schools as responsible for a climate of bad behaviour that prevailed in many schools (Taylor, 1995).

Nevertheless, there were some divisions amongst critics of the right. They, the right, are grouped under two camps: neo-liberals and neo-conservatives. The neo-liberals are those arguing for a freer and more competitive educational climate. Their ideological roots are based upon the principles of freedom of choice, market forces and quality being the outcome of competition. The neo-conservatives promote a return to traditional ways and values. They stress excellence and standards in education and believe in practices such as streaming, corporal punishment and formal examinations. Their position stems from an ideological commitment to a belief in tradition, authority, order and social bonding, derived from a common culture and a basic nationalistic instinct

(Ball, 1990). However, despite the existence of contradiction and differences, neo-liberals and neo-conservatives in the end converge in presenting an educational agenda that emphasises freedom of choice, competition, parental control, a national curriculum and greater accountability.

Ball (1990), drawing on Williams (1962), identifies three levels of educational ideologies operating in this climate of debate. They are: the 'industrial trainers' who see education in terms of producing future adult workers; the 'old humanists' who believe more in the restoration of social and political authority and have less faith in democracy as a means for social and political order; and the 'public educators' who argue that human beings have a natural right to be educated. Ball further argues that the 1980s saw a repositioning in education policy making, away from the control exercised by the 'public educators', that is, the consensus and collectivist school of thought, and back to the assertive ascendancy of the 'old humanist' and 'industrial trainers' or neo-liberals and neo-conservative right.

Ball (1990) also refers to the stage of tripartite concord between central government, local government and the teaching unions as a pluralist period in education policy design. However, the concerted attack on the educational establishment and the prevailing consensus on education philosophy and policy formation by the radical right was now stimulating the major political parties to re-examine the nature and role of education and the performance of the service in general.

These well-managed attacks on prevailing education policies and the structure of the system undoubtedly found great sympathy with a Conservative Party trying the 'shake off' two election defeats in 1974 and looking for a new ideological identity. But the Labour Party, which itself was a prime target for the right, could not ignore the gathering momentum demanding a critical evaluation of the performance of the education service. Thus, Prime Minister Jim Callaghan's October 1976 Ruskin College Speech raised the importance of the education debate on standards to a new level. This intervention by the Prime Minister became an important turning point in the direction of national school policies (Taylor, 1995).

In the speech, Prime Minister Jim Callaghan signalled his anxiety on what he perceived to be the path education was following. He identified four specific areas of concerns, namely: the effectiveness of schools in teaching the three Rs; the appropriateness of the curriculum, especially in the teaching of science and mathematics to pupils in comprehensive schools; the reliability of the national school examination system as a test of pupils' achievement; and the effectiveness of the education provision in place for post 16 pupils (Taylor, 1995).

In articulating these views the Prime Minister appeared to have been influenced by Dr Bernard Donoghue, the head of the Number 10 Policy Unit. In Donoghue's view the teaching unions had been taken over by left-wingers and progressives who had no interest in raising pupils' attainment (Donoghue, 1987). Callaghan's speech suggests that he had accepted his Policy Unit Director's analysis that the government should take

the initiative in making teachers and schools more accountable to politicians, employers and parents.

During this period the DES too began to re-evaluate its own role. It produced a confidential report known as the Yellow Book, which highlighted concerns at the degree to which a large segment of secondary schools were inadequately preparing pupils for the world of work. They promoted the idea of a secondary school curriculum for all pupils. Its tone was definitely harmonising with Jim Callaghan's Ruskin College speech in raising questions about educational standards and school performances.

The Formulation of a National Curriculum

The advent of the new conservative government in 1979, led by Margaret Thatcher, created an opportunity for the educational right to transform many of their ideals from mere concepts and vision into government policies. The late Sir Keith Joseph, the acknowledged intellectual guru of the right, was the Secretary of State at the DES during the period 1981-86. During his tenure the arguments over the control of the curriculum and the need for developing a national curriculum intensified, but as a committed neo-liberal, he found it difficult to concede the case for the establishment of a national curriculum (Taylor, 1985).

In 1986 Kenneth Baker succeeded Sir Keith Joseph at the DES. Encouraged by HMI he began to favour the view of legislating for a broadly based national curriculum (Chitty, 1994; Taylor, 1995). However, this was being challenged by an opposing position from

the Downing Street Policy Unit, led by Professor Brian Griffiths and supported by Prime

Minister Margaret Thatcher. They were inclined towards a much narrower curriculum

of the core subjects. Nevertheless, Baker maintained his ground, insisting on a much

more holistic approach, where the curriculum would lead assessment rather than being

led by the assessment scheme. By July 1987 details from the DES proposed a national

curriculum comprising three core subjects and seven foundation subjects. This

eventually was translated into legislation, as part of the 1988 ERA (Taylor, 1995).

This Act, along with other recent government reforms, highlights five themes (Simkins,

1995): equality, diversity, parental choice, increasing freedom for schools to manage

their affairs and greater accountability. These have been developed further through four

significant sets of actions.

'First, schools have been given a high degree of autonomy through school-based

management schemes: "local management" schemes for...schools which remain

with their LEAs and "grant-maintained status" for the minority who choose to

"opt out". Secondly, all schools are being made much more explicitly subject to

market pressures...in the opportunities for parents to express preference about

the school they wish their child to attend and...funding...on the basis of formulae

tied to pupil numbers. Third...this market is controlled through the National

Curriculum and a national system of testing for pupils age 5-16. Finally, much

more public information is being made available about schools. Examination

and test results...' (Simkins, 1995 p. 221)

14

These changes, put together, represented a radical attempt to find solutions for the concerns about the quality of education in England and Wales. The 1988 ERA has changed the frame of reference for the debate on education. Accountability has shifted away from the professionals, LEAs and DES officials, to parents, schools and politicians (Chitty, 1994).

However, having considered the background and national context leading to the establishment of OFSTED, the remainder of the chapter will discuss the historical ambience and the justification for centring the research on a sample of London secondary schools.

London Secondary Schools

City schools are often in the headlines of the media and their performances are a matter of continual concern. Real success for the school improvement and effectiveness movement, and the results of the educational changes over the past decade, will be measured by their ability to deliver a paradigm shift in the educational achievements of pupils in city schools. In the words of Brighouse (1998) '...*urban areas are where the real battle is to be won...*' (Brighouse, 1998 p. 15) It is in our cities that educational leadership and management are facing the greatest challenges, such as:

- Underachievement
- High levels of pupils with special educational needs

- Behaviour and discipline problems

- Low motivation

- Truancy, alienation and social dislocation

Other features of city schools are that a greater proportion of families are disadvantaged socially, politically and economically with a high proportion of adults with low levels of educational qualifications. The neighbourhood of many of these schools experiences poor housing conditions, geographical isolation, poor public transport and contains a number of children with health problems. These all adversely affect the children's education. In addition, these schools tend to have substantial numbers of minority ethnic children (House of Commons Education Committee, Third Report 1995). Commenting on conditions in the inner cities, Blackstone (1980), now an Education Minister, says:

'The city has been seen as an area of deprivation and disorder by many commentators for more than a century. This tradition continues today. The inner city is seen as problem-ridden...schools with serious problems in terms of difficulties associated with their intakes, problems of retaining staff, and poor buildings...' (Blackstone, 1980 p. 12)

Thus, London, the largest of Britain's inner cities, offers the ideal opportunity to study, from a sample of schools, the linkages between the school improvement role of leadership and management, and the function of school inspection.

16

London schools have been criticised for a number of years for poor academic performance. In particular, the old Inner London Education Authority (ILEA), disbanded in 1990, was a prime target of critics, mainly from the political right. HMI too had concerns about ILEA's work. They (HMI, 1980) highlighted significant underachievement in the authority's secondary schools, pinpointing poor teaching and teaching strategies as contributing factors. They also argued that many schools had no systematic programme for evaluating pupils' examination performances and for improving school effectiveness.

Foremost among the critics of the right has been the NCES, mentioned earlier in this chapter. In their study (Marks et al, 1986), they found that, despite the influences of social class and adverse socio-economic factors, ILEA's academic results were unacceptable when compared with similar schools elsewhere in the country. They challenged the assertion that ILEA schools were under resourced, pointing out that HMI reported that ILEA schools had more to spend pro rata than anywhere else in the education system. Marks et al (1986) crystallised their condemnation of ILEA by saying:

> 'The evidence presented...shows that the public examination results of pupils in ILEA secondary schools are disturbingly low...results which are 30% or more below the national average and which are actually worse than those of pupils in secondary modern schools across the country.' (Marks et al p. 59)

ILEA's own analysis (ILEA, 1984) contradicted this view. They concluded that their own results were broadly comparable to LEAs with similar populations and social profiles. They claimed that their results were better than some LEAs that were socially and economically more advantaged than they were.

The 1995, 1997 and 1999 national GCSE examination results, nevertheless, confirmed that the combined inner and outer London secondary school performances were still significantly below those of England (see table 1.1 below)

Table 1.1 (GCSE Results for London)

Category of Authority	GCSE Examination Results - %age of pupils Gaining 5 grades A*-C		
	1995	1997	1999
	%	%	%
Inner London	27.8	33.2	35.2
Outer London	40.5	43.5	47.1
Combined Inner and Outer London	35.8	39.6	42.6
England	40.4	45.1	47.9

Source: DfEE Secondary School Performance Database

The Inner London group consists of twelve school authorities. In 1995 they achieved 27.8 per cent five plus GCSE passes at grades A*-C. This is approximately 13 per cent

below the 40.4 per cent average figure for England. However, the result of the Outer London category, comprising twenty authorities, was 40.5 percent. This means that the Outer London figure is identical to the average for England, that is, 40.4 per cent.

The 1997 Inner London figure increased to 33.2 per cent, compared to 45.1 per cent for England, but the gap between the two remained the same at approximately 12 per cent. On the other hand, the Outer London results improved by only 3 per cent over the two year period, from 40.5 per cent to 43.5 per cent, which was approximately 2 per cent below the average figure for England.

The 1999 Inner London figure was 35.2 per cent, in contrast with the 47.9 per cent figure for England, with the gap between the two continuing at about 12 per cent. The Outer London figure increased from 43.5 per cent to 47.1 per cent, a shade below the 47.9 per cent figure for England. What this demonstrates is that the performance of Outer London schools was generally in line with the national average for England. However, the Inner London results, while increasing in actual percentages terms, still showed a gap of approximately 12 per cent between itself and the figure for England. Thus, in terms of relative comparison, the past five years have produced no real improvement in academic standards for either Inner or Outer London schools. This is important to note, as the proposed research for this thesis will study OFSTED's inspection reports of schools drawn from authorities covering the London area.

Socio-economic Conditions

The problem of unsatisfactory educational attainment in the cities is not a new experience. It goes back to the nineteenth century. Many educational researchers have sought to establish a link between this and the socio-economic deprivation to be found in the cities. Blackstone (1980) suggests that this condition is reinforced by other factors such as: an inexorable population drift of skilled and professional workers from cities, leaving behind a higher proportion of semi and unskilled people; high levels of unemployment, resulting from the above demographic changes; the loss of jobs, due to economic decline in many inner city commercial areas; and poor quality housing.

Over the past decades, however, there have been numerous initiatives to redress the socio-economic conditions in the cities. The Plowden Report (1967) stressed the importance of improving housing and other social service provisions. It also suggested ways of increasing educational opportunities, such as the identification of educational priority areas and the paying of special allowances to teachers to motivate them to remain in schools located in deprived areas.

This was followed in 1969 by the introduction of the Community Development Projects (CDPs). This involved the provision of government funding for the purpose of encouraging action research in certain poor urban areas. There was also Section 11 of the 1966 Local Government Act, designed to provide special help to immigrant areas.

Inner city initiatives are laudable attempts to redress the poverty existing in the cities. Nevertheless, they may be interpreted as placing an over reliance on factors outside of school (background, class, economic standing, etc.) to explain the consistently low performance of city school children. An alternative approach is to examine the quality of education that the city schools themselves provide for their children. Blackstone balances the argument of the effects of adverse socio-economic conditions in the cities on schooling, by also stressing the importance of teaching.

'We need, however, continually to encourage those who are lagging behind to reach the standards of the most dedicated and the most committed in order to meet the challenge that the inner city provides' (Blackstone, 1980, p. 27)

The present Labour Government is homing in on this balance between what schools can do to raise educational standards, particularly in the cities, and the impact of factors outside of schools. Its reforms challenge schools and LEAs to improve their performances, but through its 'Social Exclusion Unit' it is also attempting to formulate action against social disadvantages. In the area of education, the 'School Plus Policy Action Team' was given a remit to identify the best approaches for using schools as a focus for other community services and to reducing failure at schools. This team has made the following recommendations: extending services offered by schools; 'One Stop Family Support Centres' located in schools; better school business links; more involvement of the community in schools and schools in the community; recognising

excellence through the establishment of community colleges; reaching out and listening more to parents; involving young people more in the shaping of their learning; and raising ethnic minority achievement (DfEE, 2000 ONLINE, Social Exclusion Unit page).

Another new initiative by the Labour Government is the Excellence in Cities (EiC) programme. It sets out a three-year plan to improve education in inner city areas, and will involve the following:

- more beacon schools

- greater opportunity for gifted and talented children

- a network of learning centres

- emphasis on the teaching of literacy and numeracy

- encouragement to put pupils into sets

- low cost home computer leasing scheme

- projects to strengthen school leadership

- measures to improve, close or 'fresh start' failing schools

- modernising of LEAs

(DfEE, 2000 The Standards Site, ONELINE)

Despite these initiatives, it is still debatable as to how effective these changes are in dealing with the fundamental problems of city schools. Hall (1974) asserts that the

debate about education in England centres on two interpretations about the purpose of education. These are whether education is to be for its own sake or is about performing social and political functions. He traces the development of cities back to the formation of the English working class and the growth of industrial capitalism. Industrial progress or the industrial revolution, he points out, could not be sustained by an unskilled and illiterate workforce. Hence, a minimum education programme was introduced to equip the working class with the industrial skills most needed at the time. The outcome was that the education system took on a gradualist approach to its development. Thus, reforms were introduced piecemeal by Prime Ministers such as Peel, Palmerston and Disraeli (Hall, 1974).

On the other hand, many working class people saw education as a means whereby they could free themselves from being instruments of the economic system. Major working class movements, such as trade unions and political organisation, placed education at the heart of their strategy for improving the welfare of their members. However, although education was seen as a ladder for the advancement of the masses, by redistributing educational chances, in reality, only a privileged few were able to climb the social and economic mobility ladder (Hall, 1974).

Hall (1974) seems to have little faith that education on its own can improve the welfare of the working class or the majority of citizens. He linked the educational chances of the poor, especially city dwellers, to the prevailing economic and social structure of the nation.

'The crisis of the city...is very much in the background. The socio-economic system of the modern industrial city has slowly begun to crack apart. London here demonstrates the crisis at its worst...The movement of population to the suburbs, the closing down of traditional occupation in inner urban zones, the pattern of post-war redevelopment and rehousing...This process has also left the urban school visibly stranded-beached-above the retreating social landscape...'
(Hall, 1974, p. 53)

Paradoxically, the concerns of government and bodies interested in the regeneration of inner cities concur with Hall's (Hall 1974) analysis that education on its own cannot improve the welfare of deprived inner city communities. For this reason the government has allocated millions of pounds to disadvantaged areas (TES, November 10, 2000). Recent research by 'The Prince's Trust (2000) highlights the seriousness of deprivation in the London area, when it confirmed that five of the most deprived dozen councils are London Authorities. The report states that levels of disadvantages are more acute in urban centres than in outlying areas. However, it also says that analysis has shown that there are pockets of disadvantages in all regions in England and Wales, including rural areas. The research further identifies the following factors as responsible for limiting the success of young people:

- *'Not being in education or work*

- *Being from a minority ethnic group*

24

- *Dependency on state benefits*

- *Being looked after by the local authority in the event of family breakdown*

- *Not gaining qualifications at school or being absent from school*

- *Becoming involved in crime, either as victim or perpetrator'*

(The Prince's Trust, 2000 p.1)

Homing in on Hall's observation (Hall, 1974) that educational opportunities are linked to economic and social conditions, the report concluded that there is growing evidence that intervention in the lives of disadvantaged young people contributes to real economic and social renewal in deprived neighbourhoods (The Prince's Trust, 2000). The report of the House of Commons Education Committee (1995) also gives support to the view that reforming the education system alone is insufficient to deliver improved educational standards. It argues that schools cannot and should not be expected to put right all that is wrong in education. It further notes that, in some cases, community attitudes to education, poverty and cultural norms are contributory factors to the experience of Poor City education.

Summary

The Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools (OFSTED, 1998) for 1996/7 confirms the uphill struggles facing inner city schools. It highlights the continuing links between poor educational standards and socio-economic disadvantages. Schools where over forty per cent of pupils are eligible for free school meals scored on average no more than twenty per cent of pupils attaining five GCSE grades at C and

above. This is in contrast to the national average of 43 per cent. The Chief Inspector further states:

> *'These schools serve disadvantaged communities in inner city areas...In several respects these school are working against the odds. Many pupils enter secondary schools with poor basic skills. A significant number have special educational needs...Despite these circumstances, some schools make considerable progress in raising attainment in the GCSE.'* (OFSTED, 1998 p. 35)

Adverse socio-economic factors undoubtedly provide important reasons for explaining the lower performances of children in cities. However, they should not be accepted readily as if they (socio-economic considerations) are some kind of terminal educational decease afflicting urban children.

The aspiration for the elimination of poverty from our cities is considered to be the best way of advancing educational opportunities for children living in urban areas. This will realistically take time to be achieved. However, while we wait for socio-economic condition to improve in our cities, the danger is that there will be countless numbers of children deprived of the hope of fulfilling their potential and breaking loose from the cycle of deprivation. They have a right not to be condemned to a school life of underachievement. City schools should also not accept the label and stereotype of failure, but should strive for success, despite the many challenges they face.

There is an on-going search to find and establish ways in which to secure school effectiveness and school improvement. This research intends to make a contribution to this process. It will explore the links between pupils' academic performances, the quality of leadership by headteachers and the effectiveness of the management structures in schools. Ultimately, the outcome of the research is to further the goal of developing strategies for delivering education reforms. These reforms are designed to bolster the organisation of schools, particularly in cities. It is to transform them, not only into centres that will provide real educational opportunities for all children, but places where pupils will indeed begin to experience success in their lives. This is vital, because success at schools paves the way to lasting achievement and growth in post school and adult life. The next chapter will provide a survey of the literature covering aspects of leadership, management, school improvement and school effectiveness.

Chapter 2

Literature Review on Leadership

Leadership

Leadership is considered to be an imperative in the drive to improve schools and for delivering education reforms. It is viewed as a key feature of successful schools (Beare et al, 1997). The British government's plans for modernising the teaching profession make improvement in leadership one of its important principles. Its emphasis on leadership reflects a desire to act on findings from OFSTED, which identify one in 17 secondary schools with unsatisfactory or poor leadership and management (HMI, 2002).

Interest in educational leadership has grown since the 1960s'. The concept placed headteachers in the role of servants to teachers, that is, they were there to facilitate teachers' professional activities (Hoyle, 1986). Today the function of the headteacher is seen as a key factor in the drive to raise educational standards (Coleman, 1986). There is now an obsession for schools to be led by strong and charismatic leaders in a highly competitive and technological climate (Maxcy, 1991).

> *'Leadership has been recognised as vitally important for schools by inspectors, researchers and by politicians...the concept of leadership seems to be rediscovered...At the present time there is renewed interest on both sides of the Atlantic and in other parts of the world. This is at a time when the challenges for school leaders are more demanding than ever...'* (Fidler, 1997 p.24)

The present government believes that headteachers should be assertive in their leadership style. The 1998 Green Paper argues that good heads are vital to the success of schools. It stresses the urgency in developing strong and effective leaders for the future, as part of its plans for reforming the teaching profession (DfEE, 1998). Nonetheless, research into leadership today identifies that there is a social context to present day school leadership. Effective leadership involves motivating and inspiring other school leaders and staff to assist in fulfilling the vision and mission of the school. Thus, the 'strong headship' image, while essential in some ways, has to be in the context of teamwork and the empowerment of more people to take ownership for raising educational standards in schools today (see comments on the work of Sergiovanni and other educational leadership writers further in the chapter).

Green (2000) extends the concept of school leadership beyond the function of the headteacher and the leadership team to include curriculum leaders and other middle managers. In the opinion of the House of Commons Education Committee (House of Commons, 1995) the importance of school leadership and effective management is the most important factor responsible for the many differences in the performance of city schools. The report further states that *'A successful school requires strong management...Purposeful and effective leadership from the headteacher is the key to all the strategies that can help make school effective'* (House of Commons, 1995 p. xxi). It endorses the principle of leadership and management as the two most important elements to raising standards in city schools.

Nevertheless, the concept of leadership is still difficult to express in definitive terms. According to Fidler (1997) *'...leadership is rather like beauty: it is hard to define but individuals can recognise it when they see it. '* (Fidler, 1997 p. 25) Thus, the search to unravel the secret of effective leadership has occupied the attention of social scientists for decades. Early studies focused on an attempt to identify the personal characteristics of leaders.

Theories of Leadership

Prior to 1949 investigators of leadership attempted to identify the traits that leaders possess. These centred on the 'great man' theory that leaders are born and not made. This assumption had its origin with ancient Greeks and Roman thinkers (Koontz and O'Donnell, 1982).

Thus, the model that influenced researchers at the time presupposes that leadership potential could be recognised through personality attributes. However, no consensus has been established by researchers on any single trait or group of characteristics as the distinguishing features of any leader. Nevertheless, there is a belief that some traits such as intelligence, inner motivation or initiative and self-confidence or social maturity are related to leadership success (Rogers and McIntire, 1983). Maxcy (1991) also argues that leaders have certain characteristics that make them able to lead other people. He listed these qualities as strength, dedication, organisational ability, a sense of vision and moral strength.

The lack of a definitive position from trait researchers encouraged other studies to concentrate on the behaviour of leaders. This is on the assumption that ability to lead and a willingness to follow are both a function of leadership style. Stogdill's (1948) work can be said to be the catalyst for directing researchers away from traits and to look at leadership behaviour and styles. Thus, early studies in this area centred on three main styles of leadership: authoritarian, democratic and laissez faire (Hoyle, 1986).

The authoritarian leader is one who commands and expects compliance, is dogmatic but can be positive. He or she leads by the ability to use rewards and punishment for motivating subordinates (Koontz and O' Donnell, 1982). Benne (1970) identifies three forms of authority: authority of the expert; authority derived from rules; and antropogogical authority. Antropogogical authority is a teaching authority, which seeks to wean and socialise the young to the realities of life and the wider world. Weber (1947) also proposes three kinds of authority: charismatic, traditional domination and legal domination. The charismatic leader commands and demands respect from followers to sustain his or her influence over subordinates. The traditional domination type of leadership, on the hand, rests mainly on an inherited position for its authority. The legal domination form of leadership is built upon rights conferred by the legal system.

The democratic leader consults with group members on proposed actions and decisions. This type of leadership ranges from the person who refuses to take action without

agreement from colleagues to one that makes decisions but consults with group members or colleagues before a final action. Delegation of responsibility is another feature of this style of leadership (Koontz and O'Donnell, 1982). The application of this in a school context is that headteachers will seek to make major decisions with the full involvement of teachers, school staff and pupils (Grace 1997). There will be a clear strategy for the development of a school climate of collaborative planning and collegial relationships. The staff will be given extensive responsibility and authority in determining how to assist the school in raising and delivering academic performance (Beare et al, 1997).

Aronowitz and Giroux (1985) believe that a democratic style of leadership for education is important in shaping local democracy and in connecting with the wider national and global democratic process. John Dewey (1916), in his writings, demonstrates the important link between democracy (as a social concept) and education. Democracy, he argues, frees the individual to think and inquire. This is also essential in order for the principles of education to develop and grow.

'The historic period in educational administration theorizing that seems most rich pragmatically is that of the first half of this century...participatory mode of educational leadership was advocated. Here the desire was to develop a critical leadership, shared in democratic contexts...We would like to advocate that research into leadership operations would benefit from this kind of stance today.' (Maxcy, 1991 p. 48)

The laissez faire leader, on the other hand, gives colleagues a 'free rein'. Members of the group set their own targets and exercise autonomy as a means of achieving them. This leadership style relies on members of the group generating their own motivation, but there is little in the literature of studies to support this style of leadership. Thus, when comparing the studies on all three forms of leadership, the emphasis in the literature is strongly on the democratic model as the one likely to be the most effective (Rogers and McIntire, 1983).

From the 1950s a number of two-dimensional theories of leadership have emerged from research studies. They identify two broad elements of leadership: the underscoring of personal relationship and task achievement (Hoyle, 1986). The theory has its origin with the Ohio State Studies, which first began in 1945. Their studies identify two basic types of leadership behaviour: Initiating structure and Consideration. These have been more clearly defined by Halpin (1966) as follows:

'Initiating structure refers to the leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between himself and members of his work group; and in endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff.' (Halpin, 1966 in Hoyle, 1986 p.106)

In this model a leader can score low or high on each dimension or can have a combination of low and high on each aspect. Thus, some management theorists believe that the high-high combination is the ideal or optimum leadership style. However, there are some criticisms of the research such as that it underestimates situational variables, focuses too much on the leader/group relationship and uses data drawn exclusively from subordinates' accounts of leaders, without input from peers and others (Bryman, 1986).

Two other theories linked to the two-dimensional approach are: 'The Managerial Grid'; and 'The Life Cycle Theory'. The Managerial Grid model was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1978), and they represent *concern for production* and *concern for people* on a grid similar to the Ohio State group. Blake and Mouton (1978) added a 'Medium' position as a fifth combination, standing mid way between a low on *concern for people* and *concern for production* and a high for *concern for people* and *concern for production*. However, they too strongly suggest that the high-high style of leadership should be the optimum endeavour of leadership.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982), using the two-dimensional Ohio State paradigm, developed the Life Cycle Theory. According to Beare et al (1997), this model proposes four types of leadership behaviour, each appropriate to a particular phase of maturity:

'With increasing maturity, the leader should move through styles designated "telling" (high task, low relationship); "selling" (high task, high relationship);

"Participating" (low task, high relationship); and "delegating" (low task, low

relationship).' (Beare et al, 1997 p. 27)

Leadership is more directive and low on relationship when the group is short on

maturity. However, when the group is at it optimum for maturity, the leader reduces the

level of relationship and let the group operate at a minimum of direction. This is where

the leader's style becomes "delegating". The application of this model calls for a highly

individualised approach to leadership, since within many organisations, including

schools, there are generally wide variations in the maturity levels of staff (Beare et al,

1997).

Likert (1961), on the other hand, proposed an 'ideal' leader from four basic styles of

management, described as Systems one to four. They are: exploitive-authoritative;

benevolent-authoritative; consultative; and democratic-participative. These may be

represented on a horizontal scale from left to right. He suggests system four to be the

ideal, that is, the democrative-participative style, which is to be found at the end of the

scale (Coleman, 1994). Leithwood and Montgomery (1984) also identify four stages of

growth in leadership, moving from low to high. They are: administration; humanitarian;

programme manager; and problem-solver.

Another significant contribution to the study on leadership is by Fiedler (1967). He

distinguished between leadership style and leadership behaviour. Leadership style is a

function of personality attributes, which govern our motivation and our general approach

to leadership. On the other hand, leadership behaviour relates to those knowledge, skills and techniques appropriate for exercising leadership and for making decisions. Thus, Fiedler in his research (using what is termed 'Assumed Similarity' and 'Least-Preferred Co-worker' scores) found that group performance is related to both leadership style and the degree to which the situation (that is, relationship, task structure and position power) provides the leader with the opportunity to exert influence. This he calls the 'Contingency Model' of leadership effectiveness. It proposes that effective group performances depend equally on the group situation as well as on the qualities of the leader.

The task-motivated leader tends to be most suited to conditions that are advantageous or disadvantageous that is: the extent to which the work is structured; the degree of leader-group relationships; and the leader's position power. On the other hand, the relationship-motivated leader functions best in conditions that are moderately advantageous (Beare et al, 1997). Thus, to quote Fielder (1967):

'One style of leadership is not in itself better than the other, nor is one type of leadership behaviour appropriate for all conditions. Hence almost everyone should be able to succeed as a leader in some situations and almost everyone is likely to fail in others. If we want to improve organisational performance we must deal not only with the leader's style but also with the factors in the situation which provide him with influence.' (Fiedler, 1967 p. 247)

More recently, Bolman and Deal (1991) remind us that leadership remains an elusive concept. Most images of leadership suggest that leaders get things done and mobilize people to do things. Thus, leadership fundamentally involves a relationship between leaders and their constituents. They also proposed a leadership model offering four different perspectives on what leadership is and how it operates in organizations. This is illustrated below:

Effective Leadership	Structural	Human Resources	Political	Symbolic
Leader is:	Social architect	Catalyst servant	Advocate	Prophet or poet
Leadership process	Analysis, design	Support, empowerment	Advocacy, coalition building	Inspiration, framing experience

Emerging from this review of general theories on leadership is a picture of leadership studies evolving from a belief in trait factors, through to the behaviourist approach and the task versus people style, and now to a subtle blend of many of these, but with a focus on the ideals of empowerment, distributed leadership and team-work. However, these tend to contradict the OFSTED emphasis on a strongly personalised approach to school leadership. The survey of the literature on leadership now turns to the examination of specific research studies on educational leadership.

Educational Leadership

The drive for school improvement brings the theoretical as well as the practical dimensions of leadership into greater scrutiny by researchers. Thus in education, leadership has moved firmly onto the main reform agenda (Maxcy, 1991).

Whereas for decades the discourse on leadership has been linked to the concept of a rational-technical process and a function of bureaucratic and administrative forces, increasingly leadership is now being perceived to be democratic and participatory experiences for motivating organisations to achieve their goals (Maxcy, 1991). Leadership, therefore, implies that there is an affinity between the leader and followers that does not rely on expertise or compliance (Pfeffer, 1978).

This view suggests, in particular, that educational leadership involves a form of interchange or interaction between leader and followers, free from domination. Furthermore, this form of leadership takes on a philosophy of emancipation (Giroux, 1986). On this Dewey (1935) argues that leadership should provide intellectual stimulation and direction. Its posture or its approach is one of give and take rather than as an aloof, imposing or authoritative form.

According to Maxcy (1991) in this new debate: *'Leadership...becomes a crucial area in the balancing of demands upon schools for more "effective" performance versus the necessity to involve larger numbers in the reform movement itself. Leadership is to be "spread around" in the hope that excellence in educational product will result.'*

(Maxcy, 1991 p. 9) McLaren (1989) asserts that leadership in education should provide empowerment. It should aid students to understand and to engage in the world and for them to acquit themselves with the skills and courage to effect social change. Maxcy (1991) summarises this debate by suggesting that what is needed in this era of school reform is a vision that will see leadership as a community effort for the purpose of reshaping schools in order for them to effectively serve the needs of society.

Thomas Sergiovanni, covering a decade, has contributed an evolving theory of leadership with specific reference to schools. He has made cultural leadership the theme of his work. By cultural leadership he means a leadership form that recognises the value of the human spirit and which promotes the worth of professional freedom in the cause of achieving excellence (Sergiovanni, 1987). He links leadership and excellence together in developing, in his early work, a five-force leadership theory. He says of excellence that it is something we know when we see it. He points out that in excellent schools things 'hang together'. In such school there is a sense of purpose, which motivates colleagues to a common goal. (Sergiovanni, 1983).

Maxcy (1991), in support of this idea, asserts that excellence is strongly correlated to the concept of empowerment, but that it is also anathema to the charismatic or rational bureaucratic styles of leadership. Sergiovanni (1983) suggests that parents and teachers furnish a more expansive view of excellence, which embraces cultivating a love for learning, critical thinking, problem-solving skills, aesthetic appreciation, curiosity, creativity and interpersonal competence. However, while Sergiovanni's and Maxcy's

arguments on excellence are very persuasive, nevertheless, it should be acknowledged that excellence, as a concept and experience, is relative to many other contextual factors and considerations. It may even be accepted as a genuine, but subjective feeling of accomplishment. Thus, for example, an urban school with well below average national GCSE results may view itself as an excellent school, because of its consistent track record of adding value to pupils' academic attainment and overall achievements.

According to Sergiovanni (1983), schools managed by ineffective heads are unable to get the job of excellence done. Such schools, he says, are marked by confusion and inefficiency in their operation and weak in human relations and motivation. Out of this emphasis on excellence, he developed the concept of 'Leadership Forces' which he considers to be the means available to school administrators, supervisors and teachers to effect changes imperative to improving schools. He identifies these leadership forces as follows (Sergiovanni, 1987)

- *'Technical – derived from sound management techniques*

- *Human – derived from harnessing available social and interpersonal resources*

- *Educational – derived from expert knowledge about matters of education and schooling*

- *Symbolic – derived from focusing the attention of others on matters of importance to the school*

- *Cultural – derived from building a unique school culture.'*

He distinguished these forces into two categories. Firstly, Technical and Human forces are generic, that is, of the same class or type, and therefore share similar qualities with competent management and leadership in general terms. Secondly, Educational, Symbolic and Cultural leadership forces are situational and context acquired. They are unique qualities relating to specific issues to do with education and schooling. They differentiate educational leadership, supervision and administration from general management and leadership.

Sergiovanni (1990) extended his 'Leadership Forces' concept by looking at the potential of intrinsic motivators (that is, how people feel, shared norms, and cultural bonds) which he considers being more powerful than the extrinsic factors of transactional leadership. He asserts that, in transformational leadership, leaders and group members are united in seeking for higher-level goals common to both. Other writers echo this view of transformative leadership. McLaren (1988) speaks of the teacher as a transformative intellectual leader, who is committed to the art of teaching being a liberating practice and the creation of schools as citadels for democracy, equality and social justice (Maxcy, 1991). This runs counter to transactional leadership, which is the prevailing leadership norm in society. With transactional leadership, one thing is exchanged for another, such as votes for jobs, as in the case of political leadership or good working conditions and security for teachers who assist the headteacher in keeping parents and pupils happy (Beare et al, 1997).

Burns (1978), who invented the terms 'transactional leadership' and 'transformative leadership', points out that a transformative leader transcends beyond the bureaucratic actions of the transactional leader. He or she uses the natural desires of workers to experience meaning and satisfaction to their work as a vehicle for inspiring their commitment to organisational goals, through leadership activities such as listening, building coalitions and creating team spirit (Maxcy, 1991). Foster (1989), whose theme centres on the need for leaders to be involved in the practice of reflective and critical thinking about the culture of the organisation, also contends, from his perspective, that transformative school leaders work closely with staff as a shared enterprise, in changing undesirable features of a school's culture. He further argues that transformative leadership calls for good social skills of advocacy, intergroup relations, teamwork and inspiration without domination.

Returning to Sergiovani (1990), from his concept of transformative leadership, he developed a model showing the stages for leadership growth and school improvement. They are as follows: **leadership by bartering**, where the leader and his/her team members strike a bargain, providing mutual benefits; **leadership by building**, that is, where the leader creates a positive climate of interpersonal support which in turn enhances team members' opportunity for self fulfilment, responsibility, competence and esteem; **leadership by bonding**, which involves the leader developing a set of shared values and commitment to a common cause; and **leadership by banking**, where the leader seeks to turn improvements into routines so that they become a way of life for the institution. In his own words, Sergiovanni (1990) says: *'Of the four approaches,*

leadership by bonding is the cornerstone of an effective long-term leadership strategy for schools because it has the power to help schools transcend competence for excellence by inspiring extraordinary commitment and performance.' (Sergiovanni, 1990 p.27)

In a further development of his theory of leadership, Sergiovanni (1992) contends that ultimately we seek substitutes for leadership, by helping teachers to become more committed to self-management. Schools are being halted on the road to improvement, he argues, because too much attention is given to direct leadership. Schools should become true communities, with centres of community norms (values, sentiments, and beliefs) that will provide the school with substitutes for direct leadership.

The nub of all this is 'professionalism', which is defined as competence plus virtue. Professionals enjoy privileges and can be trusted. With professionals there is a commitment to exemplary teaching practices. The practitioner stays abreast of the latest research pedagogy, will research his or her own teaching methods, experiment with new ideas and will collaborate with colleagues. Sergiovanni (1992) crystallises his views when he says: *'The more professionalism is emphasised, the less leadership is needed. The more leadership is emphasised, the less likely it is that professionalism will develop...An important purpose of leadership is to establish the professional ideal and community norms as conditions that make leadership no longer needed!'* (Sergiovanni, 1992 p. 42)

Closely aligned to the new discourse on educational leadership, focusing on democracy and participation, is the concept of collegiality. Studies of outstanding schools indicate strong support for the idea of school-based management and collaborative decision-making as effective methods of school leadership (Beare et al, 1997). Purkey and Smith (1985) assert that staff in schools should be given substantial responsibility and authority in dealing with the issue of raising academic performance. This will require approaches to school leadership that cultivate and promote high levels of collegiality among teachers (Goodlad, 1984).

According to Grace (1997), making democratic principles and values an integral part of schooling will transform the very nature of school leadership. However, he argues that this ideal is lacking in English schools, because of the traditional influence of the hierarchical style of leadership prevailing in schools. White (1982) suggests that headteachers should be given training to develop the skills of reflecting on their practice so as to ensure the development of democratic values and real partnership in schools. Democratic educational leaders will inspire staff, pupils and parents to think that they are capable of achieving. Rizvi (1989) also argues that the attainment of a school's mission and goals are more likely to happen when the headteacher encourages participation in decision-making, as opposed to heavy-handed control. However, he cautions that the implementation of this ideal in schools will be a gradual process to be moderated and guided by historical and cultural factors.

A study by Spaulding (1997) of teachers' perspectives on school leadership, and in particular the implications of ineffective leadership and their consequences for teachers, provides evidence that teachers value collegiality in leadership. They found that teachers view the role and position of the principal as politically powerful. Invariably, they reported negative experiences with administrators. These have resulted in detrimental outcomes for teachers in personal and professional ways. From the data seven categories of ineffective principal behaviour were identified: They are (Spaulding, 1997): '...*lack of participatory decision making; lack of support; showing favouritism; unclear/unreasonable expectations; flexing muscle; micro-managing; and contradictory body language.*' (Spaulding, 1997 p. 41) Nevertheless, Spaulding (1997) reported that teachers strongly expressed a wish to have principals who will display clear and positive expectations of them. The paradox is that although most educators and education policy developers share the democratic paragon in theory, for many teachers the autocratic school leader appears to be alive and well.

Making schools more democratic means empowering teachers by providing them with a rationale for their work. Fidler (1997) suggests that this can be accomplished through visionary leadership. Thus, the visionary leader is the creator of possibilities, and will draw up a vision of the future in collaboration with followers. His or her main task is to articulate the direction of the organisation in a compelling way that will inspire confidence and commitment from its members (Fidler, 1997).

In Beare et al's (1997) view, attention should be directed to institutionalising vision if leadership is to be successful. Vision needs to be sustained and its meaning and values firmly implanted in the culture of the school. It is the role of the principal to work with others to establish the vision for the school, integrating it into the structures and decision-making processes of the school. This calls for technical and human skills in policy-making and planning.

The development of visionary leadership is a theme also taken up by Davies (1996). He argues that one of the tasks of school leadership is to understand educational trends and to interpret and make sense of them for colleagues. From this process a vision of the future can be constructed that will improve the learning of children in the school. In this way the leader becomes the 'instigator of radical thinking'. Furthermore, he or she will also strive to build and diffuse leadership capacity among staff.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) consider the move toward the power and effectiveness of the visionary leader, as the 'paradigm shift' needed in educational leadership. They assert that visions of such school leaders are compelling, magnetically drawing people into commitment to the mission of the school. Starratt (1986) also includes this concept into his theory of leadership. He emphasises the need for there to be a shared vision that will permeate the day-to-day activities of the school. Hallinger and Heck (1999) also state that over the past 20 years organisational leadership could be termed the decades of vision. However, in their opinion vision is the starting point, as organisational mission comes about from the uniting of personal visions into a common sense of purpose and

strategy. Thus, vision, goal framing and mission building take on different emphasis in headship and become the first avenue of leadership influence. They further argue that studies have found that greater involvement from stakeholders in decision-making is a feature of high performing schools. The image emerging is of school leaders who are able to work in collaboration with colleagues and staff in shaping the culture and effectiveness of schools, and not the outdated portrait of the heroic school leader. Therefore, the main avenues of leadership influence from their review are: shared vision; structure; and social network. People are at the heart of leadership influence.

To conclude this review of leadership theories in general, attention is now turned to the debate on leadership and management.

The Debate between Leadership and Management

Hoyle (1986) points out that leadership theory, up to this period in the 1980s, focussed on policy formulation, but has little to say on the leadership skills or practices required in constructing a mission. However, Hodgkinson (1983), in grappling with the paradox between the heroic leader and the good organisation leader, differentiates between two aspects of leadership. In making, a distinction between 'administration' (sometimes used synonymous with the term leadership) and 'management', he says: *'Administration refers then to the more thinking, qualitative, humane and strategic aspects of the comprehensive executive function, while "management" refers to the more doing, quantitative, material and tutorial aspects.'* (Hodgkinson, 1983, in Hoyle 1986 p. 114) However, Hodgkinson (1991) further contends that although principals,

presidents and deans perceive themselves as administrators rather than managers, school organisations cannot exist without management.

Hughes (1973) also identifies a dual role for the headteacher. On one hand he or she is administrator, while on the other he or she is also the professional. He further argues that it is through the latter that the head exercises leadership. As the professional, he or she motivates and encourages his or her colleagues in the conceptualisation and formulation of the mission. Correspondingly, as the administrator (synonymous to the term management, in contrast to leadership as used by Hodgkinson) he or she supervises its implementation. Bennis and Goldsmith (1994), however, distinguish between the concepts of manager and leader. They assert that a manager administrates, maintains, accepts the constraints of reality, asks how and when and imitates, whereas, the leader innovates, develops, investigates reality, asks what and why and originates. In support of this position, Davies (1996) says:

'What we need is a concept of individuals having both leadership and management characteristics...an empowerment culture based on coaching, through which leadership and management are dispersed widely within...the organisation...If we are to build successful schools by empowering others, then the organisation must be open and clear to everybody about its value, vision and aims.' (Davies 1996, p. 15)

Bolam (1999) puts forward an interesting position to this debate. He uses the term administration as a superordinate category to cover issues such as educational policy, leadership and management at all levels. However, he believes that at the core of educational leadership is the responsibility for policy formation and organisational transformation. Educational management, in his opinion refers to the executive functions of carrying out agreed policies and decisions. Fidler (1997) corroborates with these ideas when he argues that a leader needs to function as chief executive in a managerial sense and as a leader in a political way. This, therefore, brings us to a discussion on the state of the role of headship in England and Wales today.

According to Bush (1998), recent education reforms are creating changes in the way schools are led and managed. There is a clear move toward self-managing schools, and this will make significant demands upon headteachers. *'The international research of school effectiveness and school improvement shows conclusively that the quality of leadership and management is a major factor in determining whether schools thrive or falter.'* (Bush 1998, p. 331) He further highlights the accepted wisdom that the quality of headship is the key to a successful school. However, the development of effective school leaders cannot be achieved over night but will require systematic planning and training.

Bush (1998) went on to examine the TTA's initiatives on headship development, such as the Headteachers' Leadership and Management Programme (HEADLAMP), the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), the Leadership Programme

for Serving Headteachers (LPSH) and the five point National Standards for headship. The HEADLAMP scheme was established in 1995 to provide training for first time newly appointed headteachers. The NPQH was introduced in 1996 for aspiring heads, and the LPSH scheme developed to upgrade practicing headteachers. The National Standards of core purpose, key outcomes, knowledge and understanding skills and attributes, and key areas of headship were formulated by the TTA in 1997 as the yardstick for headship. However, Bush (1998) argues that the emphasis of the TTA is directed mainly toward the leadership role of headship. It neglects the complementary function of management. Drawing on Glatter (1997) and Bolman & Deal (1991) he suggests that schools need both these aspects to headship in order to be effective.

Finally, to conclude this section, a recent research on school leadership (Earley et al, 2002) found that headteachers, deputy headteachers, NPQH candidates, middle managers and other educational practitioners think of their role in terms of leading with a clear vision and setting high expectations. They make a distinction between leadership and management, although this is not always in practice. The research further says that school leaders and middle managers themselves believe that middle managers are not sufficiently aware and trained for their role. Middle managers feel that they need greater clarity about their role and suggest that leadership training should become an automatic part of continuing professional development (CPD). There is also a call, by school leaders, for more team building programmes for leadership groups, in order to develop a more distributed and holistic approach to school leadership and management.

The next section of this review looks specifically at school improvement and school effectiveness.

School Improvement

Crucial to the government's strategy for reforming the education system is the belief that schools need to take responsibility for their own improvement. Furthermore, this is dependent on schools being served by high quality leadership. (DfEE, 1997) This policy is influenced by the prevailing doctrine of the school effectiveness movement. It rests on the principle that schools matter and that they can make a difference. This is in contrast to earlier beliefs that schools were impotent because of the ceiling that contextual factors such as socio-economic standing, home and parental background place on the academic performances of pupils. It attacks the tendency of psychologists, such as Jensen (1969) and Coleman et al (1966), to blame the victims for the failings of the school system and argues, in turn, that differences in outcome are linked to variations in the school's culture and ethos. As a paradigm, the school improvement movement focuses on developing changes to the education process and the acquisition of characteristics of effectiveness that enable the performance of students to improve (Hopkins and Harris, 1997; Reynolds et al, 1996).

Interestingly, the belief that schools can improve has attracted the interest of the two major political parties in the UK, which are, the Conservative Party and the Labour Party. Firstly, the previous Conservative government used aspects of the school improvement doctrine in helping to shape their policy of reforming education and in

creating a quasi-market education structure. Through the Education Reform Act (1988) it established the national curriculum, which radically changed the way schools organise, deliver and manage the curriculum. In addition, with their programme of national testing and the publication of school examination results (league tables) schools have been challenged to raise their performance, or risk being de-selected by parents and acquiring a badge of failure. Now the present Labour government is emphasising school improvement as the route for delivering its political goal of social equality and educational opportunities for all children (Gibson & Asthana, 1998). The government's White Paper states: *'We know what it takes to create a good school: a strong, skilled head who understands the importance of clear leadership, committed staff and parents, high expectations of every child and above all good teaching.'* (DfEE, 1997, p. 12)

In addition, OFSTED has been made responsible for arranging the procedures and personnel for the inspection of schools, as part of the process of monitoring the performances of schools and the promotion of an on-going school improvement paradigm. Furthermore, under the Framework Act (1998), OFSTED must also report on the work of LEAs. They (LEAs) are mandated to support schools in raising standards by: analysing tests, examination and inspection data; comparing the results and progress of schools and setting targets for improvements; and checking that the approach to improvement planning in schools meets the national standards set by the DfEE (OFSTED, 1999).

School Effectiveness Research

According to Mortimore (1993), school effectiveness research focuses on three primary issues (a) effective learning (b) effective teaching and (c) the role of schools in cultivating these processes. Hopkins and Harris (1997), in contrast, suggest five principles influencing school effectiveness. These are: an emphasis on the advancement of students' learning; fostering the vision of a school community of both learners and contributors; the use of external forces to find and set new priorities for growth; the development of structures that encourage collaboration and the empowerment of pupils and teachers; and the promotion of the practice of monitoring and evaluating the quality of education being provided by the school. Elliott (1996), on the other hand, suggests that school effectiveness, in the eyes of its supporters, is the discovery of the mechanism that enables schools to shape and control the achievements of pupils. Woods and Orlik (1994) define it as the transformation of the culture of a school to produce real educational change. Other writers define it as:

'a systematic, sustained effort aimed at change in learning conditions and other related internal conditions in one or more schools, with the ultimate aim of accomplishing educational goals more effectively.' (Van Velzen et al, 1985 p. 48)

'...one in which pupils progress further than might be predicted from consideration of the attainment of its intake.' (Sammons et al, 1995 p. 2)

However, Gaziel (1996) argues that to define 'effectiveness' is a difficult and complex task, for the reason that organisations differ in the mission and goals they set themselves. Nevertheless, he concludes that, without a theoretical model and criteria, it is impossible to identify whether a school is effective or not. Thus, drawing on Cameron (1984) and Mackenzie (1983), he classified the different models for measuring school effectiveness as:

> '*Goal model.* This model assumes that a school is effective if it can accomplish its stated goals...is widely used in evaluating schools through students' achievement...

> *System- resource model.* According to this model, a school is effective if it can acquire the resources it needs...

> *Process model.* This model assumes that a school is effective if its internal functioning is smooth...Therefore, according to this model, the internal organisational activities and practices in school are regarded as important criteria of school effectiveness...

> *Strategic-Constituencies model.* This model defines a school as effective when all its strategic constituencies (the principal, teachers, parents, students, education authority, etc.) are at least minimally satisfied...

> *Legitimacy model.* This model assumes that schools "strive for legitimacy with the external public in order to enhance their longevity and avoid being selected out of the environment" (Cameron 1984: 278)...

> *Organisational learning model.* ...the proponents of this model argue that the impact of environmental changes and the existence of internal barriers to school

functioning are inevitable, and therefore, it is very important for the school and

its members...to deal with change and reduce any internal opposition to such

change..' (Gaziel, 1996 pp. 478-479)

School effectiveness research came to the fore in the late 1970s through early work in the USA and the UK by Edmonds (1979a) and Rutter et al (1979). These, initially, had a lukewarm response from the educational research community, which previously operated from a frame of reference that sees individual and family background as major determinants of educational achievements. This uncertain start to the school effectiveness movement, especially in the UK, was also influenced by the following problems:

- securing access to schools for research;

- the lack of reliable criteria for measuring school effectiveness;

- inadequate knowledge of the role of schools in determining adolescent careers; and

- the dearth of a conceptual tool for understanding schools as organisations. (Reynolds et al, 1996).

However, toward the close of the 1980s influential studies in this area, by Mortimore et al (1988) and Smith and Tomlinson (1989), were making an impact on the educational research community with their findings. These focused on classroom processes, providing reliable data on a range of outcomes on which schools are assessed and also showing that there are large differences in academic effectiveness between and within schools. As a result, there is now a considerable body of evidence, in the UK and

internationally, demonstrating that individual schools can make a significant difference on pupils' progress and that some schools are more successful than others in enabling pupils to develop in both social and academic terms (Woods and Orlik, 1994).

Allied to this surge of respectability for the school effectiveness research movement is the existence of a more favourable political climate for this discourse. Today, many parts of the government's new Standards and Framework Act (1998) find their centre of gravity around the main principle of the school effectiveness movement, which is that schools can make a difference irrespective of contextual factors such as socio-economic standing and home background. To back up its commitment the government has also set up within the DfEE a school standards unit for the purpose of promoting the principles of school improvement and supporting schools in transferring proven practices into operation (DfEE, 1997).

It is important to note that in some areas of the literature there can be a dichotomy between school effectiveness and school improvement. This may be influenced by the fact that the school improvement wing has its roots in the 'teacher as researcher' approach, with its emphasis on whole school self-evaluation and reviews (Elliott, 1980, 1981 and Hargreaves, 1984). This paradigm assumes a 'bottom up' approach to school development, in which improvements are to be owned by those at school level. Generally, it centres on the practical knowledge of the educational practitioner on the ground, rather than on the findings of academic researchers and on changes to the educational process rather than to school management (Reynolds et al, 1996). However,

other researchers may not accept this narrow view. Hopkins and Harris (1997) note the increasing interest, by researchers, in how schools are performing and the drive to find ways in which they can improve. They further reason that this climate provides opportunity for schools to acquire and use school effectiveness factors to aid a dynamic school improvement process.

The school effectiveness movement has a different history and approach. It is committed to the application of quantitative research methods as a way of refuting the 'schools make no difference' theory of Coleman et al (1966) and Jencks et al (1971). Its researchers concentrate on examining pupils' academic and social outcomes and write often in terms of 'good' or 'excellent' schools. The school effectiveness movement tends to focus on both the organisation of the school and the learning process. It also seeks to establish the value schools add to the pupils that pass through their hands, by developing measures of prior attainment, as the basis for comparing educational attainment (Reynolds, 1996 and Gibson & Asthana, 1998).

Factors Contributing to School Effectiveness

In this section reference is made to a number of significant findings by leading researchers on the topic of school effectiveness (Reynolds et al 1996; Rutter et al, 1979; Edmonds, 1979a; Corcoran and Wilson, 1989; Sammons et al 1995; Mortimore et al, 1988; and others). From these a number of themes have emerged on what produces an effective school, and can be summarised as follows:

- Professional leadership

- Shared vision

- Learning environment

- High quality teaching and learning

- High expectations

- Positive reinforcement

- Monitoring pupils' progress

- Pupils' right and responsibilities

- School and home/community partnership

- Purposeful teaching

Professional leadership: Reynolds et al (1996) argue that three characteristics are found to be linked with professional leadership. The first centres on school leadership that provides a sense of purpose to its work (Sammons et al, 1995). The second is sharing of leadership roles and position by the head with management colleagues and the involvement of teachers in the decision making process of the school. The third is modelling as the leading professional, that is, having a knowledge of appropriate teaching strategies, curriculum development and guiding teachers in the art of monitoring pupils' progress (Mortimore et al, 1988; Rutter et al, 1979). Edmonds (1979a) suggests that effective schools: '...*have strong administrative leadership without which the ...elements of good schooling can neither be brought together nor kept together...* ' (Edmonds, 1979a, pp. 15-24). Strong, effective and stable leadership

is also emphasised by Corcoran and Wilson (1989) and by Mortimore (1993). Meanwhile for Sammons et al (1995) professional leadership means firm and purposeful direction from the headteacher. It also assumes a participative approach and taking on the role of being the leading professional.

Shared vision: Where staffs are involved in formulating a shared vision and goals for the school, this should produce a school climate that is distinguished by a clear sense of purpose, consistency of practice, collaboration and collegiality (Rutter et al, 1979; Reynolds, 1996). In such a milieu there will also be flexibility and '*When necessary school energy and resources can be diverted from other business in furtherance of its fundamental objectives.'* (Edmonds, 1979a pp. 15-24) According to Rutter et al (1979) the vision and values of a school will manifest themselves profoundly through good role modelling by teachers. Sammons et al (1995) suggest that a shared vision comes from a sense of commitment by staff to a common set of goals within a climate of collegiality and co-operation.

Learning environment: A learning environment conducive for advancing pupils' progress is another key factor linked to the effective school. This is generally achieved when a school is able to create an orderly-working atmosphere within a pleasing and attractive environment (Mortimore, 1988). This is echoed too by (Edmonds, 1979a) when he said that school effectiveness is supported when: '*The school's atmosphere is orderly...and generally conducive to the instructional business at hand...'* (Edmonds, 1979a pp. 15-24) A pleasant and caring environment for learning is also identified by

Rutter et al (1979) as another element to effectiveness. Developing a good learning environment, according to Sammons et al (1995), means creating an orderly and stimulating atmosphere that will inspire pupils to be excited about learning.

High quality teaching and learning: Reynolds et al (1996) proposed that high quality teaching and learning involves matters such: as how well learning time is maximised; the quality of interaction with pupils (Alexander, 1992); how much emphasis is given to academic performance (Smith and Tomlinson, 1989); and the extent to which curriculum coverage provides pupils with greater opportunity to learn. Giving quality teaching and learning a priority means making it clear to teachers and pupils: '*that pupils' acquisition of basic school skills takes precedence over all other school activities...*' (Edmonds, 1979a pp. 15-24). High quality teaching and learning is also grounded in competence in classroom management (Rutter et al, 1979). Sammons et al (1995) appear to have similar views to Reynolds et al (1996) on this aspect of school effectiveness. They conclude that a focus on teaching and learning takes in issues such as finding effective ways of using the teaching time, improving academic standards, and raising pupil achievement.

High expectations: High expectations are found to be another notable influence on the effective school. Where this is present teachers tend to demonstrate a more active role in helping pupils with their learning (Reynolds et al, 1996). In addition, teachers' high expectations will also significantly affect the content of lessons and help to explain the differences between classes with similar intake (Tizard et al, 1988). High expectations

are an imperative to school effectiveness according to Edmonds (1979a). He says:

'Schools that are instructionally effective...have a climate of expectation in which

children are not permitted to fall below minimum...achievement...' (Edmonds, 1979a

pp. 15-24). Rutter et al (1979) concur with the findings of other researchers by listing a

focus on academic standards and high expectations as important factors in the work of

successful schools. Corcoran and Wilson (1989) also identify positive attitudes towards

pupils as an important element in their studies of effective secondary schools in the

USA. Mortimore (1993) gives high expectations and challenge for pupils as a major

reason for high performing schools. Sammons et al (1995) suggest that high

expectations mean that teachers demand high performances from pupils and set

intellectually challenging work for them. In addition, they suggest that pupil motivation

can also be advanced when schools offer rewards and incentives as part of their strategy

for cultivating good behaviour.

Positive reinforcement: Positive reinforcement is another in Reynolds' et al (1996) list

of school effectiveness factors. This includes having clear and fair policies or procedure

for discipline (Clegg and Megson, 1968; Heal, 1978) and the use of appreciation of

pupils' work and achievement as positive feedback for pupils. Rutter et al (1979) and

Sammons et al (1995) concluded too that reinforcement entails providing regular

feedback to pupils about their work, but also ensuring that good behaviour is given

recognition and value. Rutter et al (1979) also found that where schools have a pupil

control system that emphasises praise and encouragement rather than punishment they

achieve better behaviour outcomes.

Monitoring pupil progress: Monitoring pupils' progress focuses on having in place a sound record keeping system and the evaluation of school performance, with reference to the overall effectiveness of the school's programme (Reynolds et al 1996). To quote Edmonds (1979a) on this issue, he says: *'There must be some means by which pupil progress can be frequently monitored...'* (Edmonds, 1979a pp. 15-24). Mortimore (1993), in his review of international findings on school effectiveness, identifies having a system for monitoring pupils' progress as an essential factor. The findings of Sammons et al (1995) also suggest that monitoring pupils' progress assumes that schools have in place effective procedures for systematically assessing pupils' attainment and reviewing overall school performances.

Pupil rights and responsibilities: The extent to which these are provided can affect positively or negatively the self-esteem of pupils (Rutter et al, 1979). This element can be best developed through the sharing of school activities between pupils and teachers and also in the way in which the curriculum and the structure of the school allow pupils to develop a sense of responsibility. Mortimore (1993) also concurs with the view that where schools are able to cultivate a sense of responsibility in their pupils, through meaningful involvement in the life of the school, effectiveness will be further advanced. Sammons et al (1995) added to the discourse in suggesting that by setting out clearly pupils' rights and duties, schools are better able to develop a sense of loyalty and self-esteem in pupils. This is especially more evident where positions of responsibilities are offered to pupils as a course of school policy.

School and home/community partnership: This seeks to make parents more actively involved in their children's learning as a deliberate strategy (Sammons et al, 1995). Mortimore (1993) also identifies this factor in his summary of international findings on school effectiveness. Corcoran and Wilson (1989) extend this dimension by adding support from the community as another factor contributing to school effectiveness.

Purposeful teaching: This final category emphasises the link between good classroom organisation (pedagogy) and pupil outcomes, especially when the teaching allows for the nurturing of a culture where pupils take more responsibility for their learning (Rutter et al, 1979 and Mortimore et al, 1988). A similar position is taken by Sammons et al (1995). They argue that purposeful teaching is achieved by developing pedagogic competence in the areas of classroom organisation, lesson planning and preparation, pupil motivation and control, and in building up an of array of good classroom practices.

In the opinion of Edmonds (1979b), the presence of these essential factors in successful urban schools strengthens the argument that, given the right conditions in school, children from disadvantaged social and economic backgrounds can achieve. Most importantly, these findings help to break the myth, which assumes that variations in pupil performance can be traced to variations in pupil background. It opens up educational thinking to the concepts of school effectiveness and school improvement (Gibson and Asthana, 1998).

These are landmark findings from the literature on school effectiveness, by distinguished school effectiveness researchers. Yet it should be noted that these research findings, particularly on the factors contributing to school effectiveness, might be correlational. This is in the sense that researchers are more likely to observe these positive characteristics in successful schools than in challenging school situations. In addition, schools may differ in effectiveness as a result of 'social capital', that is, the degree to which pupils can obtain support outside of schools from family and the community to augment their learning and attainment. Furthermore, the school effectiveness and school improvement movements are entering a new phase (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001). This new era is placing an emphasis on developing context-specific school improvement models. There is a moving away from the 'one size, fit all' model to more complex and specific designed school improvement strategies. Thus, for example, it is now recognised that what creates school improvement in middle socio-economic status schools will be different from the factors that will be present in low socio-economic status schools. Thus, school improvement plans will vary and reflect the needs of each particular school.

Conclusion

In this review of the literature on leadership we have seen how the debate and discussions on leadership have evolved over the last 50 years. Firstly, it took us through an earlier position of leadership being linked to personal traits, epitomised by the 'great man' theory. Secondly, it highlighted the behaviourist approach, focusing on leadership styles, discussing two dimensional theories that emphasised tasks versus people

approach to leadership, examining the 'life cycle theory' of Hersey and Blanchard (1982), and the 'contingency model' of Fiedler (1967). Thirdly, the chapter entered into a discussion of developments in educational leadership and management, highlighting transformational leadership, vision and distinguishing between the concepts of leadership and management. Finally, it surveyed developments in the areas of school improvement and school effectiveness, suggesting strongly that schools matter and can make a difference, despite the background of pupils.

However, these ideas and concepts on leadership, school improvement and school effectiveness are wide-ranging, and sometime disparate. They may even be cumbersome as tools for the every day leadership practitioners in schools. Thus, in this conclusion to the chapter, the writer will attempt to offer a broad working definition of what school leadership is about. The writer starts with this imagery that school leadership is analogous to the art of leading an orchestra. The orchestra's performance, like school achievement or outcome, is the product of team effort. While individual players each have specialised functions and instruments to play in an orchestra, the director will skilfully guide and motivate the players' effort into producing a harmonious sound. Likewise, effective school leadership (identical to the case of the orchestra's director) brings purpose, clarity and harmony to the work of a school community. A stage with musicians without a director would simply be a group of highly skilled musicians playing their own tune. Similarly, a building with teachers, staff and pupils may remain a school with good teachers and pupils with potentials, but would not be seen as a serious community of learners. School leadership is also about empowering the school's

learning community to excellence, which like the universe has no fixed boundary. There will always be room to extend the frontiers of excellence.

Headteachers, like the director of the orchestra, have two broad functions in the writer's opinion. They are leaders, providing the strategic and visionary direction for their schools. This, the writer submits, is the dominating role of the two functions. In effect, headteachers in this role are involved in sketching out the broad picture for their schools, designing the frame, setting the agenda and identifying the shape of things to come. In other words, they identify the destinations their schools are aiming for. Thus, like the conductor of the orchestra, they create the ethos and style for their schools. The second and important function of headteachers, but supportive in status, is that of building the right management structures and processes to carry out and implement the vision. In essence (and in keeping with the illustration of leadership sketching the broad picture), ensuring effective management is akin to the work of painting in the details on the picture frame. Headteachers in building and developing management among colleagues will guarantee, for example, that there are proper implementation plans and monitoring strategies to bring about the vision and goals that their schools aspire to.

To synthesise the concept of a working frame or definition for leadership, it is worthwhile considering the NCSL's ten school leadership propositions, set out below, as a useful instrument for developing headship.

'School leadership must:

- *be purposeful, inclusive and values driven*

- *embrace the distinctive and inclusive context of the school*

- *promote an active view of learning*

- *be a function that is distributed throughout the school community*

- *build capacity by developing the school as a learning community*

- *be futures oriented and strategically driven*

- *be developed through experiential and innovative methodologies*

- *be served by a support and policy context that is coherent and implementation driven*

- *be supportive by a National College that leads the discourse around leadership for learning. '* (NCSL, 2002: The Framework, ONLINE)

Lastly, Middleton (2001) also suggests eight key points as a useful summary to leadership for excellence. They are: (1) **a focus on instructional excellence** – where headteachers provide focus for the curriculum and development in teaching skills; (2) **value connections** – cultivating colleagueship and collaboration as a critical component for school improvement; (3) **understand the ground** – this means being aware of what is going on both inside and outside the school's community and keeping the community involved and supportive of the mission of the school; (4) **envelop a problem** – that is to anticipate upcoming problems and dealing with them from multiple levels and myriad of ways; (5) **be resilient** – have the passion to be the 'flag bearer' for the vision and mission of the school; (6) **encourage leadership** – that is to mentor peers as potential leaders to achieve the goal of spreading leadership around; (7) **enjoy the challenge** –

having a commitment to helping young people succeed, but recognising that the rewards for service in this field are long term and can be evasive; and (8) **continue to learn** – this means that leaders must strive to be model learners, always questioning current practices and be willing to look at new research findings on the profession.

Having examined the literature on leadership theories in general terms, its perspectives on educational leadership and management, and the history and development of the school improvement and school effectiveness movements, the next chapter will deal specifically with a review of the literature on the OFSTED inspection systems.

Chapter 3

Literature Review on OFSTED

Historical Development and Background

The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) came into existence on 1 September 1992 as a result of the Education (Schools) Act 1992. Since then the numbers of inspections of schools in the maintained sector have increased significantly. However, the principle of school inspection is not a new innovation/phenomenon or part of the present culture of education reforms and changes pervading the world of education today. On the contrary, the external inspection of schools dates back to 1839 with the first appointments of Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) of Schools. At the time the main reason for the creation of this body was the disquiet raised by politicians over the way public funds, given for the operators of schools (private promoters and religious groups), were being used. Thus, we had the first establishment of a relationship between state funding for education and the accountability of schools for their performance. This function of inspection has remained ever since, despite the gradual extension of the remit of HMI. The Inspectorate grew in numbers, to 500 inspectors by the 1960s, and in the influence it exercised over education policy. This control was not only through the inspection of individual schools but also as a result of its own research and the publication of reports of good practices, such as the Board of Education's 'Handbook of suggestions for teachers' (Education and Employment Committee Fourth Report, 1999). In addition, its brief also involved the provision of data to government and advising the Secretary of State in the area of national education policy development.

By 1968 this extension of the role of HMI led the House of Commons Education Committee to conclude that the Inspectorate should become a national advisory body, with the work of inspection left to LEAs. This thinking did not develop. Instead, the inspection work of HMI took on a higher profile with the publication of inspection reports on individual schools, and the publication of the 'Annual Report' by the Chief Inspector, on standards of education in England (Education and Employment Fourth Report, 1999). This meant that, in reality, most schools were not inspected on a regular basis. For example, in 1991 HMI published inspection reports on only two per cent of primary schools and ten per cent of secondary schools. Thus, it is fair to conclude that many headteachers and schools never experienced a full HMI inspection (Earley et al, 1996).

In 1988 the Conservative Government brought in the Education Reform Act (1988), which introduced new reforms such as the national curriculum, national testing, the publication of performance tables, local management of schools and grant maintained schools. The focus of these initiatives was to create greater diversity and choice, with the intention ultimately to make a paradigm shift in the education service, by the creation of a market driven system. Thus, to fulfil this goal it reasoned that more information was needed about standards in schools to enable parents to make informed choices about the schools they wish to use for their children. Furthermore, the government needed a more effective inspection system to monitor the implementation of its reform. As a result the Education (Schools) Act 1992 constituted OFSTED, allowing

the Chief Inspector to put school inspections out for tenders from independent inspection firms. These independent firms would, themselves be supplied by freelance inspectors, working on a contract basis. With a greater army of inspectors available, school inspections would dramatically increase as an outcome of this development. The residue of HMI would form the day to day professional staff for this new body, which was ascribed the status of a non-ministerial government department, unique in the structure of British education (Education and Employment Fourth Report, 1999).

Thus, the new OFSTED system brought in a number of important changes to school inspection. It was based on a clear inspection framework instrument, that is, the 'Handbook for the Inspection of Schools'. This document sets out in absolute terms the criteria for the conduct of inspection, supplemented with a standardised inspection procedure. It demands that systematic classroom observation be an important part of the inspection process. A team of independent inspectors trained for the role and working to a contract must undertake the inspection. Each team is led by a Registered Inspector (the lead inspector) and includes a lay inspector, trained by OFSTED (or an independent organisation), who should not have personal experience in the management or provision of education in a school. The exception to this applies only where the lay inspector is a school governor or voluntary helper. In addition, the OFSTED inspection process requires the schools inspected to formulate an 'action plan' in response to the 'key issues' or the 'what could be improved' judgment identified in the reports. Finally, another major change brought in, as a result of this modernised inspection regime,

involves schools being placed on 'special measures' where inspectors judged them to be failing or likely to fail (Earley, 1996).

The advent of this radical approach to school inspection elicited controversy in the education system. Its rigorous demands on schools and inspectors preparing for the inspection, the post inspection work of the inspection team in compiling the report and the school's obligation to respond with an appropriate action plan have created an atmosphere of tension and stress for those involved in the process. This adverse reaction was noted by The Education and Employment Committee Fourth Report (1999), which says:

> *'Inspection is, for many schools, a stressful experience. We were provided with examples of inspections which had negative effect on teachers and the schools. This, we have no doubt, has contributed to what one of our witnesses described as the "demonisation" of the OFSTED process.'* (The Education and Employment Committee, Fourth Report 1999 p.1)

The Purpose of the OFSTED Inspection System

The OFSTED inspection process has followed an evolutionary path since its inception. Nevertheless, the purposes for its existence have remained basically the same. In 1993 the 'Handbook' suggests that inspection was to provide an evaluation of the quality and standards of education in schools and for it not to be prescriptive in its outcome (OFSTED, 1993). On the other hand the 1995 draft framework for inspection

(OFSTED, 1995) speaks about inspection assisting in the promotion of school improvement and in highlighting priorities for action. The latest framework, that is the 2000 version (OFSTED, 1999) suggests that inspection provides an external audit of the school, identifying what the school does well and where it has weaknesses. It will also evaluate the degree to which the school has improved since its last inspection. Furthermore, inspection findings provide useful help for the school to plan for improvement. Specifically, the OFSTED inspection process must report on:

- *'the educational standards achieved by schools;*

- *the quality of the education provided by the school;*

- *whether the financial resources made available to the school are managed efficiently;*

- *the spiritual, moral, social and cultural development of pupils at the school.'*

(OFSTED, 1999 p. 4)

Thus, we can conclude from the above discussion that inspection is expected to be a catalyst for school improvement. OFSTED inspections include an evaluation of the ability of schools to manage change and to be engaged in a process of systematic strategic development. According to Coleman (1996), the relationship between school improvement and piloting educational reforms brings the OFSTED inspection process in line with the principles of the international school improvement movement. However, there is a second and equally important function of the OFSTED inspection system, and that is, accountability. Accountability has become inevitable in order to ensure that

schools are implementing the reforms of the last decade. It is a process that involves

the provision of information to other stakeholders in the education sector, allowing them

to assess the extent to which schools meet the needs of pupils, the local community and

society in general (Caldwell and Spinks, 1992). The framework itself (OFSTED, 1999)

refers to the importance of the inspection report in informing parents and others about

the quality of education at the school and whether standards are in line with national

expectations. The Education and Employment Committee, Fourth Report (1999) also

recognises this element of the work of OFSTED, when it says:

> *'The work of OFSTED must be seen in the context of changing attitudes to public*
>
> *services generally. Over the years there has been a growing expectation on the*
>
> *part of the public that public services will be more directly answerable to those*
>
> *who use them. One way in which this expectation has been expressed...is the*
>
> *growth in the number, and remit, of regulators and inspectorates...Thus while*
>
> *the establishment of OFSTED, an external body which publishes very detailed*
>
> *information about every school in the country, may be seen as a departure from*
>
> *the traditions of the education system, it can also be seen simply as one facet of*
>
> *this developing audit society'.* (The Education and Employment Committee,
>
> Fourth Report, 1999 p. x)

Research Findings on the OfSTED Inspection Process

Since the reform of the national school inspection system and the establishment of OFSTED in 1992, there has been an accumulating body of research into the work and effectiveness of OFSTED. Such inquiries are justified, given the cost of the education service and inspection to the public purse. In 1996, it was estimated that over £100m per annum was being spent on the inspection, that is, approximately £30,000 for an average-sized secondary school (Earley, 1996). This figure is, however, considered to be grossly below the real cost to date, calculated to be approximately £1bn for the first four years of inspections (Barnard, 1998).

OFSTED itself has been engaged in research to monitor the effects of its inspection work. One of these inquiries was 'Inspection Quality, 1994/1995', which was a review of the inspection process itself. Two independent groups validated the findings of this report: Management Consultants Touche Ross and the University of Keele (Earley, 1996). The key findings of this report were that the majority of headteachers found the preparation phase for the inspection to have been a helpful team building exercise. However, fewer than 50% of teachers were satisfied with the degree of professional interaction with inspectors, and would have liked to receive more specific information on their subject areas. Governors expressed general satisfaction with the oral feedback they received before the final report. Overall, schools managers found the 'key issues' or 'what could be improved' section useful for future developments, but felt at times that they were lacking in clarity, and did not feature prominently in the feedback briefing given at the end of the inspection. The findings also observed that school leaders feel

75

that it would be very helpful for inspection reports to acknowledge where things are done well, since this can be an important factor in helping schools to adopt a more favourable response to criticisms contained in the report (Keele University and Touche Ross, 1995).

In a submission to the House of Commons Education Sub-Committee Fidler et al (1998) suggested that the inspection process might have resulted in more attention being given to teaching and learning in the classroom. However, this may not provide a true picture of the every day teaching milieu, since there is evidence that teachers tend to use 'safe' lesson plans during the week of inspection. This could raise questions about the validity of OFSTED's findings and judgements on classroom teaching. They further argue that the inspection process creates high level of stress for many teachers, especially female ones, and that some schools take a long time to recover from the exhaustion and de-motivation that is associated with inspection. Fidler et al (1998) also reported that the OFSTED practice of judging school performance against national norms could misinform, since it takes no recognition of the ability of children on entry or their background. They say:

> 'There is risk that the "data" collected by inspectors will be uncritically used as information...More needs to be done to develop good inspection practice and to ensure that judgements made by inspectors are well founded. We receive a number of reports of what appear to be legitimate examples of poor inspection practice and judgements which may be suspect.' (Fidler et al, 1998)

In commenting on many of these concerns, the Education and Employment Committee, Fourth Report (1999) suggests that the Inspection Framework be amended to take account of the effect of high mobility on school performance. It registers surprise at the evidence confirming a significant degree of administrative errors relating to classroom observations and concludes that this would make it difficult for teachers to have confidence in the judgements of inspectors. Although it acknowledges that OFSTED has undertaken its own research into the validity and reliability of inspectors' judgements, nonetheless, it suggests strongly that there should be more independent research into this area to establish the reliability and validity of the basic aspects of the inspection process. The Committee also notes the effort made by OFSTED in providing improved feedback to individual teachers, through the guidance given to inspectors on the function of feedback to teachers.

In responding to the unresolved debate as to whether inspection should be an "audit" process or that it should be "advisory", the Committee recommends:

> *There is a broad spectrum of activity stretching from detailed advice to –*
> *telling the school what to do   at one end, and a wholly hands off audit at the*
> *other.   The point along this spectrum at which inspectors should work will*
> *depend on the individual circumstances of the school. A more confident school*
> *may require a response from their inspection team which is closer to the "audit"*
> *end of the spectrum, while other schools may benefit from a response which is*

closer to the "advice" end.' (Education and Employment Committee, Fourth Report, 1999)

The Committee further raised concerns about the lack of a clearly identifiable and effective mechanism of accountability on the part of OFSTED. Thus, it recommends that such a system be developed, not withstanding the justifiable need to maintain the independence of OFSTED. This, it believes, will strengthen the work of OFSTED and enhance its standing with and beyond the education community.

While OFSTED (1995) claims that 90 per cent of headteachers feel that its inspection judgements are 'fair and accurate', a survey by the National Union of Teachers (NUT, 1998) contradicts this view. The NUT study found that opinions on the issue were equally divided. Forty four per cent of respondents believe that the judgements of OFSTED were 'fair and accurate', with the same percentage disagreeing (NUT, 1998). In the same survey 79 per cent of heads and deputy headteachers feel that the inspection process and the report findings were not supportive to teachers, neither did it contribute to staff motivation. In addition, 79 per cent did not think that the value of the inspection exercise and the final report justified the effort expended in preparation for OFSTED inspection (NUT, 1998).

School Inspection and its Contribution to Improvement in School Leadership and Management

This section examines the question as to whether inspection is producing improvements for those schools inspected. As was discussed earlier, school improvement is one of the twin aims of the OFSTED inspection process. However, Gray and Wilcock (1995) suggest that for inspection to lead to improvement the report must firstly be accepted by the staff of the schools and secondly, that the findings and recommendations be converted into a strategy for action. The Education and Employment Committee in its Fourth Report (1999) argues that it is not the role of inspectors to come into schools and prescribe to headteachers how to run their schools. Rather, that inspection should be the spark to ignite change and improvement for schools. Nixon (1992) suggests that there are three areas in which inspection can make an impact, namely by: *'alerting others to potential within the school, challenging...existing teaching methods and stabilizing, where evaluation supports developments already implemented.'* To what extent, therefore, has OFSTED contributed to school improvement?

OFSTED has conducted its own research into the effects of inspection. They claim that inspection, as an audit of school performance, fulfils an important accountability function for the use of public money, but also provides vital information for parents on school effectiveness, to aid their choice of schools for their children (Matthews and Smith, 1995). They further argue that inspection has resulted in many schools growing in confidence from the affirmation of school quality that they receive from the inspection report. In addition, they also point out that inspection pinpoints or identifies

for schools areas for improvement, in ways that schools would not easily recognise themselves. This is presented in inspection reports as 'key issues for action' or 'what could be improved' recommendations.

OFSTED (Keele University and Touche Ross, 1995) found that 96 per cent of schools inspected had addressed, in their action plans, all the issues raised in the inspection reports. Furthermore, 74 per cent had devised a clear timetable and identified persons responsible for various aspects of the plan. A third had already started work on implementing the plan. This research also found that 61 per cent of schools had made progress in developing measures to: improve teaching; raise expectations; reduce underachievement; and help pupils cultivate a more positive attitude to learning. The report also states that only a few schools were unsuccessful in setting specific targets for improving achievement, had developed no criteria for monitoring the action plan, or failed to have provided appropriate costing for implementing the plan. However, the report did acknowledge that half of the schools in the survey expressed concerns about the validity of some of the 'key issues' or recommendations for 'what could be improved', raised in the inspection findings, but concludes that:

...as a result of some detailed follow-up, it is possible to suggest that schools with critical reports are more likely to have concerns about the validity of the conclusions...it implies that those schools with most to do following inspection, are precisely those least likely to accept the agenda set out in the Key Issues section of the report. (Keele University and Touche Ross, 1995 p. 26)

The same report (Keele University and Touche Ross, 1995) asserts that schools had high expectations of the capability of inspection being a catalyst for encouraging improvement. The majority of schools in the survey reported that the Framework and Handbook are effective instruments that can be applied to support a range of management functions, including whole school review, strategic planning and staff development. They believe that the inspection findings should be able to increase their thinking and stimulate growth and not merely to confirm current practices and set priorities.

Studies by the British Educational Management and Administrative Society (Earley et al, 1996) of secondary schools inspected in early 1993 found that only 6 per cent of their samples were very negative about the contribution that inspection had made to their school's progress. Those who said inspection was useful to school development tend to be the schools where the Action Plan had overlapped with the School Development Plan. To quote Earley (1996):

Initial analyses suggest a positive picture emerging with nearly three-quarters of respondents noting that the impact of the inspection on the development of the school has been "very positive" or "positive". ' (Earley, 1996 p. 19)

In a further study, Fidler et al (1995) found that, whereas four per cent of respondents reported that development had stopped in the school and 25% that it has slowed, 33%

stated that development had in fact been speeded up. However, for 38% of the sample, inspection appears to have had no effect on school improvement. The research also found that in 55% of cases action plans, in response to 'key issues' from inspection reports, were generally harmonising with SDPs. Thus, from the above findings and their favourable support to OFSTED, it may be concluded that schools are moving steadily to adopt the OFSTED model for school leadership and management (Hargreaves, 1995).

Earley (1996) urges caution, pointing out that these findings are based on the perception of headteachers in the surveys, with no independent evidence to confirm that improvement has occurred as a result of inspection. Nevertheless, he concludes that:

'Our research suggests that there are at least five factors influencing the responses:

- *the state of education in the school*

- *the management processes in the school*

- *the attitude of the head teacher to inspection*

- *the inspection process, and*

- *the inspection findings.'*

The latest survey provides evidence of the positive impact of the present inspection process but the process itself could be improved.' (Earley, 1996 pp. 20-21)

He further argues that there is need to go beyond the current framework and to consider alternative approaches to the current inspection regime. He also suggests that there

should be independent evaluation of OFSTED to test its claims to validity and reliability.

Glover et al (1996) investigated the leadership and management styles of four secondary schools judged by OFSTED to be effective educationally. They found that, despite the fact that all four schools were highly commended by OFSTED for their performances, only two of these schools appeared to have been operating the OFSTED model for school leadership and management, that is, they maintained a strongly formalised and structured modus operandi. The two that were incongruent to the OFSTED paragon adopted a more flexible approach, but were criticised to some degree by OFSTED for not employing a rational planning system. Nevertheless, Glover et al (1996) found that the four headteachers made the long-term development of their school a major priority of their work, but achieved this through different leadership styles. The more flexible headteachers, while they had clear ideas of the direction in which they feel the school should grow, also recognised that in a changing situation planning had to be cognisant responsive to the external environment and also to the inclination of staff and governors.

In considering the extent to which schools are following the OFSTED model of strong visionary leadership Levacic et al (1999) suggest that behind this approach lay a more profound trend, which is the development of what they term a *Rational – Technicist Model*. The main principle behind this phenomenon is that schools organisations are to be managed by explicit goals, against which their performances are to be measured.

They further observed that both OFSTED inspection reports and case studies show that headteachers are increasingly following this rational model by establishing aims for their schools and being engaged in whole school planning, involving staff. However, Ouston (1999) and Fullan (1993) argue against the present emphasis on vision, strategic planning and a strong top down approach to leadership. They believe that this has contributed to a widening gap between school managers and teachers.

A study by Gray and Wilcox (1996) of twenty-four schools (thirteen primary and eleven secondary) followed-up the schools' responses to the key issues found in the inspection reports. Specifically, Gray and Wilcox wanted to examine the extent to which the key issues for action (or in their term the 'recommendations') were implemented in practice. The recommendations were grouped together into fifteen categories, as shown below:

Recommendation type	Primary inspections (n=13) % of recommendations*	Secondary inspections (n=11) %age of recommendations*
Assessment	11	9
Curriculum delivery	10	15
Curriculum documentation	13	8
Curriculum monitoring and evaluation	6	5
Curriculum (specific)	14	5
Organisation	2	6
School development planning	12	5

Environment accommodation	*3*	*7*
Equal opportunities	*2*	*3*
Links outside	*0*	*3*
Management administration	*15*	*8*
Pastoral discipline	*0*	*3*
Special educational needs	*2*	*1*
Teaching and learning	*5*	*20*
Resources	*4*	*2*
Number of recommendations	*93*	*88*

* *Percentages are obtained by rounding up'* (Gray and Wilcox, 1996 p. 84)

From these they have identified differences in emphasis between primary and secondary schools. For example, 20% of the recommendations for secondary inspections were related to teaching and learning, as opposed to five per cent for primary; and for management/administration, 15% in primary as against eight per cent in secondary inspections. Taking primary as a whole the most frequent occurring recommendations were related to management/administration, school development planning, curriculum (specific), assessment, curriculum delivery and curriculum documentation. Similarly, for secondary these were teaching and learning, curriculum delivery and assessment.

The next major element of this research was to establish the extent to which the schools in the study implemented the recommendations from the inspection reports. In doing so the researchers asked the participants in the study to relate the action(s) which had been taken on each of the recommendation made in the inspection reports. For both secondary and primary schools it was found that only 11% of the recommendations were

fully implemented. A further 41% were either substantially or to some degree implemented. Close analysis of the data found that some recommendation types were difficult to implement than others. For example, none of the recommendations related to teaching and learning were fully or substantially implemented at the time of the research. Recommendations linked to curriculum delivery also had low levels of implementation results (Gray and Wilcox, 1996).

Gray and Wilcox (1996) also observed that some headteachers and their senior staff draw on the inspection recommendations as useful sources of support for implementing changes that hitherto would be resisted by staff, without the authority of an OFSTED judgement. They also highlight the fact that there is a bias of recommendations regarding management issues and relatively fewer to do with pedagogy, that is, teaching and learning. They concluded their study by saying that in many schools inspected curriculum documents and policies have been revised and updated, but that these processes have had negligible impact on changing teaching and learning styles. Delivering recommendations, they argue, is insufficient to galvanise schools into a systematic programme for improvement, despite the obligation they have to produce an action plan. Clear strategies are needed to ensure wider ownership of the process of change.

'In the inspections we studied we saw little indication of headteachers having turned the inspection recommendations into broader visions and strategies that were owned by the staff. Action plans were by no means inspiring documents

and subsequent implementation was essentially seen as a mundane process.'

(Gray and Wilcox, 1996 p. 98)

This concurs with Fullan's (1991) concept that real improvement in the quality of education can only be realised through a process that brings about the 'institutionalisation' of initiatives for change. This he argues may require three to five years.

A NUT (1998) survey of headteachers and deputy headteachers casts doubt on the assertion by OFSTED that inspection has been a catalyst for school improvement (see OFSTED, 1995). They reported that: *'Overwhelmingly, head and deputy headteacher members rejected the statement that OFSTED inspections led directly to school improvement. Two-thirds of respondents did not believe that inspections helped school improvement, whereas only 1⁻ per cent agreed with this statement.'* However, in a recent report (HMI, 2002) HMI argued that, in the area of school leadership and management, schools continue to improve. In 77% of secondary schools overall leadership and management, by headteachers and key school leaders, were judged to be good or better.

Thus, from the literature examined it could be said that the question as to whether the OFSTED philosophy of *'improvement through inspection'* is indeed a reality in practice or even an emerging potential for the future, still remains unresolved. These doubts are further reinforced, as a result of the apparent dichotomy between the OFSTED

accountability function and its school improvement role. Earley (1996) says: '...*there is now a need to look elsewhere for more useful models and frameworks for school development, particularly in terms of understanding the various processes that promote change and development.*' (Earley et al, 1996 p. 5)

Alternative Models to School Inspection

Thus, as an important element of this review, consideration will now be given to looking at alternative approaches to school inspection for achieving school improvement.

In a joint project Louise Stoll from the international School Effectiveness and Improvement Centre (Institute of Education, London) and Maureen Thompson of Lewisham LEA have developed what they termed an 'open the doors to school improvement' strategy (Stoll and Thompson, 1996). The approach to school development, they argue, involves partnership and the need for schools to network with other schools, LEAs and universities. They further suggest that key elements to this approach would involve '*shared beliefs, collaboration, support, joint evaluation and critical friendship.*' (Stoll and Thompson, 1996 p. 4)

In contrast, Pocklington and Weindling (1996) offer a school improvement strategy that takes in four integrated phases. These are: an initial or opening phase; a review and needs analysis phase; a planning and implementation phase; and a review and evaluation phase. Another alternative is 'Investors in People', a government-initiated programme managed by the Training and Enterprise Councils. It focuses on four key principles,

namely: commitment; planning; action; and evaluation. Before a school can gain recognition as 'Investor in People' it must firstly be assessed against twenty-four indicators and targets set for development. Upon the realisation of the targets the organisation will be granted 'Investors in People' status. Analysis of schools participating in this project has found that four key issues are of concern with respect to school improvement. These are identified as: the need for schools to have systematic evaluation structures; support for staff; the elimination of conflict between individual development needs and school needs; and the development of the role of middle managers (Zienau, 1996; Brown et al, 1996; and Thomas, 1996).

Brighouse and Woods (1999) argue in favour of collective self-review as a process for achieving school improvement. In their opinion self-review, as a practice, should be fully integrated into the rhythm of the life of the school. As a practice, it would involve the following: planning; organising; providing; maintaining; monitoring; evaluating/speculating; and planning (to complete the cycle). They believe that one of the outcomes of self-review is that it strengthens the intellectual capacity of the school. The process of sharing ideas produces an extension of knowledge, with synergic effect. Brighouse and Woods (1999) put it this way: 'Collective review is to do with ensuring that the sum of the parts is exceeded by the collective whole.' (Brighouse and Woods, 1999 p. 16) Ultimately, they see collective self-review as having a complementary role in the inspection process, where it would be accredited as an initial phase to the regular OFSTED inspection.

Harris and Young (2000) assert that despite a number of research studies describing effective schools, once they have improved there is little known about how they arrived at that position and what programme or strategy they followed. As a way of redressing this omission, they have made a comparison of two school improvement schemes. The first is the Improving the Quality of Education for All (IQEA) project, which has been conducted in around 40 schools in England and Wales for over 10 years. The focus of this programme is on linking research knowledge to practice and emphasises teacher development. Teachers are also encouraged to reflect on their own practice and to become involved in collaborative investigation. The second scheme is the Manitoba School Improvement Programme (MSIP), which was started in Canada in 1991. The mission of this project is to improve the learning experiences and outcomes of secondary school students, by building in schools capacities for them to become transforming schools. Harris and Young (2000) found that these two projects share the following common features: (1) they receive pressure and support from internal and external bodies; (2) they focus on specific teaching and learning goals; (3) they have a commitment to teacher development and professional growth; (4) they develop leadership and management skills in participants; and (5) they provide formative and summative evaluation. The area of greatest synergy for these two programmes is that they enhance teacher collaboration within schools and foster the concept of professional learning communities.

Hopkins and Levin (2000) raised concerns that, despite the implementation of a number of reform programmes by governments everywhere, during the last 10 to 15 years, these

efforts have not resulted in any significant improvement to schooling. The reason for this, they point out, is that most reforms have been designed as a one size to fit all schools, and does not allow school to adapt and modify programmes to suit their situation. They argue that building capacity is vital to school improvement. School improvement works best, they suggest, when a clear and practical focus for development is linked to the internal conditions in the school. Coherence is made possible by the capacity of the school to develop as a learning organisation. Thus, they offer the following propositions for creating the conditions for school improvement:

1. Schools will not improve unless teachers develop individually and collectively.

2. Successful schools initiate the involvement of stakeholders.

3. Successful schools establish a clear vision and view leadership as something involving many staff.

4. The coordination of activities is a valuable way of keeping staff involved and maintaining communication.

5. Enquiry and reflection are important ingredients to the school improvement process.

6. The process of planning for growth and development allows schools to marry aspirations to priorities and keeps a focus on classroom practice.

Harris (2000) in a study of what works in school improvement suggests that school improvement projects can be grouped into two categories, namely organic or mechanistic. Organic projects tend to be broad in principle and offer general guidelines

for schools to follow. Mechanistic projects provide direct guidelines, in a 'step by step' way. They can be highly prescriptive. After careful analysis of the field Harris (2000) concludes that there are some important common themes, underpinning many of the leading school improvement initiatives. These are: **establishing vision** – the possibility of school improvement is greater if there is clear vision, linked to support; **matching programme to context** – each individual school history, leadership, staffing, culture will vary and will be important factors to school improvement; **focusing on specific student outcomes** – this is the key success criteria; and **a multi-level approach** – it is important that improvement should permeate through at three levels, that is, school-level, teacher-level and classroom level.

Some Observations on OFSTED's Ability to Judge Leadership Objectively

This review of the literature on the OFSTED inspection process has covered the historical background of the present system. It has also looked at the purpose for which OFSTED was designed, examined current research findings on the OFSTED process and its contribution to school improvement, and considered alternatives to the OFSTED model of inspection. However, in this penultimate section, the writer will now reflect on the objectivity of OFSTED's judgement on leadership and management.

Since 1993 to the present time, the OFSTED Handbook has been up dated on two occasions, 1995 and 2000. The table below illustrates how the criteria on leadership and management have varied, in terms of description, over the period of time. But what it

highlights most is the difficulty OFSTED has in objectively judging leadership and

management in schools.

Table 3.1 – Comparison of Management Criteria of OFSTED Inspection Handbook (1993 to 2000)

1993	1995	2000
Title of section in handbook: Management and Administration	Title of section in handbook: Leadership and Management	Title of section in handbook: How well is the school managed?
Criteria	Criteria	Criteria
Aims and purposes promote learning	Strong leadership promotes clear direction	Leadership ensures clear direction
Leadership of governors, headteacher and SMT promotes learning – behaviour, curriculum and teaching	Teaching and curriculum are monitored – management	Aims, values and good relationships are reflected in the work of the school
Planning is effective targets are set	Aims and values are reflected in the work of the school	There is monitoring and evaluation
Implementation strategy for plans	Planning identifies priorities and set targets	Planning identifies priorities and targets, matched by financial planning
Routine administration is effective and efficient	Positive ethos that affect learning	Governors fulfil their statutory obligations
Effective working relationship between stakeholders to achieve common goals	Statutory requirements are met	Good delegation ensures effective management
Communications promote effective operation	Staff appraisal, staff development and clear job descriptions	Performance management
Effective procedure in place for evaluating performance		Effective use of ICT, specific grants, accommodation and staff
Staff appraisal		Staff induction
		The development of learning resources

From the above table it can be seen that, despite the variations in the criteria covering

the three periods, the following themes featured in all three versions of the OFSTED

handbooks for inspectors: school aims; leadership that gives direction; planning; the

statutory role of governors; monitoring and evaluation; appraisal, staff development and

induction; the promotion of learning; and effective management. Nonetheless, these

criteria above are flawed in that they are only listing what school leaders should be

doing in fulfilling their leadership and management functions, rather than being a tool

for measuring how headteachers and school leaders carry out those aspects.

Furthermore, it is not that the Inspection Framework is defective, but that the methods of

application by inspectors are questionable (NUT, 2001). For example, most of the

judgements regarding the leadership and management are based primarily on the personal accounts provided by headteachers and other school leaders to inspectors, and not, crucially, on the observation of headteachers and school leaders interacting with staff, pupils and parents. In contrast, inspectors make judgements on classroom teachers' performances, from the evidence provided from direct lesson observations. This is despite the shortcomings of classroom observations being snap-shots evidences, which are considered by teachers to be very unfair, since they do not take full account of all the external factors, which influence the quality of lessons. Thus, the writer's opinion, that the OFSTED judgements on leadership and management are highly subjective in practice.

A second observation is that, unlike the inspection criteria for observing teaching, which are linked to a clearly defined set of national curriculum subject standards, the inspection criteria for leadership and management are not referenced to any specific group of leadership and management principles. This is notwithstanding the government's published 'National Standards for Headteachers' and NCSL's framework for leadership. This leaves inspectors' judgements on leadership and management open to variations and inconsistencies, depending on the focus of the particular inspection team conducting the inspection. Thus, once again a question mark hangs over the objectivity of OFSTED in judging leadership and management in schools.

Furthermore, these observations find support from Pring (2000), who, in his work entitled 'Philosophy of Educational Research', proposes that the credibility problem of

educational research stems mainly from the fact that researchers (and this will include OFSTED) do not often give adequate and sufficient recognition to the philosophical issues they are confronting in their studies, such as, for example, the objectivity of enquiry. This appears to be the case with respect to OFSTED. Thus, its judgements on leadership and management cannot be considered to be objective, given that the accounts on leadership and management, it could be argued, are the subjective views of school leaders, responding to a set of interview questions generally formulated by individual inspectors.

Conclusion

The impact of the OFSTED inspection system on school improvement is debatable, but what is not in question is the fact that its work has remained controversial. The education community remains uncomfortable with its presence and many find it threatening and undermining to their work. The challenge is to transform the OFSTED inspection experience from a fearful encounter for teachers and schools to a welcoming and informative relationship for the future. Inspection should merge into the growing awareness that empowerment (that is, working on the assumption that those who do the job, know the job and ultimately are the real source to improvement), encouraging professionalism, and developing introspection and reflection, through self review and strategic planning, are more effective ways of advancing a genuine teaching and learning culture in education today. The next chapter will consider the research methodology used to conduct the study.

Chapter 4

Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of the thesis, as outlined in chapter 1, is to investigate the degree to which certain essential features of Educational Leadership and Management (such as: visioning; providing inspiration and a sense of direction; developing management structures, policies and review procedures; planning; monitoring; and evaluation) are intentionally/systematically developed in the practice of headship. The study further explores the extent to which the strong headteacher model, advocated by OFSTED, can effectively extend leadership in schools today. Therefore, this chapter deals with the methodological approach used for examining the research questions, which are reproduced below:

1. To what extent are essential aspects of school management (such as: routine administration, curriculum management, having a SLT or SMT in place, implementing staff appraisal and making school development planning a management process) fully developed the sample of London schools?

2. Are headteachers, in the context of the OFSTED model, providing effective leadership in the sample of London schools?

3. From the sample of London schools, is there a link between:

(a) The effectiveness of headteachers and overall school leadership, as judged by OFSTED in the inspection reports?

(b) Effective headship and the effectiveness of the SLT or SMT?

(c) Headteachers' vision and school planning, as exemplified through SDPs?

(d) Headteachers' acceptance of the OFSTED findings on leadership and management and the positive nature of the judgments?

(e) Overall school leadership and academic results?

(f) Effective leadership and management, and the quality of teaching?

4. To what extent does the OFSTED inspection process influence headteachers' leadership and management styles?

5. What evidence is there, from the sample of London schools, that school inspection is contributing to school improvement?

Thus, the research study will contribute to developing our understanding of the application of leadership and management in schools. This was predicated on the belief that research ultimately is to do with our understanding of aspects of life and the way we view our world. Education is an integral part of this picture (Best and Kahn, 1989). Thus, this study on leadership also fulfils the academic conditions for research status, in that the methodology involves the collection of reliable data linked to explicit research questions. The research is expected to contribute to scholarship and extending our knowledge about the practice of leadership and management in schools (Best and Kahn, 1989).

Paradigms of Research

Educational research is a sub-division of the social science discipline. Social science research is guided by two competing paradigms, namely: the positivist and the anti-positivist perspectives. Positivists use a range of traditional approaches such as surveys, experiments, correlational procedures and statistical analyses of quantitative data (Giddens, 1975; Duncan, 1968; Johnson, 1994). Positivist researchers take on the role of observers and give emphasis to the methods of the natural science. They believe that the methodological procedures of natural science can be applied to the social sciences. It implies that social scientists are observers of social reality and that the end product of their work can be developed in ways similar to those of the natural sciences. In contrast, the anti-positivist views the social world as softer, personal and humanly created and will use a variety of research methods involving personal accounts, participant observation, personal constructs and so on. Thus anti-positivist researchers are more involved with their subjects and see as inappropriate the mechanical and less subjective methods of the natural scientist (Johnson, 1994; Cohen and Manion, 1994; Cohen et al 2000). However, both approaches have their uses. Generally, the positive approach is best for testing hypotheses, while the anti-positivist is better at generating them. This study employed elements from these two approaches, as part of its methodology.

Research Design

The concepts under consideration in the research were leadership and management. These concepts are realities in the world of education. Therefore, the focus was on how leadership and management relate to the exercise of headship. Neither was an overt hypothesis formulated and applied to the research. Instead it relied on specific research questions, as set out above. These were designed to gather data on

relationships between the praxis of headship and the overall effectiveness of school leadership, together with the OFSTED inspection and its influence on school improvement (Charles, 1995). The data was collected via a conceptual system for this thesis that employed paradigms of a multifaceted nature, that is, a quantitative analysis of non-quantitative documents, a questionnaire survey employing quantitative and non-quantitative techniques, and ethnographic case studies of headteachers' and school leaders' views and opinions, linked to the purpose of the thesis.

Theories are associated with the systematic development of knowledge of the social world. They employ concepts, systems, models, structures, beliefs and hypotheses to explain particular types of actions or events (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). Theories are dynamic and constantly developing through a process of accumulation. However, whilst no definite theory on leadership was tested by the research, it nevertheless examined the reality of the prevailing assumption in current school leadership thinking, (echoed by OFSTED and government) that strong headship is a key to successful school performance. Examples of this model/expectation are: (a) the requirement of the OFSTED handbook that inspectors should evaluate how efficiently and effectively the headteacher promotes high standards and effective teaching and learning, and how far he or she gives a 'firm steer' to the work of the school; and (b) the government's position (set out in 1997 White Paper) that successful schools are the product of the skills of good headteachers. These skills of strong leadership involve: ensuring clear educational direction for the work of the school; rigorous monitoring, evaluation and development of teaching; effective management of staff and pupils; and strong links with parents (OFSTED 1995,

2000). This concept of strong leadership was also echoed by the House of Commons Education Committee in its report on 'Performance in City School' (House of Commons. 1995). It talked about purposeful and effective leadership from headteachers as the key to effective schools. *'A successful school requires strong management and clear targets...'*

Models function to simplify the complex nature of classrooms or educational management systems. They identify, focus and clarify key issues and prominent features of educational phenomena. In research they are employed to: summarise and organise the results of a group of studies; function as a conceptual framework for analysing situations and events; and act as a guide for specific research projects (Burns and Anderson, 1989). In this research a number of leadership and school improvement models were identified in the literature review chapter. These models were important items for reference in the discussion and interpretation of the findings from this study. In addition, the OFSTED model for headship is a significant educational phenomenon and an integral part of this research on leadership and management in schools.

The research methodology for this study used a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The study, by examining the degree to which the 'strong visionary school leader' is able to develop effective overall leadership in a school, is intended to contribute additional knowledge to this area of educational research. The results will be for general application and for providing insights into the way educational leaders work and the way they extend the influence of leadership around themselves, particularly in city schools. Thus, the methodology (to be further

described below) attempted to broaden the investigation of school leadership and its impact beyond the function of headship. This approach responds to observations such as that of Hallinger and Heck (1999), who argue that the future directions in educational leadership and management research should give priority to the notion of distributed leadership. They further state that: *'Concerted effort is needed to define and investigate leadership more broadly while simultaneously maintaining a focus on leadership that emanates from the principal's office.'* (Hallinger and Heck 1999 p. 186)

Validity, Reliability and Ethical Issues

Ensuring validity is an important aspect of any research, whether it be quantitative, qualitative or a combination of both approaches, such as is the case for this research. Attempting to reduce invalidity is necessary in developing confidence in: the method of gathering the data; the process for analysing the data; and the credibility of the findings. Thus, the validity issues that were relevant to this research involved the following: the appropriateness of the research methodology for answering the research questions; the suitability of the research instruments for gathering the data; the representativeness of the sample; the degree of external validity; and effectiveness in reducing the non-return rates for the questionnaires (Cohen et al, 2000).

Many of these issues are dealt with more fully and specifically in the sections below, describing the methods of investigation and the research instruments. However, suffice it is to say that the multifaceted approach to the research strengthens the capability of the study for answering the research questions. The tools for gathering

the data (that is, the documentary analysis categories, the instrument for the questionnaire survey and the structured questions for case studies) were carefully drafted, tested/piloted and refined before fully deployed for the research, in order to guarantee their efficiency and effectiveness as research instruments. The sample for both the pilot and full documentary analysis consisted of a wide range of LEAs and schools. This reflected and provided a fair representation of London schools. External validity is the degree to which the results can be generalised to a wider population. For this research generalisations from the findings are to be safely restricted to London schools and, to a lesser extent, other urban (city) schools. The level of non-response to the questionnaire survey could also have seriously affected the validity of the research. For the pilot questionnaire survey, the response rate was only 35%. This is a little higher than the usual response rate for postal questionnaires. Nevertheless, for the full questionnaire survey a rigorous follow-up exercise was added to the process, and proved to be successful in raising the response rate to the full questionnaire survey.

Reliability, on the other hand, has to do with the measure of consistency and replicability of the research methods over time and over similar samples (Silverman, 1993). Thus, the issues of reliability for this research were: whether the instruments used were capable of yielding similar data from similar documents and respondents over time; and the extent to which the interview process for the case studies were free from bias, given that the OFSTED inspection system elicits emotive feelings for many involved in education.

The reliability of the instruments used for collecting the data, for both the documentary analysis and the questionnaire survey, had been assured by virtue of the experiences gained from pilot studies and the refinements and fine-tuning that followed. There is also the potential for this to be compared with similar studies or the opportunity for other researchers to replicate it. In addition, the data can also be independently scrutinized or interrogated by others. To secure the accuracy and freedom of the case study data from bias, structured interview questions, using the same format and sequence of words, were employed for conducting the interviews with the headteachers and their colleagues in leadership. Moreover, the interview procedure allowed for the prompting and probing of interviewees in an effort to clarify issues and to establish truth and accuracy. Furthermore, the possibility for biased opinions being given by headteachers in the case studies was balanced by the fact that other school leaders (such as deputy headteachers, governors and bursars) were also interviewed. They gave their opinions and their perspectives on the same issues presented to headteachers, and as such it provided useful triangulation to the case study element of the research.

There are always ethical concerns for researchers to be aware of in any piece of educational research being undertaken. These concerns can at times be wide-ranging and challenging. Accordingly, the ethical issues relevant to this research involved the following: obtaining consent to interview participants from the case study schools; privacy; anonymity; and confidentiality (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992; Diener and Crandall, 1978). For this research 'Informed consent' was achieved by two processes. Firstly, the questionnaire survey carried a section, at the end of the questionnaire, inviting participants for the case study. This was

supported by the fact that each questionnaire was accompanied with a covering letter, setting out the purpose of the research. Besides, there was an introductory statement at the top of each questionnaire, reinforcing the intention of the research. Secondly, once a positive response to the invitation to participate in the case study was received, an acknowledgement letter was sent to the headteacher. This also explained that the case study would involve a visit or visits to the school for the object of conducting interviews with the headteacher, members of the leadership team and the chair of governors. The letter also outlined the aim of the interview process, proposed a date for the visit and left it for the headteacher to confirm the date. In addition, the areas to be covered by the interviews were disclosed to the headteacher in telephone conversations. Thus, in securing informed consent, all participating schools were given the opportunity to choose to be involved or not, after being informed of the details of the interview procedure and how the data would be used.

Privacy, in terms of research, can be considered from three different angles, namely: the sensitivity of the information; the setting being observed; and the dissemination of the information (Diener and Crandall, 1978). In this particular research the information provided by the interviewees could not be classified as potentially sensitive, since they did nor make reference to personal information and details that would be threatening. The issue of the setting was not relevant in this study, as interviews were not conducted in the participants' homes, but in their schools, for which consent was obtained. The participants, in agreeing to the interviews were cognizant of the fact that the information they supply would become part of a published thesis. However, no link would be established between their identities and

the reported case studies. Therefore, while the participants were not anonymous to the researcher, yet they were guaranteed confidentiality. Their names and the names of the schools were not identified in the case studies, as reported in the findings chapter of this thesis. Finally, the writer had also carefully studied the British Educational Research Association (BERA) ethical guidelines and can confirm that this research study complies with the BERA framework.

Research methods

Attempts to classify educational research methods into types have proved to be a difficult and inconclusive task. Nevertheless, Best and Kahn (1989) suggest that educational research can be grouped under three types: historical; descriptive; and experimental. Historical educational research involves investigating, recording, analysing and interpreting events of the past in order to arrive at valuable generalizations. Descriptive educational research, on the other hand, describes the conditions that exist, relating to the phenomenon under consideration. It compares or contrasts events and relationships. Thirdly, Experimental research describes what happens when certain variables are controlled or manipulated. The focus is on variable relationships. Applying this classification model to this research suggests that it can be categorized as a Descriptive type educational research. It seeks to analyse and interpret conditions in secondary schools, relating to leadership and management, especially with reference to the three case studies.

In contrast, Charles (1995) differentiates research types by their: Practicality; Methodology; and the Questions they ask. Research that is carried out without any current practical application in mind is called basic research, and could include

research designed to solve a theoretical problem. Research done for the purpose of solving a practical problem is classified as applied research. Research defined by methodology falls under two dichotomous headings. These are: experimental research versus non-experimental research and quantitative research versus qualitative research. The third means of categorizing research, that is, by the questions asked can be broken down into the following types: ethnographic, historical, descriptive, correlational, action, educational, casual-comparative and experimental. In using this typological model, it may be concluded that this research also falls into the category of a non-experimental educational research, using a combination of qualitative, quantitative, and evaluative methodologies.

One of the advantages of this approach is that it provides triangulation, and as Johnson (1994) argues: *'Another way in which social research can be strengthened is by 'triangulation', that is, by homing in on research evidence from several points of view. If you rely on a single source of evidence, there is the possibility that some inaccuracies...incorporated in that evidence may be slipping by you.'* (Johnson, 1994) Thus, the study's methodology consisted of three elements, namely: a documentary analysis aspect; a questionnaire survey; and three case studies.

The combination of both quantitative and qualitative research tools was used to explore the above issues and to answer the research questions. The positivist approach to this research was achieved via the statistical findings and generalisations from: (a) the documentary analysis undertaken of OFSTED reports covering management, leadership and standards of education; and (b) the questionnaire survey of headteachers. This (the questionnaire survey) also allowed for qualitative

responses by teadteachers to open-ended questions. The anti-positivist approach was further achieved through the three case studies components to the research. These focused on headteachers' and other school leaders' experiences of the OFSTED inspection, the degree to which their action plans were implemented, the impact of inspections on the leadership and management of schools, the effectiveness of leadership and management in the schools, and whether both leadership/management and inspection have contributed to school improvement. The triangulation achieved by these methods of data collection provided a broader picture of the issues under study and allowed for comparisons to be made between the outcomes of the documentary analysis, the questionnaire survey and the case studies. It fulfils the principle of 'rapprochement' (Galton and Delamont, 1986) through the convergence of both quantitative and qualitative methods, thus integrating and drawing on the strengths of the two systems.

Sampling

The research population was defined as London maintained comprehensive secondary schools. They are also intended to be a loose representation of city schools in general, working in conditions of marked educational underachievement, social exclusion and economic deprivation. Many city schools face the severest test with respect to educational leadership and management (Blackstone, 1980; House of Commons Education committee, 1995; Brighouse, 1998; OFSTED, 1998; The Prince's Trust, 2000). Thus, these London schools provided a good opportunity to examine the linkages between the school improvement role of leadership/management/inspection and school performance.

The sample size for both the documentary analysis and the questionnaire survey was twenty schools for the pilot and forty for the full study. For the latter, this sample size is well above the recommended number of thirty for quantitative studies using a form of statistical analysis (Borg and Gall, 1979; Best and Kahn, 1989). This takes account of the attrition/dropout factor, that is, that some respondents may not return the questionnaire. With the case studies three schools were used, in keeping with the norm for small sample size ethnographic or qualitative studies (Gall 1996). The method selected for collecting the data was the interview approach, using structured open-ended questions. The data collected was qualitative in type, and the analysis technique employed was a journalistic/impressionistic form (Sturman, 1997).

The documentary analysis focused on the OFSTED reports of the schools selected for both the pilot and full studies, covering the period 1993 to 2000. However, as was mentioned in the previous chapter, the OFSTED handbook used by inspectors to compile these reports was updated in 1995 and 2000. This, it may be argued, could have unintentionally created bias and distortion, with respect to the research findings. Nevertheless, the revisions to the inspection handbook were more to do with the inspection process to be followed by inspectors and less with the criteria for inspections. Furthermore, as was also stated earlier, while there may have been variations in the number of criteria used over the period by OFSTED, the central themes underpinning all three versions remained the same. For comparison the 1993, 1995 and 2000 inspection handbooks, used by OFSTED inspectors between 1993 and 2000, see table 3.1 in chapter 3.

The twenty schools in the pilot were drawn from nine local educational authorities (LEAs). Two schools were selected from each authority, on a stratified random basis drawn from the schools inspected at the time of the pilot, that is, up to 1996. The names of the school inspected in each LEA, obtained from the OFSTED data-base, were placed in an envelope and two picked out for the purpose of the study. The exception was two authorities, where three schools were drawn instead, to obtain the twenty schools required for the pilot (i.e. 7x2+2x3=20). The reason for spreading the twenty schools across nine LEAs was to guarantee that the testing of the research instruments would be done from a wide range of schools within the research population as defined above. In contrast, the forty schools in the full study were draw from eight London authorities. These schools excluded the nine LEAs in the pilot programme. But in comparison to the pilot study, where only two schools were used from each LEA, an average of five schools were studied from the eight LEAs for the full documentary study. This was necessary in order to achieve the 40 schools required for the full questionnaire survey (i.e. 8x5=40). Once again schools were selected on a stratified random basis, involving an identical process to that of the pilot study. This sampling ensured that a representative group of London schools were studied for the research, excluding LEAs that already featured in the pilot study. This assisted the purpose of making safe generalisations about London schools from the study. However, it must be noted that while exact representation is not possible, this sampling method allows for the results to be within the limits or their equivalence of representation (Best and Kahn, 1989; Hopkins, Hopkins and Glass, 1996). This sampling procedure reduced the threats to data invalidity. On the other hand, the pilot aspect strengthened the reliability of the data gathered from the OFSTED reports (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992).

Research Instruments

<u>Documentary Analysis</u>

The research instruments used in the study were linked to the research methods outlined above. The documentary study employed a content analysis instrument based on Bailey's model (Bailey, 1982). That is, selecting the sample of documents for scrutiny; defining the categories to be used for analysing the documents; deciding upon the appropriate recording unit; defining, where necessary a context unit to complement the recording unit; and choosing a suitable system of enumeration.

For the pilot study the sample of documents were the OFSTED inspection reports on twenty pilot schools. These documents were official publication and could be described as primary sources data (Cohen et al, 2000). They ranked as 'Open-ended archival State (Official)' documents, using Scott's (1990) classification. These documents are stored, but are available to anyone, by accessing the OFSTED inspection report database on the Internet. The categories for the pilot were formulated from a process involving a thorough study of five of the twenty documents, to establish the common elements emerging under the broad themes of leadership/management, standard of achievement and quality of education. This initial inspection of a sample of the documents under study followed a standard content analysis technique used in research (Travers, 1969; Cohen et al, 2000). Thirteen headings for the categories were established. These are as follows:

- Standard of education
- Quality of learning
- Progress

- Teaching

- Curriculum

- Management and administration

- Policies and documents

- Job description

- Teacher appraisal and staff development

- Routine administration

- Leadership

- Management structure

- Strategic Planning

Standard of education: This heading had two categories, that is, GCSE examination results above national expectation and GCSE examination results below national expectation. These prove to be appropriate and effective in producing data from the reports. **Quality of learning:** This had four categories, ranging from good to poor. The category 'poor' did not produce any response, and was, therefore, unnecessary for the purpose of the research. **Progress:** There were three categories under this heading, that is: good, satisfactory, and unsatisfactory. These proved useful in gathering satisfactory scores. **Teaching:** The categories for this area were similar to the above, and also elicited adequate scores to justify their use. However, additional types or sub-divisions were needed for this group. **Curriculum:** The curriculum heading contained four groups, namely: Having a balanced curriculum; Lacking a balanced curriculum; Strong curriculum planning system; and Weak curriculum planning system. All four attracted satisfactory scores, but these needed rationalization. **Management and administration:** Five classes were listed under this heading. These were: School having clear aims; Aims are reflected in the ethos

of the school; Aims are not reflected in the ethos of the school; Aims are reflected in the curriculum; and Aims are not reflected in the curriculum. The first attracted high scores, thus proved to be a valid category. The remainder had lesser results and hence questions were raised with respect to their validity as categories for the full research. For the full documentary analysis the first and third categories under this heading were retained. **Policies and documents:** Six categories were listed under this heading. Specifically they were: Having whole school policies in place; Subject policies are in place; Staff handbook is in place; Departmental handbook is in place; Policies are implemented and are monitored; and Policies are not implemented and not monitored. The first type scored well, whereas the others were split between very weak or moderate results. Thus, similar to the last group, major refocusing was necessary for this section. Only the first kind was retained for the full documentary analysis. **Job Description:** This section had only two categories, that is to say: Job descriptions give clear roles and responsibilities; and Unclear job descriptions. These collected satisfactory scores from the documentary analysis. The basic tenets behind the questions were retained, but the wording was upgraded and refined. **Teacher appraisal and staff development:** Two categories came under this area, namely: Teacher appraisal and staff development are in place; and Teacher appraisal and staff development are not in place. The experience led to a conclusion that extra classes under this theme were needed for the full study in order to capture more useful data. **Routine Administration:** Three categories were offered for this heading, that is: Good; Satisfactory; and Unsatisfactory. The first scored strongly, while the last two were relatively low. However, especially given the high scores for the category 'Good' it seems useful to consider adding others to differentiate more on the inspections' judgements on routine administration. **Leadership:** This section listed

six categories, which were: The headteacher provides clear vision; The headteacher gives effective leadership; The headteacher gives ineffective leadership; The headteacher uses a collegial approach; Governors are supportive; and Governors are less supportive. The first two and the fifth category had high results, while the others were significantly lower. This section was reshaped and fine-tuned in order to answer the research questions for the full study. **Management Structure:** Five categories were used for this group, specifically: Is it effective for managing change? Is it ineffective for managing change? An SMT is in place; The SMT is effective; and The SMT is ineffective. Many of these were be re-grouped under the comprehensive heading of management. **Strategic Planning:** Under this the ultimate heading, four categories were established, namely: A SDP is in place; The SDP sets priorities; Governors are involved in formulating the SDP; and The SDP is systematically monitored. Higher scores were achieved for the first, with lower ones for the other three categories. There was need for appropriate re-designing of some of these categories for the full documentary analysis. (Table 3.1 below gives a full list of the final categories used for the full documentary analysis.)

In total 40 categories were identified for the pilot study, from the initial scrutiny of the five OFSTED reports. A pilot of 20 schools/reports can be reasoned to be excessive, when taking into account the fact that the norm would be between three to five schools/reports. However, the number of 20 for this pilot is justified on grounds that: (a) it could have provided additional data that could to be used, if necessary, in making comparisons with the data compiled from the full documentary analysis of 40 inspection reports, although in the end no comparisons were made between the data of the pilot and the full documentary analysis; and (b) testing the categories out

on 20 reports, as opposed to five, would greatly increase the content validity, external validity, criterion-related validity and reliability of the categories (Cohen et al, 2000). The 20 reports in the pilot were excluded from the 40 reports used in the full study.

The content analysis instrument for the full scrutiny of 40 London OFSTED school inspection reports retained its link to Bailey's model and the categorisation process followed by the pilot (Bailey, 1982). However, drawing on the experience from the pilot study (and as alluded to above), modifications and refinements were made to the instrument designed for collecting data from the OFSTED reports of the 40 schools in the study. The categories used for analysing the 40 documents were reduced from forty-nine to thirty-nine. The majority of the categories eliminated scored zero or insignificant responses from the pilot and were, therefore, irrelevant or redundant as instruments for gathering data for the research questions. In addition the number of headings were drastically reduced from thirteen to three, that is, to the following: management, leadership and standards. The reason for this was to focus the documentary analysis more precisely on those themes that were central to the purpose of the research. (See Appendix A2 - results of the full documentary analysis)

The OFSTED school reports are official public documents and are first-person accounts of leadership and management experiences in the schools under consideration. Thus, they have face validity (Bailey, 1982) and lend themselves to checks against supporting evidence base, held by OFSTED. The documents also met the three main types of reliability tests relevant to content analysis, namely: stability,

reproducibility and accuracy (Krippendorf, 1980). Stability is assured from the fact that the content categorisations are consistent over time for each report under study. The content classification would also be capable of reproducibility of the results over time. (See section above for general issues relating to validity, reliability and ethical matters.) Finally, the thirty-nine categories ensured accuracy, as they provided the standard or yardstick for coding the 40 separate documents that were under scrutiny.

Table 4.1 – Final Categories for the Documentary Analysis

Heading	Category
Management	Implementing a balanced curriculum
	The curriculum reflects the school's aims
	School policies are in place
	Excellent routine administration
	Very good routine administration
	Good routine administration
	Satisfactory routine administration
	Unsatisfactory routine administration
	Poor routine administration
	SMT is in place
	SMT is effective
	SMT is ineffective
	Job Descriptions provide clarity of roles & responsibilities
	Job descriptions are vague and unclear
	Appraisal policy is in place
	Appraisal policy is consistently implemented
	Appraisal is linked to staff development
	Appraisal is inconsistently implemented
	Appraisal is not linked to staff development
	SDP is in place
	SDP is an effective working document
	SDP is an ineffective working document
Leadership	The school has clearly stated objectives in place

115

	The headteacher provides strong and effective leadership
	The headteacher has a clear sense of direction
	The headteacher adopts a collegial approach/delegates well
	The headteacher engages in strategic planning
	The headteacher provides motivation for staff
	The headteacher provides weak leadership
	Overall school leadership is effective
	Overall school leadership is ineffective
Standards	GCSE results are above national average
	GCSE results are below national average
	GCSE results below national level, but adjusted for context
	Quality of teaching – very good
	Quality of teaching – good
	Quality of teaching – satisfactory
	Quality of teaching – poor

Questionnaire

The questionnaire survey was designed to elicit the views of the headteachers of the inspected schools under examination. It provided an opportunity for gathering data on their perceptions of the inspection process, with respect to the issues of leadership and management. The purpose of this being to: (a) ascertain (within the limitations of a questionnaire, that is, it cannot probe and seek clarification) their opinions regarding their experiences of the OFSTED inspection process; (b) identify the influences inspection has on school leadership and management; and (c) to judge the impact of the inspection on school improvement. Thus, the questionnaire survey fulfils many of the conditions established by Wilson and McLean (1994) for using a questionnaire. These are that a questionnaire provides structure, collects numerical data, is able to be administered without the presence of the researcher and straightforward to analyse (Wilson and McLean, 1994).

The questionnaire survey employed a closed item form of questions. Half were dichotomous types (that is, 'yes' or 'no' questions), while the remaining half were modified versions of a rating scale approach (Wilson and McLean, 1994). The problem with closed questions is that they do not allow respondents to add any remarks, qualifications and explanations (Oppenheim, 1992). However, 70% of the questions in the pilot allowed for open-ended responses to be given as additional comments. These invited personal comments, for the purpose of providing more depth. Furthermore, they potentially strengthened the qualitative and interpretive elements of the research methodology. The pilot questionnaire survey also had ten questions (see Appendix B1 - for pilot questionnaire survey and results), but the experience gained from its completion by headteachers resulted in modifications and fine-tuning of the instrument for the full questionnaire survey. Seven more questions were added to the full questionnaire survey to enhance its capacity to secure valid and reliable data, in answer to the research questions. However, one of the original questions was eliminated on the ground that it was redundant.

The question omitted was Question Six. It asked respondents to indicate which individuals or groups (from among a list of headteacher, deputy headteacher, senior management team, senior teachers, heads of departments and heads of years/houses) were exercising leadership and management functions in the school? With almost every respondent saying that all six were engaged in leadership and management functions, the question appears to be eliciting data that was already stating an obvious perception. Therefore, the retention of question six for the full questionnaire survey would have provided no useful information or extra insight into the concept

of spreading leadership around in schools. Thus, the question, which was intended to identify individuals and groups responsible for exercising leadership, was irrelevant. Retaining the question for the full questionnaire (see Appendix B1, question 6) would not assist in improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the questionnaire survey. Nonetheless, the additional questions (see Appendix B2 for full questionnaire survey and results) were necessary. There were (in the pilot) obvious gaps with the data collected such as: data relating to headteachers' perceptions of their leadership styles, in contrast with the OFSTED headship expectations; headteachers' role in monitoring standards; and the extent to which action plans, in answer to the key issues for action in inspection reports, were being implemented.

In the full questionnaire survey, the percentage of questions allowing open-ended responses was reduced from approximately seventy 70% to just below 50%. This resulted mainly from the fact that the numbers of closed questions were increased numerically. Nevertheless, these open-ended questions ensured that the questionnaire survey retained a significant element of a qualitative and interpretive methodology to its approach. Finally, the ultimate question (as one of the seven additional questions) asked respondents to indicate whether they would be willing to be included in the case study phase of the research. This proved to have been successful in providing participants for the case study, as all three schools now involved were actually the only ones that replied to the question. Thus, it is acknowledged that the data drawn from the case studies was the result of participant headteachers who volunteer their schools and were very willing to talk about their experiences of the inspection process. Therefore, as this relates to the findings, the views of these participants will reflect more closely schools that were successfully

dealing with post inspection reactions/implications, that is, implementing their action plans.

A further observation from the pilot questionnaire survey is that the response rate was only 35%. Usually, it is expected that a 40% response rate should result from the original despatch of a postal questionnaire (Hoinville and Jowell, 1978). However, Best and Kahn (1989) suggest that as low as 20% to 30% responses can be expected from mailed questionnaires. Thus, in order to maximize the response level for the full questionnaire survey a systematic follow-up programme was added to the process. Specifically, this consisted of three rounds of follow-up letters, with accompanying additional questionnaires and stamped addressed envelopes, re-emphasising the importance of the study and noting disappointment at their non-response. This strategy proved effective as it resulted in a 55% response rate to the questionnaire survey.

Case Studies

Three schools were involved in the case study element of the research, the purposes of which were: to ask other questions that could not be easily asked, via a questionnaire; to probe and clarify issues for accuracy/truth; and to provide further triangulation for the research. They were also intended to give a 'close up' picture of the real situations faced by school leaders undergoing an inspection. In a way, it was designed to allow the event and the situation to speak for itself, rather than to rely exclusively on interpretations from the inspection reports themselves (Geertz, 1973). Hence, with this research the three schools were studied as 'close ups' pictures, to

capture a glimpse of concrete experiences of the OFSTED inspection and their impact on school leadership and school improvement (Gall et al, 1996).

The case study also gathered data on the impact of the OFSTED report from the perspective of key participants in the inspection process, such as the headteacher and members of the leadership team. The case study allowed for contrasts to be made: (a) between the inspection judgements and the opinions/reactions of the school leadership team; and (b) between the perceptions of the headteacher and other members of the leadership team, on the value and usefulness of the inspection report. Thus, the case study harmonises with Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) view that a case study helps the researcher to focus on individual actors and seeks to understand their perception of events. Furthermore, it blends a description of the events, as reported by the participants, with an analysis of their experiences. These case studies can also be classified as structured interview surveys (Sturman, 1997).

Access to the three case study schools was achieved firstly by means of a question added to the questionnaire survey. This asked respondents whether they would be willing to participate in a case study. Coincidentally, three positive responses were received. A letter was then sent to the three headteachers thanking them for their willingness to be part of the case study element to the research. The letter also suggested dates for visits to be made to the schools for the purpose of conducting interviews with the headteacher, the chair of governors and members of the school leadership team. Access to the chair of governors and team leaders was negotiated through the headteacher. A request was also made to the schools to see their action plans for scrutiny and background. In the context of the research project, the case

study dimension raised no serious ethical considerations that impinged on the rights and dignity of the participants. It contained no issues of 'maleficence', or dealt with highly sensitive and controversial matters (Cohen et al, 2000). Informed consent was achieved for this element of the research study. However, certain ethical principles (see earlier discussion on ethical issues) such as the observation of protocol, allowing interviewees to amend their comments and accepting responsibility for maintaining confidentiality, with respect to the participants and the data gathered, were scrupulously maintained. A copy of the report was promised to the schools involved, and will be supplied to them after approval of the thesis is received from the university.

The instruments for the case study focused on the purpose of the case study as outlined above. For the interviews, three sets of semi-structured open-ended questions were designed, one set for interviews with the headteachers, the second for interviews with members of leadership teams and the third for discussion with chairs of governors. The questions for headteachers allowed for reflections to answers given in the survey questionnaire, amplification of issues raised in the survey and identification of the progress made by the school in addressing the key issues outlined in the inspection report. The questions to other members of school leadership teams and to chairs of governors, while different in the way they were presented, nevertheless, were designed to extract opinions and views, independent to those of headtechers, on the influence of: the OFSTED inspection; the style of leadership practiced in schools; the process for formulating SDPs; and the extent to which the OFSTED inspection contributed to school improvement. Prior to the visits to the three case study schools preparation details were embarked on. The schools'

OFSTED reports were re-studied and used for the purpose of identifying the key issues for action. An analysis of the OFSTED judgements on leadership and management was made of the schools in the case study. A review was also made of the headteachers' previous responses to the questionnaire survey, in anticipation of the interviews with them. In addition, a study was made of the background to the three schools involved in the case study exercise. Each headteacher in the case study was also sent a letter confirming the interview dates and setting out the process, as outlined above. They were also sent copies of their original responses to the questionnaire surveys, to aid their preparation for the interviews.

Data Analysis

The content analyses of the 40 inspection reports employed a quantitative analysis approach, recorded on an Excel spreadsheet. In essence, the research took non-quantitative documents and transformed them into quantitative data (Miles and Huberman, 1994 and Bailey, 1982). The categories established for the documentary analysis were given codes of 1 to 39 (see Appendix A2), and the schools identified numerically as from 1 to 40. The fourth row of the spreadsheet contained the schools in the documentary analysis, and from the sixth row the analysis of the 39 categories. Where the category, as defined for the analysis, is identified in the inspection report, it was then recorded by the symbol '1', or '0' for where the category was not represented in the report. The total responses for each category and the percentage they form of the sample were then calculated and recorded in the penultimate and ultimate columns, that is, 'Total' and 'Percentage'.

The data from the survey of headteachers from the schools in the sample also applied a quantitative analysis approach for the closed questions, similar to the documentary analysis. An Excel spreadsheet was also used for recording the data (see appendix B1 for pilot and appendix B2 for the full questionnaire survey). The schools responding to the full survey were identified numerically from 1 to 22, and recorded in row 5 of the spreadsheet. However, the non-quantitative responses to the qualitative questions were also recorded below each of those questions on the spreadsheet (see appendix B1 and appendix B2). The recording symbols are '1' for a response given in the questionnaire and '0' for no response. The responses to the open ended questions were group under the themes emerging from the survey (Kitwood, 1977). In addition, the analysis also used two other method from Kitwood (1977), namely: 'the total pattern of choice'; and 'similarities and differences'. The total pattern of choice allows some generalisations about the participants, while the similarities and differences look at aspects of uniformity and differences in the responses

The main sources of data for the case study are drawn from the notes developed from semi-structured open-ended interviews with headteachers, members of school leadership teams and chairs of governors. The data collected was edited (a) to identify themes, similarities and differences, and (b) to make comparisons with the outcome of other methods of the research. Finally, the results are reported in chapter 5.

Summary

The raison d'être for research is the contribution it can make to our understanding of life and the way we view our world. This educational research is a sub-division of the social sciences, which is guided by two competing paradigms, namely: the positivist and the anti-positivist perspectives. Thus, according to Burrell and Morgan (1979) social science investigators, will, therefore, adopt either an objectivist or subjectivist approach to their view of the social world. However, today the received

wisdom of researchers is to look at how to draw on the strengths of both approaches to produce a more balanced research methodology.

Positivist researchers believe that the methodological procedures of natural science are applicable to the social sciences. Thus, it follows that positivist social scientists are observers of social reality, who seek to develop their work in ways similar to those of the natural scientists. It is the expectation that the findings of social science researchers should be presented in the form of generalised principles or laws in keeping with the traditions established when researching natural phenomena. Nevertheless, critics of positivism argue that the view that nothing can be regarded as real, unless tested by empirical and rational method, is not a very credible position, since many problems in life relate to peoples' feelings and experiences. From this we have the anti-positivist position represented, especially in education, by an approach that is variously described as ethnographic, interpretive and qualitative.

This research takes cognisance of the limitations of the positivist approach. It recognises that a quantitative research method alone cannot provide sufficient

answers to the research questions raised by this research. Thus, a combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches was used to study issues relating to leadership and management and the role of OFSTED in school improvement. The positivist approach to this research was achieved from the statistical findings of: (a) the documentary analysis undertaken of OFSTED reports covering management, leadership and standards of achievement; and (b) the questionnaire survey of headteachers. This survey also provided for qualitative comments by respondents to open-ended questions. On the other hand, the anti-positivist approach was delivered through the three case studies in the research. These focused on headteachers' and other school leaders' understanding of the OFSTED judgements on their schools, from their own perspectives. Hence, the research methodology incorporates the principle of 'rapprochement' (Galton and Delamont, 1985) by drawing on the strengths of the two conceptual frameworks. The next chapter will present the findings emerging from the study.

Chapter 5

The Research Findings

Introduction

The documentary analysis element of the research involved the study of 40 OFSTED secondary school inspection reports. These were selected from eight London education authorities. The reports were accessed and read from the OFSTED national school inspection database. They relate to the period 1993 to 2000. The data drawn were from the analysis of inspectors' judgments on aspects of school management, leadership and standards. Thirty-nine categories were used for the purpose of analyzing the 40 inspection documents. The data from the content analysis of the documents were then collected quantitatively and analyzed statistically, using the excel spreadsheet. The findings are presented in tables 5.1 to 5.3 below.

The questionnaire survey facet to the research focused on the secondary schools used for the documentary analysis element to the study. The purpose of this survey was to obtain the views of the headteachers of the schools involved. Furthermore, it sought to identify the impact the inspection had on school leadership and management and the degree to which inspection contributed to school improvement. The questionnaire survey was, therefore, sent to each headteacher of the 40 schools involved. The response rate was 55% (or 22 actual responses), and above what was expected from a mailed questionnaire survey. The findings from this section of the research are presented in tables 5.4 to 5.9 below.

The case study element to the research centred on three schools. These had volunteered their involvement and were among the 22 schools that participated in the questionnaire survey. The aim of the case study was to provide 'close up' pictures and accounts from school leaders of their experiences of the OFSTED inspection and its impact on school leadership/management and school improvement. They, headteachers and other school leaders, were interviewed at their schools. The data for the case studies were gathered with the aid of a structured interview process. This also provided room for participants to express freely their opinions on any aspects of their experiences that they found to be relevant to the research.

The findings from all three components to the research, that is, the documentary analysis, the questionnaire survey and the case have provided useful answers to the research questions already set out in chapter one, but restated below:

1. To what extent are essential aspects of school management (such as: routine administration, curriculum management, having a SLT or SMT in place, implementing staff appraisal and making school development planning a management process) fully developed in a sample of London schools?

2. Are headteachers, in the context of the OFSTED model, providing effective leadership in the sample of London schools?

3. From the sample of London schools, is there a link between:

    (a) The effectiveness of headteachers and overall school leadership, as judged by OFSTED in the inspection reports?

(b) Effective headship and the effectiveness of the SLT or SMT?

(c) Headteachers' vision and school planning, as exemplified through SDPs?

(d) Headteachers' acceptance of the OFSTED findings on leadership and management and the positive nature of the judgments?

(e) Overall school leadership and academic results?

(f) Effective leadership and management, and the quality of teaching?

4.   To what extent does the OFSTED inspection process influence headteachers' leadership and management styles?

5.   What evidence is there, from the sample of London schools, that school inspection is contributing to school improvement?

For the documentary analysis and the questionnaire survey a paragraph or two will be written describing and explaining what is contained in each table, drawing the readers' attention to what is note-worthy about the findings. However, the findings for the three case studies are also contained in this chapter, and come after the results from the questionnaire survey. The following headings are used for reporting their findings:

- Introduction and background

- The school's experience of the OFSTED inspection

- Implementing the action plan

- The impact the inspection had on leadership and management

- The effectiveness of leadership and management

- The effect of leadership/management and inspection on school improvement

- Summary

Finally, answers to the research questions will be drawn from the findings of all three aspects of the research. In addition, the findings will also be tied to the purpose of the thesis, as already described in chapter one.

An Overview of the Research Findings

The following is a summary of the key findings from the research:

- 83% of headteachers, in the sample of schools, are judged to be providing effective leadership. However, inspectors say 58% of schools had ineffective overall leadership.

- The findings demonstrate that there may be links between judgments of weak overall leadership and ineffective SLTs or SMTs; staff appraisal; and SDPs.

- 59% of headteachers commented that their leadership styles reflected OFSTED's expectations of headship.

- Headteachers who received favourable judgments for leadership tend to be the ones who have accepted the OFSTED findings on their schools.

- Schools with improving GCSE performances were found to be the schools generally judged to be improving.

- Schools with high GCSE results were the ones reported by OFSTED to have good and very good teaching standards.

- Schools judged to have effective overall leadership judgments also appear to have had good teaching standards.

- The findings confirm a dual role for Headship, namely Leadership and Management.

- Headteachers perceive themselves to be more leaders and less managers.

- Headteachers are split in their views as to whether the OFSTED inspection system had influence on their leadership style.

- Inspection is found by headteachers to be the catalyst for school improvement, particularly for low performing schools, following first round inspections. However, leadership is judged to be the defining factor for implementing change.

Findings from the Documentary Analysis

Table 5.1 – Development of aspects of school management (N=40)

Management Category	Actual Number	Percentage (%)
Having a balanced and broad curriculum	26	65
The curriculum reflects the school's aims	22	55
School policies are in place	27	68
Excellent routine administration	1	3
Very good routine administration	11	28
Good routine administration	19	48
Satisfactory routine administration	6	15
Unsatisfactory routine administration	0	0
Poor routine administration	1	3
SLT/SMT is in place	39	98
SLT/SMT is effective	24	60
SLT/SMT is ineffective	13	33
Job descriptions provide clarity of role and responsibility	10	25
Job descriptions are vague/unclear	9	23
Appraisal policy is in place	29	73

Appraisal policy is consistently implemented	10	25
Appraisal is linked to staff development	18	45
Appraisal is inconsistently implemented	7	18
Appraisal is not linked to staff development	8	20
SDP is in place	36	90
SDP is an effective working document	18	45
SDP is an ineffective working document	12	30

The findings in the Table 5.1 above show that 65% of the inspection reports analyzed judged schools to have had balanced and broad curriculums, and in 55% the curriculums reflected the aims of the schools involved. It also found that in 68% school policies were developed and in place. On the aspect of administration, 28% of schools had very good routine administration systems in place. Another 48% were recorded to have had good routine administration and 15% only satisfactory.

The findings from the research further show that in the area of developing leadership and management roles, a very high percentage, that is 98%, of schools in the documentary study had formalized SLTs or SMTs instituted, as part of their school leadership structure. While a credible 60% were judged to have had effective SLTs or SMTs, a significant 33% were found to be ineffective. Appraisal policies were established in 73% of schools in the survey, but only consistently implemented in the case of 25% of schools and linked to staff development in 45%. Finally, SDPs were developed in 90% of the schools inspected. However, only 45% of SDPs were judged to be effective management tools.

131

Table 5.2 – Effectiveness in Leadership (N=40)

Leadership Category	Actual Number	Percentage (%)
The school has clearly stated objectives in place	24	60
The headteacher provides strong and effective leadership	33	83
The headteacher has a clear sense of direction and vision	20	50
The headteacher adopts a collegial approach	10	25
The headteacher engages in strategic planning	4	10
The headteacher provides motivation for staff	4	10
The headteacher provides weak leadership	1	3
Overall school leadership is effective	17	42
Overall school leadership is ineffective	23	58

The findings in table 5.2 above focuses on effectiveness in school leadership. It predominantly deals with headship, except for the last two categories, which relate to inspectors' judgement on the overall performance of leadership, including middle managers. In highlighting the findings it is important to note that 60% of headteachers are leading schools that have clearly stated objectives to guide their work. Eighty-three per cent (83%) of inspection reports in the study also judged headteachers to have provided strong and effective leadership. Fifty per cent (50%) were reported to have given a clear sense of direction and vision in their leadership. Only 10% of headteachers were engaged in systematic strategic planning and in actively developing approaches for strengthening staff motivation. Finally, this section of the research findings suggests that, despite the judgment that schools are led by strongly, nevertheless, overall school leadership (including the role of middle managers) was effective in only 42% of schools and ineffective in 58% of schools in the study.

Table 5.3 – Standards for GCSE Examinations and Teaching Quality (N=40)

Standards Category	Actual Number	Percentage
GCSE results are above national average	13	33
GCSE results are below national average	26	65
GCSE results are below national level and inspection judgment adjusted for contextual factors	7	18
Quality of teaching – very good	2	5
Quality of teaching – good	26	65
Quality of teaching – satisfactory	10	25
Quality of teaching – unsatisfactory	2	5
Quality of teaching – poor	0	0

In the table above, 33% of the 40 London schools in this documentary study had GCSE examination results that were above the national level. In contrast, 65%, that is, the remainder of schools in the sample, had GCSE results below the national average. This means that two out of every three schools had results below the national norm. Another important finding in the table is that, overall, teachers in these schools were judged to be competent in their teaching – five per cent (5%) very good; 65% good; and 25% satisfactory.

Findings from the Questionnaire Survey

Table 5.4 – The Impact the OFSTED Inspection had on School Leadership (N=22)

Statement	Actual Number	Percentage
Respondents who were headteachers at the schools' first OFSTED inspection.	11	50
Respondents who were headteachers at the schools' second OFSTED inspection.	8	36
Schools that had first and second inspections	13	59
First and second round inspection respondents as a percentage of those involved in the first and second round inspections.	6	46
Headteachers who accepted the inspection judgements on leadership and management.	12	55
Headteachers for whom the inspection judgments had no influence on their leadership approach.	7	32
Headteachers for whom the inspection judgments had some influence on their leadership approach	5	23
Headteachers for whom the inspection judgment had significant influence on their leadership approach	2	9

The table shows that 50% of headteachers were in post for the first round of OFSTED inspections and 36% in post during the second round inspections. In total 59% of schools in the questionnaire survey had a second inspection. In addition, 27% of headteachers were involved in both first round and second round OFSTED inspections. Approximately 59% of headteachers in the sample were in either the first round or the second round of the inspection process, and the majority of these (calculated to be 55% of the total returns) reported that they had accepted the OFSTED inspection findings on leadership and management. Nevertheless, the table also shows that 32% of respondent headteachers indicated that the inspection judgments had no influence on their leadership approach. Another 23% felt that the judgments had some influence, but only nine per cent (9%) declared that the inspection judgment had significant influence on

their leadership style. For those who found the inspection judgments to be of some influence or significant influence, one headteacher commented that it contributed to building self-confidence, especially having been in the post for only five terms prior to the second inspection. Another reported that while the inspection findings had no influence on the leadership style adopted, it was nonetheless nice to receive the commendations given on leadership and management. It was a *'confidence boost!'* For another group of respondents the focus was on the impetus that inspection provided for implementing change that would otherwise be resisted in some quarters.

Table 5.5 – How Headteachers Evaluate their Leadership Styles (N=22)

Statement	Actual Number	Percentage
Headteachers described their style of leadership as:		
Strong and task oriented	5	23
Strong and democratic	5	23
Consultative and participative	11	50
Delegating/partnership	3	14
Collegial	2	9
Headteachers who judged their style of leadership to be in accord with the OSFTED findings on leadership with reference to their schools	13	59

In the table above, the results illustrate how headteachers judged their style of leadership. It shows that they describe their style in four ways. Forty-six per cent (46%) said that they were either strongly task oriented or strongly democratic. Fifty per cent (50%) judged themselves to be consultative in their approach to leadership. However, only 14% used delegation as part of their leadership style and a mere nine per cent (9%) adopted a collegial approach. Linked to these self-assessments of leadership styles,

135

where headteachers tend to portray themselves as strong but consultative in their approach, 59% of headteachers in the survey reported that their leadership style accords with the judgments on leadership, made by OFSTED about their schools.

When asked to elaborate on the choice of leadership style they used to describe their approach, one respondent who used the category 'strong and task oriented' commented that in leadership there is need to use a combination of styles at different times. One of those who opted for the description of 'strong and democratic' said '*the school required sharp leadership. The stage is now transitional*'. From those who defined their leadership style as 'consultative and participative' one reported that 'strong and task oriented' was another style sometimes used. Another remarked that it was necessary to move between the categories above, depending on the circumstances. Of those headteachers who portray themselves as 'delegating/partnership' one said that '*I have always worked in partnership with colleagues. Freedom and responsibility should be given to people.*' From the two who judged themselves to be 'collegial' one said '*Valuing everyone's views is important...I believe firmly that I had no monopoly on leadership, but subject teachers and NQTs are leaders in their own way*' while another wrote '*I believe in ownership of decisions. I adopt elements of the other categories listed, but I believe in some autonomy for managers. I also like to work as a team.*' Thus, the findings in this area demonstrated that the majority of headteachers in the research study were inclined toward consultation and partnership in the school decision-making process. However, many also suggest that school leadership require flexibility in style, depending on the situation.

Table 5.6 – The Role of Headship (N=22)

Statement	Actual Number	Percentage
The role of headship is to be the:		
Leader	18	82
Manager	12	55
Chief Executive	5	23
Professional Leader	16	73
Facilitator	13	59
Head teachers who were engaged in classroom observations	17	77

From the table above it can be seen that headteachers in the survey placed greater weight on leadership as their more significant role, in contrast to the managerial aspects of headship. Eighty-two per cent (82%) indicated that they viewed their role as being that of a leader, with 73% also specifically listing the professional leader category. Fifty-nine per cent (59%) accepted the function of facilitator to be part of headship. The managerial role of headship attracted 55% of respondents and the chief executive dimension, a mere 23%. The table also shows that 77% of headteachers reported that they had been involved in systematic assessment of the quality of teaching, and considered it to be an important function of headship.

Table 5.7 – The Role of the SLT/SMT (N=22)

Statement	Actual Number	Percentage
Headteachers perceived the functions of the SLT or SMT to be:		
Modelling standards	17	77
Defining and establishing the school's ethos	18	82
Leading the annual school review/audit	15	68
Assisting in formulating the SDP	18	82
Implementing the SDP/targets	18	82
Monitoring the SDP/targets	18	82
Reviewing and monitoring school policies	18	82
Evaluating the quality of teaching	17	77
Monitoring curriculum planning	16	73
In the judgment of headteachers the performances of the SLT or SMT contributed to the inspection outcomes:		
Significantly	12	55
Moderately	6	27
Slightly	2	9

The picture emerging from the findings relating to the role of the SLT or SMT in Table 5.7 above is that the vast majority of headteachers defined the role of the SLT or SMT to be wide ranging. Significantly too, they appear to have endorsed the concept that leadership should be distributed broadly amongst the SLT or SMT and middle managers. All the functions of school leadership and school management (many of these listed in the table) are assumed to be part of the work of effective school leaders. Furthermore, the findings in the table show that 55% of headteachers felt that the leadership effectiveness of the SLT or SMT contributed significantly to the out come of their school's own inspection report, with respect to the aspects of leadership and management.

Table 5.8 – The Process used in formulating the SDP (N=22)

Statement	Actual Number	Percentage
The product of SLT or SMT (without any significant input from staff)	4	18
Consultation		
(a) Prior to the drafting of the plan	2	9
(b) Post the drafting of the plan	4	18
Collaboration	8	36

The findings in Table 5.8 above shows that the schools in the questionnaire survey followed three approaches to the formulation of the SDP. For one group, consisting of 18% of the responses, the SDP was the exclusive work of the SLT or SMT. The second employed a consultative approach. This can be sub-divided into two: drafting of the SDP prior to consultation with staff; or drafting of the SDP after consultation with staff. In the former case, nine per cent (9%) of schools followed this route, while in the latter 18% consulted with staff after the plans were drafted. The collaborative approach, that is, a process involving all staff in the key aspects of the process, was used in 36% of the schools participating in the survey.

Table 5.9 – The Impact of Inspection on School Improvement (N=22)

Statement	Actual Number	Percentage
Second round inspection		
Schools that had a second OFSTED inspection	13	59
Schools judged to be improving	11	50
Implementation of Action Plan following inspection		
Completely	9	41
Substantially	8	36
Partially	4	18
GCSE Results		
Improving and above the national average	3	14
Improving and below the national average	7	32
Fluctuating and above the national average	3	14
Fluctuating and below the national average	4	18
Declining and above the national average	1	4
Declining and below the national average	2	9
Specific areas where inspections contributed to improvements		
Teaching quality	12	55
Whole school audit/review	12	55
Pupils' attainment	11	50
Pupils' progress	9	41
Specific areas where inspections had no influence on improvements		
Staff development	16	73
Financial administration	16	73
School ethos	16	73
Attendance and punctuality	15	68
Staff turnover	15	68
Curriculum planning	14	64
Curriculum monitoring	14	64
Behaviour management	12	55

140

Pupils' progress	10	45

Fifty-nine per cent (59%) of schools participating in the questionnaire survey have had a second OFSTED inspection. This provides a useful basis for assessing the extent to which inspection is contributing to school improvement. Linked to this notion, the findings in the table further show that 50% of respondents claimed that the second OFSTED inspection judged them to be improving schools. If the implementation of the action plan, as a response to inspection, is anything to go by, the findings demonstrate that 41% of schools in the survey had completely implemented their action plan, 36% substantially and 18% partially. Thus, the vast majority had successfully acted on the key issues identified in their inspection reports.

However, in respect of the GCSE examination as an improvement indicator, 46% of schools in the sample experienced consistent improvement in their GCSE examination results. Whereas, 32% had fluctuating results and 13% were actually experiencing declining performances. The table further confirms that inspections contributed to improvements in specific areas such as: teaching quality, 55%; whole school reviews, 55%; and pupils' attainment, 50%. Nevertheless, there were significant percentages, varying from 55% to 73%, indicating that inspection made no contribution to aspects such as: staff development; financial administration; school ethos; attendance and punctuality; staff turnover; curriculum planning; curriculum monitoring; and behaviour management. The findings on pupils' progress was ambivalent with 41% of headteachers saying that inspection contributed to improvements in this area, while 45% said it did not.

The Case Studies

Case Study School One

Introduction and Background

Case Study School One is an 11 to 16 comprehensive school located in East London. The school has approximately 1300 pupils and has been growing since its last inspection. There are more boys and girls in the school, due primarily to the fact that there are two girls' school close by. Seventeen per cent (17%) of pupils leave the school during their secondary education and 140 pupils are refugees. Fifty-four per cent (54%) are eligible for free school meals, which is well above the national average, and is increasing. The percentage of pupils who are statmented for special educational needs (SEN) is also above the national average, although the number of pupils on the SEN register is slightly below the national level. In respect of public examinations, the school's SATs and GCSE results are below national standards.

The current headteacher was appointed in 1994, prior to the school's first OFSTED inspection in 1995. She was appointed to turn the school around as it had a poor reputation and had previously been severely criticized by HMI. Fifteen months later the school had its first OFSTED inspection and was placed under 'Special Measures'. Profoundly, it was described by the Registered Inspector to be 'a school run by teachers for teachers'. The inspection team identified a number of serious issues requiring attention and the most significant of these, in their judgment, was the issue of leadership

and management. From that time onward the school came under systematic monitoring by HMI. However, in 1997 when the school was re-inspected by HMI as part of the on-going monitoring procedure, it was deemed to be providing an acceptable standard of education for pupils and was reclassified as a school with some 'Serious Weaknesses'. Three years later, in May 2000, the school had its second OFSTED inspection and was judged to be providing value for money and no longer had any serious weaknesses. It was now viewed as an improving school with many good features, the most significant of which were that attainment was better than in similar type schools and that its strengths outweigh its weaknesses.

The School's Experience of the OFSTED Inspection

As early as 1986 when the school was inspected by HMI a number of concerns were identified and brought to the attention of the school. But in the words of the present headteacher '...nobody did anything'. There was a feeling that inspection was an inconvenience and could be ignored, since HMI had no systems in place for making schools account for implementing their recommendations. Thus, in 1995 when the school had its first OFSTED, it was against a background of weak and ineffective leadership and management. The headteacher was the only woman in the SLT or SMT. Not only was it male dominated, but also it had a traditional structure, with a pastoral deputy headteacher, a deputy headteacher for finance and another for 'day to day fire fighting'. According to the new headteacher, the SLT or SMT had a brief, but was unsupported and not able to cope. This was as a consequence of the strength of very active teachers' unions groups and inadequate support from the LEA, who, in the

opinion of the headteacher, had made many unhelpful local agreements with the unions such as on class size, working hours and pupil-teacher ratio. Thus, in many ways the hands of management were tied. In addition, the headteacher describe the teaching culture as one where *'There were many bad practices. Teachers had lost sight of why they were here. Over a period of time I try to communicate to staff that the children had potential and that we were here for the good of the children. I want this community school to be a centre of excellence...The RGI described the school as a school run by teachers for teachers. This was a terrible indictment for any school...I would have to pull them kicking and screaming into the 21st century.'*

For the headteacher, although the inspection had caused the school to be placed in *'Special Measures'* it, nonetheless, helped her in driving the school forward. Without its influence it would have been difficult to implement all the changes needed in the school and in the time frame that was necessary. While she did not believe that a school could be turned around in less than five years, and confirmed by her experience in this case, the inspection, nevertheless, helped to focus the minds of the less defensive staff on what had to be done. These people, she said, were ashamed to be publicly told that they were failing the children and were determined to stay and change the school.

Other members of the school leadership team also echoed many of these opinions, regarding the experiences of the inspection. The first deputy headteacher, who joined the school in 1995 (approximately nine months following the inspection), described the reaction of some staff as a 'situation of denial'. These members had difficulty coming to

terms with the inspection judgment. There was an initial reluctance pervading the atmosphere. However, there were others who, on the contrary, believed the findings to be correct. Gradually, according to the first deputy headteacher, people began to think soberly on the challenges presented by the inspection, and eventually were dropping the resentment and baggage they were carrying. They began to focus on the task before them. The first deputy headteacher felt that it was important to build unity in order to achieve the change that was needed. This is what he had to say:

'One way was to try to redefine where we were going. Redefining the vision, redefining the aims and the purposes of the school, meant that everybody had something to hang on to in terms of where the school was aiming and where it was going. A lot of work was done in moving to the new goals and objectives...'

The experience of the first inspection also had a deep impact on the governing body. According to the chair of governors, leadership was the main issue surfacing from the inspection. For the first time governors were made aware of the serious problems facing the school. This made them think more critically about the strengths and weaknesses of their strategic leadership and management of the school. As a result they appointed additional governors in order to augment the range of skills available to the governing body. They also had to devise strategies for the vital function of monitoring crucial aspects of the work of the school.

The experience of the second OFSTED inspection was less dramatic and the impact different. Whereas the first inspection brought a radical shake up to the school in many areas of its work, the second may be said to have provided the school with a platform for consolidation. The inspection judgment said the school was an improving school and that, in terms of school leadership, there were no weaknesses to this aspect. Interestingly, the school's own review identified the subject leaders' role (middle management) as requiring development. The inspection helped to confirm further areas for development for the school, and it had no surprises for school leaders. However, in some areas, the inspection may have slowed the process of reform, generated by the first OFSTED inspection. For example, matters such as assessment, target setting and the development of performance data were put on hold as people focused on meeting the requirements of the inspection framework. But a return to the reform momentum is still lagging, in the opinion of the Second Deputy Headteacher, who feels that there has been a relaxing of effort, because of the success of the second inspection.

Implementing the Action Plan

According to the headteacher, there were twelve key issues identified by the inspection team of the first OFSTED. These include issues such as appraisal, collective act of worship, assessment, the quality of teaching and learning, discipline and behaviour and attendance. In her opinion, these key issues in the inspection report were fully justified. Nevertheless, the formulation of the action plan was in her view a 'nightmare'. The school had no model to follow and compare with. She commented that: 'No one knew what an action plan look like. I spend all my time searching for examples. I went to the

146

Director of Education and OFSTED, but to no avail. We went to the DfEE and they tried to help us but no one had written an action plan. Eventually, an HMI inspector proved the saviour of the situation and actually help significantly with concrete ideas for formulating the action plan.'

Thirty-two (32) success criteria were attached to the plan for addressing the 12 key issues identified by the inspection, commented the headteacher. It also involved arrangements for monitoring its implementation. Weekly the leadership team would tick off aspects to be tackled. Every member of staff was given a copy of the key issues and asked how they intend to deliver the changes in their own classroom. In her opinion, the action plan became an integral part of the SDP and is now at the heart of the school's self-evaluation practice. Thus, in implementing the plan one of the important challenges facing the school leadership team was how to make teachers more profession in their practice. Moving the plan on meant driving up professionalism at all levels and monitoring vigorously the way the changes were being effected. The first deputy headteacher's comments on the implementation process confirmed that the focus was on teaching quality, providing direction and setting out what people were expected to do. Implementing the plan also meant that in some cases there were staff changes. In the first deputy headteacher's own words: *'If people could not sign up to the new aims and expectations one way or the other they would have to leave the school.'* The implementation of the plan also gained from the monitoring visits of HMI and the LEA. They were able to highlight areas of the action plan that needed more effort in order to achieve progress. Nevertheless, the headteacher had this to say of the impact of the plan:

'I think that targeting weak areas and teachers made a difference. You would not think it is the same teachers who were having difficulties. '

Whereas the headteacher heavily directed the formulation and development of the first school development plan, to provide urgency, purpose and clarity for a mission of reform, the process for the second was more relaxed and transparent. The first deputy headteacher summarized the process as being like an album, looking at the key areas for development and then constructing targets around each of those key areas. He produced the first draft, drawing on references from the previous SDP and the key issues identified by the OFSTED report. The draft was then discussed with the SLT or SMT. The results from that exercise then went out for consultation to subject leaders and others, after which a further draft was produced by the first deputy headteacher, incorporating an implementation plan, costs and success criteria. This was then sent out again for discussion with staff and governors and the final draft submitted to the governing body for approval. The second deputy headteacher's statement reinforced the picture presented above, by the first deputy headteacher, that is, that the process began with the key issues from the OFSTED inspection forming part of the platform for what was to be addressed by the plan. From that, the overall picture of where the school should be going was developed into a general plan by the SLT or SMT. This was then passed on to middle managers, for them to add departmental dimensions/contributions. These were then restudied by SLT or SMT with further collaboration with departments for fine-tuning. The purpose of this approach was to ensure that stakeholders had ownership of the plan.

The Impact the inspection had on Leadership and Management

Even without the catalytic contribution of the OFSTED inspection, the headteacher was driven by her own vision of where she desires to take the school. She says: '*I am absolutely passionately driven...I believe in the statement that without vision we will perish...My motivation is the love I have for learning, a love of children and wanting people to succeed*'. She believes in delegating responsibilities to colleagues, but will provide support for them in carrying out their functions. She proudly accepts the description of being '*the iron fist in a velvet glove*'. The school bursar echoed this perception about the leadership of the school when, he observed that the leadership team is supportive, but is also firm. The first deputy headteacher also noted that the headteacher had formulated a very direct way in which the school should go and had a very clear view of what she expects from colleagues.

Thus, the headteacher's leadership approach focused on making other leaders accountable and by expecting high professional conduct from teachers and staff in their work. This, she says, is the '*fist*' dimension of her leadership style. It is creating structure in the system and making people know where the boundaries are, through job descriptions and policies. Initially, during the phases of '*Special Measures*' and '*Serious Weaknesses*' the '*fist*' characteristics of the headteacher's leadership style prevailed. However, as the areas of the action plans were addressed and progress made

the 'velvet' aspect gained more importance. She sees the leadership team and middle managers as being empowered and working more with a flat leadership structure, as opposed to the usual hierarchical form that tends to exist in schools. As evidences of empowerment she pointed to the fact that middle managers were now involved in the interview process, with respect to appointments in their areas. They are responsible for short listing, for advertising vacancies, for drawing up job descriptions and for making spending and operational decisions for their departments. Thus, they have ownership of their work. Members of the SLT or SMT are assigned curriculum areas to manage. There are fortnightly departmental meetings and monitoring plans are submitted to the SLT or SMT.

The first deputy headteacher argues that the SLT or SMT operates under a structured approach, with everyone being given very specific responsibilities, arrived through a process of negotiation. However, this is a revolving system, with everyone afforded a chance to elect for something different at a future date. This style of working he described as collegial. Views/opinions are shared and issues are discussed in full. The strengths of members of the SLT or SMT are maximized. There is a culture of support among the SLT or SMT. Appropriate matters are delegated to middle managers, leaving the SLT or SMT to focus on strategic matters of leadership. The second deputy headteacher, also emphasizes the effort made to empower leaders. She mentioned that much work had gone into empowering middle managers to carry out their duties. She also said that where it was necessary, such as before the last OFSTED inspection, the SLT or SMT had intervened to monitor and direct strategies for raising effectiveness in

curriculum areas. The bursar too is in agreement that the SLT or SMT is supportive, but will be firm when it is needed. He observed that leadership is sometimes seen as hierarchical, with people looking to the top too often for solutions to problems. That is dangerous he suggested, as leadership should be a collaborative process and for people to feel that they have a role in leading the school.

The Effectiveness of Leadership and Management

According to the headteacher, prior to the first OFSTED inspection the leadership of the school was weak and was a key reason for her appointment. Following the first inspection she made many changes to the leadership and management of the school. New appointments were made to the SLT or SMT and among middle managers. The headteacher expressed this as a complete turn around, empowering leaders/managers and removing complacency. Leaders and managers are now trained to deliver the tasks of implementing and monitoring changes, designed to raise standards. The SLT or SMT contributes to the process of defining the direction of the school through input in the development of the SDP. They are assigned aspects of the operation of the school to lead, and they vigorously monitor the implementation of policies and the work of middle managers. In addition, the SLT or SMT consciously cultivate a climate of support and encouragement in their endeavour to develop accountability and improve learning. The second deputy headteacher linked the effectiveness of the SLT or SMT to the dynamic leadership and management ethos emerging at the school. This assessment is also reflected in the views of the first deputy headteacher, who remarked that: *'There might*

be more urgency to move things forward...It is trying to keep that vision, that goal in front of people that has been part of the work of the SMT. We look at addressing issues through the forums we have. These would keep the pressure on and make sure things would be on the front burner.'

The effect of Leadership/Management and Inspection on School Improvement

The Headteacher acknowledged the role the first inspection played as a catalyst/the spark for change. However, she remarked that it is impossible to turn a school around in less than five years. What the inspection did best was to focus the minds of people on the need for change. Progress has been achieved as a result of; the high expectations set for colleagues in leadership and for teachers; making staff accountable; empowerment of leaders on all levels; and team building and a supportive climate. The second deputy headteacher stressed the fact that improvement was achieved as a result of the SLT or SMT keeping staff constantly focused on the goal of improving standards. She observed that the OFSTED inspection presented the school with a challenge, but that it was equally complemented by the initiatives taken by the SLT or SMT to deliver improvements. The first deputy headteacher, in commenting on the role of OFSTED in school improvement, agreed with the judgment of the second inspection, that the school was an *'improving school.'* Nevertheless, he stated that the school had already identified the areas pinpointed by OFSTED as needing improving as targets for in its own development plan. Paradoxically, he suggested that the second inspection adversely held back progress on the school's agenda for change and development.

Summary

Case Study School One experiences many socio-economic factors that inner city schools generally have to contend with, such as high Free School Meal (FSM) rate, excessive SEN numbers and poor national academic results. After the first OFSTED the school was placed under 'Special Measures'. However, the second OFSTED inspection, three years later, judged the school to be providing value for money and producing attainment levels better than similar type schools.

The first OFSTED identified overall leadership as one of the issues confronting the school. The headteacher, who took up her appointment prior to the inspection, concur with this judgment. The inspection helped to focus the minds of the staff on the need for changes. But there was an initial reluctance, by some, to come to terms with their failings. The governors, too, were made to think more strategically about the leadership and management of the school. On the other hand, the second OFSTED confirmed the direction the school was moving in and provided a platform for consolidation. The school was judged to be improving. Mitigating against this, the rigour of a full second OFSTED inspection may have slowed the school's progress toward improvement, as its energies were diverted into preparing for the inspection.

The school diligently went about implementing the action plan, systematically monitoring each aspect. The action plan was also fully integrated into the SDP. At the

heart of the plan was a determination to change the culture of the school – putting the children's interest first – and raising the professionalism of teachers. The first plan was heavily driven by the headteacher, whereas the second followed a well-charted consultation route involving subject leaders, staff and governors.

Although the OFSTED inspection provided a vital catalytic function in changes to leadership and management, the headteacher's vision was an important propelling force in implementing the changes/action plan. This was achieved through a combination of making the staff accountable, but also providing the necessary support for their success. In this respect, she accepts the description of being 'the iron fist in a velvet glove'. She now sees the leadership team and the middle managers as empowered to lead and manage areas of the school's work. Leadership, in the school leaders' judgment, is now strong and effective and is the key to the school's emerging culture of accountability, professionalism and support. Whilst the inspection focused the school on the issues for change, the headteacher credits the improvement to the initiatives and the commitment of the school leadership team.

Case Study School Two

Introduction and background

Case Study School Two is a mixed 11 – 19 comprehensive, situated in an attractive nine acres single site in North London. The school is in close proximity to a former Grant Maintained School, a girl's Maintained School and three Church Voluntary Aided

Schools. The school is also in an area of high employment, with a much lower than average proportion of families with experience of higher education. GCSE and SATS results are below the nation level and currently approximately two hundred and ninety children have been identified as requiring special educational needs provision. Nevertheless, it is a growing school, with an intake of 210 pupils in year 7 and also has a developing Sixth Form. The accommodation has been upgraded with specialist provisions for curriculum areas such as art, science, technology, ICT, drama, music and physical education. These facilities are shared with the local community in the evenings and at weekends.

The school had its first and only OFSTED inspection in 1997. Thus, it is aware of its problems. It also had a traumatic year after the inspection. The headteacher, who had been in post for eighteen (18) years, retired at the end of the 1996/7 school year, following the inspection. But the headteacher, who succeeded him at the commencement of the 1997/8 school year, resigned shortly after taking up the position, for personal reasons. As a result, the deputy headteacher was appointed acting headteacher for the duration of the school year. One of the repercussions of this experience for the school was that the implementation of the action plan, in response to the key issues from the inspection, was seriously disrupted. The new headteacher (the current headteacher) took up her post in the Easter of 1998 and so began the changes and initiatives to address the action plan. Establishing a set of pivotal values on which to reform the work of the school was the initial task undertaken by the headteacher. Five key values emerged to shape the school's development. These values are: having a

strong commitment to learning; high expectations of all pupils; a belief that all can succeed; confidence and courage to meet challenges; and a culture where everyone is valued equally.

The School's Experience of the OFSTED Inspection

The period of the inspection and what followed was a difficult one for the staff and the school. The OFSTED judgment pinpointed weaknesses in the leadership team and many staff members, including the deputy headteacher, accepted this as a fair conclusion. According to the headteacher, a number of the leadership roles lacked clarity and led to confusion and ineffectiveness. The SLT or SMT consisted of nine members, with some members occupying both leadership and middle management functions. Thus, this blurred and distorted the relationship between the leadership team and the middle managers.

Not only did the staff accept the report and its findings, but some were of the opinion that it avoided important issues of concern to them. For example, they refer to a nursery project, initiated by the headteacher, and felt that OFSTED's comment that this was '*an interesting innovation*' was a let off. They, on the contrary, thought this project was consuming too much time and distracting the school from the main business of teaching and learning. Overall, the staff was not critical of the report, but felt it had highlighted important issues of concern. Indeed, the report's judgments may have contributed to the headteacher's decision to retire after serving 18 years in the post.

Implementing the Action Plan

The action plan, in response to the inspection, was prepared by the former headteacher in the summer term of 1997, for immediate implementation in the autumn term by the new headteacher. However, as mentioned above, the new headteacher resigned not too long after taking up the post. Thus, the implementation of the action plan was stalled, as the process of finding a replacement headteacher took priority. The acting headteacher was engaged in a holding operation until a new appointment was made. Therefore, it was not until Easter of 1998 and the arrival of the current headteacher that any serious attempt was made at addressing the key issues emanating from the inspection.

Nevertheless, what was interesting in the way in which the new headteacher set about the task of implementing the action plan, is the fact that she did not make it (the action plan) the centrepiece of her reform programme. Her own assessment of the school accorded with the inspection judgment, and in her opinion the temptation was there to use the inspection findings as a whipping stick to force changes, but this she resisted. She had her own dream of transforming the school into a learning community, and here is what she said about the context of the OFSTED judgment:

'What OFSTED said was always there as a framework. And my vision of the school and the things I want to do, the emphasis I want to put on things, were not

at odds with OFSTED. Where I am going OFSTED would be getting what it wants. I am going higher and further I hope, but the base-line of what OFSTED needed us to do would have been something that happened on the way. '

Initially, according to the headteacher, OFSTED had to be put aside temporarily in order to formulate a more focused strategic overview. The signpost commitment was to place the focus on student learning. Pupils should take control of their own learning, becoming independent learners. It should be expected that all pupils can succeed. To achieve this learning and teaching had to improve. These priorities would form the core purpose of the school, and concisely, it would be about teaching and the classroom. This would be delivered through a framework that centers on: (a) what is taught in the classroom and learnt through the curriculum; (b) the effectiveness of curriculum leaders in managing their areas; and (c) systematic reviews to chart the degree of progress being made. For the headteacher, although this might appeared to be that she was suspending the OFSTED key issues for a while, the truth was that the OFSTED key issues were being distilled, and coming out was a purified set/group of the values on which the work of the school would be built. Having established these important values, the headteacher felt more confident in developing the SDP, which embraced the OFSTED key issues. In addition, in formulating the SDP a study was made of the criteria of 'healthy schools' and the results used for reviewing the school's practices and addressing the OFSTED priorities. The process of developing the plan also involved identifying a list of broad strategic intents. From these an annual operational plan was constructed, linked to

departmental plans. The headteacher's own assessment is that the plan is working and developing well. It is a process that involves everyone.

The Impact the Inspection had on Leadership and Management

The impact the inspection had on leadership and management came **indirectly**, through the work of the headteacher in seeking to change the climate of the school. In developing the culture of a learning community, she described herself as '*the lead learner*'. In explaining this she said:

> '*I am the light not the critic. I am the learner and should be a model of good learning and good practice in the classroom and in my interaction with colleagues...If I am not modeling excellent learning then the ability to improve and change will be difficult, since I could not really ask staff, pupils and parents to be learners themselves.*'

In driving for the institution to cultivate a learning culture, the headteacher dispensed with the SMT model and introduced a School Leadership Team approach (this was before the concept of a leadership team was put forward by the government). Behind this lay a paradigm shift in the expectation the headteacher had of her colleagues. She argued that the term leadership team was more appropriate, because the main role of her team was leadership and not management. The aim was to create a high performing leadership team, which would be involved in creating a vision and in moving the school

forward. In the judgment of the deputy headteacher, the headteacher's notion of a learning institution or learning community is bedding down. He confirmed that there is a spirit of collaboration, openness and transparency emerging across the whole spectrum of school leadership. He pointed out that the new leadership team was a mix of members from the previous administration and newly appointed ones. Those from the past were pleased with the changes effected by the headteacher, while the new leadership team members showed enthusiasm for the leadership approach adopted by the headteacher. Nevertheless, this change of leadership style and direction was not without some initial discomfort. According to the headteacher, some of her associates found it strange and difficult, but were now adjusting well to the collegial approach. The reason for their early disorientation was that they were accustomed to someone telling them what to do. This was in contrast to being given the opportunity to develop their own perspectives on an issues or problem and to contribute to the decision making process of the school. The view was also expressed by some colleagues to the headteacher that sometimes she ought to be more decisive on certain matters, rather than endeavouring to reach a consensus of opinion before taking action.

The Effectiveness of the Leadership and Management Team

The leadership team is fully behind the vision the headteacher has for the school. They are committed to working together in moving the school forward. But not only that, the leadership team sees it also as their responsibility to ensure that everybody involved in the school, that is, teachers, pupils and parents understand the school's vision and are encouraged to embrace it. Indeed the leadership team feels that it is a team in every

sense of the word. Its work has been characterized by openness, clear discussion and the involvement of everyone in developing and in implementing policies. According to those interviewed in this case study, the management mechanisms are working well and have been the reasons for the improved performance of the school. The school is now half way up the LEA's performance league table. The SDP is viewed and used by the leadership team as a management tool. It is reviewed annually and systematically monitored by the leadership team.

The Effect of Leadership/Management and Inspection on School Improvement

Overall, it was felt that the OFSTED inspection assisted the school indirectly in raising performance. It identified a number of key areas with concerns and helped to focus the school's attention more fully on solving those problems. More profoundly, the OFSTED inspection was a catalyst for changing the culture and the leadership and management mode of the school. The school leaders now consider it to be an improving school. They also see the OFSTED judgement as an important indicator for assessing and evaluating the progress of the school.

Summary

Case Study School Two does not experience the full range of social deprivation factors typical for many inner city schools. It is in an area with relatively high employment. However, not many pupils are from families with a background in higher education. GCSE and SATs results are below national standards.

The school had an ordeal following its first OFSTED inspection. The then headteacher took early retirement and his successor, unfortunately, had to resign soon after taking up the post, because of personal reasons. These circumstances retarded the development and the implementation of the action plan. The inspection, itself, identified leadership as one of the main areas of weakness in the school. The staff on a whole accepted the OFSTED judgement.

The new headteacher appointed to replace the one that resigned, on arriving, made her own personal assessment of where the school was, in terms of its performance, leadership and management. Realizing that her analysis was in harmony with the OFSTED report, she moved the focus away from the traditional path of formulating an action plan based on the key issues. Instead, a vision that emphasizes learning and teaching was developed and implemented. Thus, the OFSTED key issues would, she argued, be covered by the five core values driving the work of the school, namely: commitment; high expectation; a belief that all can succeed; confidence; and the principle that everyone is to be valued equally.

The impact of the new vision resulted in a change in the culture of the school, to one that promoted the concept of a learning community, in which the headteacher labeled herself as the 'lead learner'. The outcome of this was the commitment to creating a high performing school leadership team to work in partnership with the headteacher in moving the school forward. As a result, there is now a spirit of collaboration and openness prevailing at the school. The school leadership team feels that there is a sense

of unity and purpose to their work. The new strategic plan is also proving to be a very useful management tool. Finally, although the OFSTED inspection report was not overtly the moving force behind the changes and developments to the school, it has, nonetheless, been recognized to have persuasive influence. Thus, it can be said to have been an important factor in the school's improvement, by being the basic standard for gauging improvement outcomes.

Case Study School Three

Introduction and Background

Case Study School Three is located in South West London. It is a mixed comprehensive with over 1,000 pupils on roll and has been experiencing growth in pupil numbers. At the time of the last school inspection, four years ago, its enrolment stood at 680. Twenty-six per cent (26%) of its pupils are on the SEN register, with over 30 pupils that are statemented. Over 200 pupils are from homes where English is not their first language. Thus, the school serves a deprived clientele, with over 80% of pupils from single parent families. Seventy (70%) per cent of all pupils are also entitled to free school meals. Forty (40) per cent of the pupils are from minority ethnic groups, the two main groups being Black African and Black Caribbean. The catchment area of the school includes council and trusts estates and about half of the pupils live on these estates. At entry, the levels of attainment are generally well below national averages. A significant minority of pupils, on admission, cannot read and write or cope with

numbers, and the standard of the least able pupils are still, on average, two years below their chronological age in reading and spelling.

The current headteacher took up his post in September 1994, following the OFSTED inspection, which took place in May 1994. Between the inspection and September 1994, the then headteacher took early retirement and a temporary headteacher was in place to see the academic year through. The new headteacher described the condition prevailing at the start of his tenure as 'dysfunctional'. Leadership and management were manifestly weak all round, the quality of teaching and learning were very poor, the delivery of the curriculum was weak in several areas, the pastoral system was failing, and accountability was lacking. A thick cloud of despondency hovered over the school at this period. However, by the time of the 1997 OFSTED, inspectors reported that the school had worked hard in implementing its action plan and improving steadily. The quality of teaching had gotten better and the school had kept a tight rein on discipline and classroom management. There is now a strong SLT or SMT and many subject leaders/heads of department are effective and inspiring in leading colleagues.

The School's Experience of the OFSTED Inspection

The consensus of the new headteacher and other members of the SLT or SMT was that the school was fortunate to be judged to have 'Serious Weaknesses' and not to have been placed under 'Special Measures'. Many of the older staff, and in particular some middle managers, considered the whole exercise of the inspection to have been like coming through the Second World War. They had worked hard and survived together

164

with great spirit. In other words, there was a feeling that they could return to the old routine. There were also those who were quick to find excuses for the failings identified in the report. But this was not the thinking of the headteacher and his close associates, who saw this attitude as evidence of a crippling cultural malaise. He assessed the task facing them to be a tough one, given the degree of dysfunctionalism existing in the school.

To shake the staff out of this mode of complacency, clear professional expectations were set for them, such as on planning, teaching, attendance and professional development. Policies that were quickly put together for the inspection were revised to take into account observations from the inspection report. Armed with a report that was critical of the school performance on many aspects of its work, the headteacher impressed on staff the reality that the weaknesses had to be addressed if the school was to avoid the threat of closure. However, it is the headteacher's considered opinion that there was a hard core of older staff members who would rather allow the school to eventually go under than to accept that they had failed the pupils and that they should now resolve to support the effort for changes. By the end of the first term of the academic year, many of these teachers decided to leave. They could not adapt to the reform and changes being implemented by the new administration of the school. The present chair of governors, who was interviewed for this case study, likened the transformation that was in train to a 'radical re-direct'. These teachers found it difficult to accept and adjust to the reshaping of the school and the beginning of a new era. The inspection also led to changes in the way the governors carried out their work. But first, the head had to endure a battle with

the then chair of governors, who was resisting the reforms. In the end, faced with a direct confrontation between herself and the headteacher over the direction in which the school should go, she decided to resign. This made way for the present incumbent, a successful business consultant, who the headteacher credits with having excellent understanding of the strategic role of the governors. Extra governors were also brought in to widen the range of expertise needed to boost the effectiveness of the governing body. In addition, a system of delegated committees was established to carry out detailed work for the full governing group. Overall, the impact of the inspection resulted in the school experiencing a paradigm shift in its culture, its leadership and management, and in the professional accountability of teachers.

Implementing the Action Plan

As an important starting point, the headteacher believed that there were two important prerequisites to the delivery of the action plan, namely that: there should be a real belief that nothing was insoluble; and that the children were entitled to a good education. But apart from this basic philosophy, the initiation of the plan was helped by the fact that a group of new teachers were employed that did not carry the burden of the past and could more easily assimilate the new vision. This was also augmented by the fact that a restructured management system was in place to support the plan.

In constructing the action plan the headteacher consulted closely with key members of the leadership team, but was also given helpful support and advice from the LEA. This was through an ex-chief inspector, working with the authority on a consultancy basis.

As an adjunct to the action plan, the headteacher was also able to skillfully broaden the issues to be tackled to include what he considered to be the matters of accountability, attitude and culture. These he judged to have been at the heart of the inspection findings. The details of the plan embraced a multitude of areas such as leadership and management, teaching, learning, attendance and behaviour.

By the end of the first year the implementation of the plan showed some positive signs. The HMI monitoring team, on its visit in the summer term of 1995, reported that there were still problems with teaching, learning and behaviour. However, they were impressed with developments such as the review of policies, the restructuring of the management of the school and evidence of a clear long-term strategy for directing the future of the school. Since then, the school has experienced consistent improvements. GCSE examination results have increased from nine per cent (9%) A*-C passes in 1996 to 25% in 1999. The SATs result too have improved and the signs for the future are bright for the school. Structural changes have been made and are proving to be effective in strengthening teaching and learning and up-grading professionalism. The attitudes of staff have shifted away from negative stereotyping to the point of acknowledging that the pupils, irrespective of their background are entitled to the opportunity of a 'decent education'. However, according to the headteacher, the implementation of the action plan had its difficulties too, the main one being the resistance experienced in some quarters from the teaching staff. This he put down to the reality that people in general do not like changes and will initially find reasons for avoiding reforms. To overcome this impediment the headteacher employed the strategy of establishing what he terms a

'hierarchy of interest', consisting of: pupils first; parents second; and staff third. Thus, he signalled that the school was in operation primarily for the benefit of the children. Other interests would have to revolve around this central purpose. As a result of this, the resistance to change was effectively undermined and left without a reasonable argument to support it. Another challenge to the implementation of the action plan, according to the deputy headteacher, was the establishment of what he termed to be 'a functional school', meaning with good behaviour and effective planning for teaching and learning. This he felt they had succeeded in achieving at the school.

The Impact the Inspection had on Leadership and Management

The impact of the inspection led the school to re-examine: its leadership and management structure; its whole school policies; and the capability of those who hold leadership and management functions. Thus, according to the headteacher:

> *'...my first job is to be the **director of operations**. It is not interestingly to be a manager. As director of operations I orchestrate different managers and different management processes. In the real world of education changes are conducted by middle managers, that is, heads of curriculum areas and year learning managers, who translate the principles, vision and rhetoric into reality. The second aspect of my job as headteacher is **to effect change**. What I have done is to take the principles of organization and apply them to our work. The outcome has been that you have good and effective team managers and people who understand the notion of accountability and responsibilities.'*

Hence, accountability becomes, in a way, the spinal cord linking leadership with the various functional and managerial areas of the school's operation. There are now three deputy headteachers, responsible for line managing the following aspects: building, finance and personnel; one half of curriculum; and other half of curriculum. The middle managers in the above areas report directly back to the appropriate deputy headteacher. In turn, the deputy headteachers are accountable to the headteacher. This reinforces the headteacher's concept of being the 'director of operations'. But he must also deal with the governors, the LEA, local politicians, OFSTED, the QCA and the DFES.

Behind this approach to leadership and management lies an attempt to empower the leadership team and managers. A significant degree of power and authority had been devolved to the deputy headteachers. They were also able to delegate to managers key aspects in the implementation and monitoring of both the action plan and the school development plan. In addition, the strategies of delegation and empowerment/ownership were boldly put into action by the way in which the leadership actively involve staff, governors and the community in the formulation of the school development plan.

The Effectiveness of Leadership and Management

There are two dimensions to the leadership of the school, according to the chair of governors. There is a strategic element to the leadership of the school, and the governing body provides this. This role can also be seen as giving oversight to the direction of the school and support to leaders and managers. The other side is the

executive leadership, which is the function of the school leadership team. The effectiveness of the governors was achieved in three ways: firstly, through the committee structure; secondly, by the arrangement whereby individual governors selected areas of interest, which they systematically shadowed and reported on; and thirdly, by the strategic planning and monitoring of the broad direction of the school. This was augmented by the fact that the governing body was blessed with a wide range of expertise to draw from. On the other hand, the effectiveness of the executive, that is, the headteacher and the school leadership team, was secured through the clear links established between the school leadership team members and middle managers. (The practical application was looked at in the previous section of the case study.) In the opinion of the chair of governors, the effectiveness of this structure had contributed significantly to the consistent improvements experienced by the school.

The effectiveness of leadership and management was also demonstrated by the methodical way in which school policies and teaching and learning were monitored. The first deputy headteacher had likened managers to be 'in-house inspectors'. Furthermore, the clarity of job descriptions and responsibility ensured that leaders and managers were fully aware of the expectations set out for them. In addition, they would know too the consequences of failure to meet those expectations. This emphasis by the headteacher on meaningful delegation of authority, backed up by accountability, may be the reason for some senior colleagues describing his style as 'the iron fist in a velvet glove'. Another basis for school leaders claiming effectiveness to their work is fact that

they feel confident that they can say that their 'policies were no longer paper policies, but living documents'.

The Effect of Leadership and Management and Inspection on School Improvement

The consensus that emerged from the participants (that is, the chair of governors, the headteacher and the first deputy headteacher) in this case study was that the OFSTED inspection had influenced the changes now experienced by the school: Hear is what they have to say:

The chair of governors

'I think that it would be fair to say that the original...inspection, which identified all these problems, was undoubted a catalyst for a major change of programme, in that I do not think, in the long run, it would have been possible to go on much longer without some significant changes to the school. But the school could have gone a little longer. However, the situation was such that even a little longer would have been very damaging and dangerous. I think that one has to say that the initial report was a catalyst...If we say the objective of intervention is to assist school to perform better, then I think overall they have achieved this.'

The headteacher

'...if we did not have the OFSTED report it would have been more difficult to initiate the changes, because it would have been easier for the organization to justify it existence. It would have been easier for people to make excuses, to be

defensive because we did not have the evidence. With all its flaws an objective

analysis of the school by OFSTED has clout... It is that kind of stick, that kind of

pressure. There are two elements, one providing objective information to the

school, which is hugely important, and the other being the continued threat that

comes from additional visits from HMI, such as in our case.'

The first deputy headteacher

'The first inspection was the catalyst...the school was a dysfunctional

school...and needed that shot of OFSTED to bring things to a head. The second

OFSTED confirmed the changes that were going on...showing that we were

moving in the right direction...it gave us confirmation that we were improving. It

legitimizes the way we are going and the vision of the team.'

Despite the conclusion above that the OFSTED inspection contributed to school improvement, in this case, it was however, observed that for the future inspection should be more collaborative. The present approach to inspection was described as being like a well-known group of management consultants descending on a corporation, investigating/researching it, writing a report, leaving the report and disappearing. The alternative espoused is a continuous improvement model for inspection that would involve the school leaders and the inspection team working together to make changes. Thus, an inspection team may be responsible for inspecting, advising, supporting and assisting with implementation, at different stages.

172

Summary

Case Study School Three was unpopular prior to the OFSTED inspection in 1994 and was described by the current headteacher to have been 'dysfunctional' at that time. But it is now a growing school in the community it serves, in the South West of London. It is located in a socially deprived area, with entry levels for attainment generally well below the national averages.

The first OFSTED inspection resulted in the school being judged to have 'Serious Weaknesses'. The initial response from the school was a polarized one, with some staff members feeling that the school was fortunate not to have been placed under 'Special Measures' and those who persisted in denying that the school was failing. The old headteacher was replaced and the new one pursued vigorously a course of reform, involving weeding out teachers who were unwilling to meet the challenge of change and the reshaping of the leadership and management structure, underpinned by the principle of accountability.

The implementation of the action plan, in response to the inspection, focused on the key issues, such as leadership, management, teaching, learning, attendance and behaviour. Immediate success from the changes was not achieved, but the monitoring HMI team was impressed with the structural changes implemented. They gave the new school leadership team a vote of confidence after completing their first year in post. Current

improvements in the school's GCSE and SATs results have vindicated the headteacher strategy for firmness on accountability and professional conduct, but offering support and recognition for hard work/initiatives.

Leadership had undoubtedly improved. The headteacher described his tasks as being the 'director of operations' and to develop effective team managers. The school leadership team was responsible for line managing the curriculum and pastoral leaders. All this was intended to further the goal of empowerment that the headteacher had embarked on. Leadership in the organization had been advanced too by the re-structuring of the work of the governors, who are now working through delegated committees and who have been involved in the strategic planning aspects of the school. Policies had been re-formulated, implemented and systematically monitored. Finally, the participants in the case study feel that the OFSTED inspection was a catalyst for the school's improving performances. According to the headteacher, without the report, it would have been difficult to launch the vital changes needed to get the school moving. However, the chair of governors argues that there is need for a remodelling of the OFSTED school inspection programme, to make it more collaborative in approach.

Answers to the research questions from the findings

In this the penultimate section to the chapter, the findings from the study are matched to the five research questions previously outlined in chapter one:

Research Question One

To what extent are essential aspects of school management (such as routine administration, curriculum management, having a SLT/SMT in place, implementing staff appraisal and making school development planning a management process) fully developed in the sample of London schools?

The findings (table 5.1) show that schools in the study had good routine administration in general. The schools also had balanced and broad curriculums in place, and their aims were often reflected in those curriculums. Almost all schools had SLTs or SMTs as an integral part of their management structure. However, in a significant numbers (one third) their work was found to be ineffective. Appraisal policies were present in a great majority of schools, but consistently implemented in fewer cases. The same pattern existed for SDPs, where nine out of ten schools had documents in place and less than fifty per cent used them as regular management tools. Thus, in answer to the above question, the position is inconclusive. The findings illustrate that a number of the key aspects of school management (as defined by the question) were found in many instances in the schools studied. Nevertheless, inspectors' judgments were that their implementation was not always effective and hence not fully developed in many schools in the sample. The three case study schools in the research also revealed that all three had serious leadership problems prior to the OFSTED inspection. This reinforces the findings of the documentary analysis element to the research, that a significant number

of SLTs or SMTs were ineffective and this affected the inspection outcome, with respect to leadership and management in those schools.

Research Question Two

Are headteachers, in the context of the OFSTED model, providing effective leadership in the sample of London schools?

Findings from the research related to this question (table 5.2) indicate that in OFSTED's judgment, and in keeping with its perceived model for headship, a very high percentage of headteachers provided strong and effective leadership in the schools they lead. In the 2000 Handbook for Inspecting Secondary Schools inspectors are expected to establish the strategic direction the headteacher has for the school and how firmly the school is led. Thus, headteachers are deemed to occupy a pivotal role in shaping the standards guiding the work of the school. The findings from the documentary research show that 83% of headteachers were judged by OFSTED to have provided strong and effective leadership. In addition, 50% demonstrated leadership that provided a clear sense of direction and vision. From the findings of the questionnaire survey, 59% of headteachers judged their leadership style to be in harmony with the OFSTED expectations for headship. In the examples of the case study schools, all three headteachers were able to pull their failing schools around, by making leadership and management one of the areas for focus and development. The effectiveness of their own leadership appears to have been a defining factor in the schools' changing fortunes.

Research Question Three (a)

From the sample of London schools, is there a link between the effectiveness of headteachers and overall school leadership, as judged by OFSTED in the inspection reports used in the study?

Referring to table 4.2 again, it shows that 83% of headteachers were considered by inspectors to be providing strong and effective leadership. Inspectors in the same sample of inspection reports also concluded that in 58% of schools, overall school leadership was ineffective. This may appear to negate the existence of a link between the effectiveness of headteachers and overall school leadership. However, further examination of the data confirms that of the 17 schools judged to have effective overall leadership, 16 were also ones where the headteachers provided strong and effective leadership. Thus, there appears to be a connection between strong leadership by headteachers and overall leadership and management, from the findings. While this may be saying that effective headship is a factor contributing to effective overall school leadership, it does not necessarily follow that the existence of strong headship will automatically lead to effective overall school leadership and management. Furthermore, table 5.7 of the questionnaire survey indicates that headteachers value their SLTs or SMTs sharing fully in the leadership and management functions of their schools. However, table 5.6 suggests that headteachers' perceived their role to be greatly

177

leadership related and may not be inclined to encourage the spread of leadership downward, to say middle managers. This may account for the fact that, in the research findings, there is a significant number of schools with ineffective overall leadership (sixteen out of twenty-three), but which at the same time were reported by OFSTED to have had effective headteachers. The case studies, on the other hand, demonstrate that the strengthening of the role of middle managers, as part of the overall leadership development strategy embarked on by the headteachers, was crucial to the transformation of the three schools in question from failing schools to improving schools.

Research Question Three (b)

From the sample of London schools, is there a link between effective headship and the effectiveness of the SLT/SMT?

Table 5.1 shows that while 98% of schools had SLTs or SMTs in place approximately two thirds (2/3) of these were effective and one third (1/3) ineffective. In comparison, in table 5.2 83% of headteachers were said to be providing strong and effective leadership. A closer scrutiny of the data also reveals that 23 of the 24 schools with effective SLTs or SMTs were also ones where headteachers were judged to be providing strong and effective leadership. Therefore, the findings provide plausible evidence of a link between successful headship and effective SLTs or SMTs. But it must be noted that recognition of effective headship by OFSTED does not necessarily mean that a school will automatically have an equally effective SLT or SMT, since there were 10 more

schools with apparently successful headteachers, according to OFSTED, but with ineffective SMTs. Adjunct to this, in table 5.7 of the questionnaire survey of headteachers, 55% said that their SLTs or SMTs contributed significantly to the outcome of the OFSTED judgment on the aspects of leadership and management of their schools. Another 27% of headteachers judged the contributions of SLTs or SMTs to be moderate. The case study schools, also, demonstrated that there could be an important link between good headship and the existence of an effective SLT or SMT. For example, in Case Study School One it was stated that: *'The Second Deputy Headteacher linked the effectiveness of the SLT or SMT to the dynamic leadership and management ethos developing in the school.'* In Case Study School Two it was said: *'The school leadership team is fully behind the vision the headteacher has for the school. They are committed to working together in moving the school forward.'* Lastly, in Case Study School Three, we recall this statement: *'The effectiveness of leadership and management was also demonstrated by the methodical way in which school policies and teaching and learning are monitored...This emphasis by the headtecher on meaningful delegation of authority, backed up by accountability, may be the reason for some colleagues describing his style as "the iron fist in a velvet glove".'*

Question Three (c)

From the sample of London schools, is there a link between headteachers' vision and school planning, as exemplified through the formulation of SDPs?

179

In table 5.2 50% of headteachers are reported by OFSTED to be providing leadership with a clear sense of direction and vision and 83% judged to be displaying strong and effective leadership. In table 5.1 90% of schools had SDPs in place, of which only 45% were effective working documents. However, further analysis of the data shows that of the eighteen 18 schools said to have had SDPs as effective working documents, 17 were schools, which also had headteachers who were effective leaders, with vision. Thus, there appears to be a connection between schools with effective planning processes and those with headteachers providing strong visionary leadership. Furthermore, in table 5.5 of the questionnaire survey element to the research, 50% of headteachers described themselves to be using a consultative and participative style of leadership, with another 14% saying that they adopt a delegating/partnership mode. The implication here is that decision making in the schools of these headteachers take into account, to varying degrees, the views and contributions of other school leaders. This is also echoed in table 5.7, where headteachers strongly defined the role of the SLT or SMT to be wide and embracing many school leadership and managing functions.

In the case study schools, all three headteachers had clear visions of where they would like to take their schools and these contributed to the shaping of the schools' SDPs. For example, in Case Study School One, the headteacher's vision was for the school to rediscover that its true purpose was to help each pupil realize his/her potential, given that HMI inspectors has said the school was being 'run by teachers for teacher'. As a result changes to classroom practices and professionalism were place at the heart of the SDP. In Case Study School Two, the headteacher's vision was to transform the school into a

learning community. As a result teaching and learning became the driving forces in the

formulation, implementation and monitoring of the SDP. For Case Study School Three,

the headteacher saw the school as seriously dysfunctional and his vision was that there

would be a paradigm shift in the culture of the school. As a result the SDP placed great

emphasis on the development and implementation of school policies and the building of

vital leadership structures, with accountability.

Question Three (d)

*From the sample of London schools, is there a link between headteachers' acceptance of
the OFSTED findings on leadership and management and the positive nature of the
OFSTED judgments?*

In table 5.4 of the questionnaire survey aspect of the research, 55% of headteachers said

that they accepted the OFSTED judgment on the leadership and management of their

schools. In table 5.5 59% of headteachers also concluded that they see their style of

leadership to be in harmony with the OFSTED findings on leadership. Closer analysis of

the data reveals that 11 out of the 12 headteachers who said they accepted the OFSTED

judgment on leadership and management were also the same ones who feel that their

style of leadership was in keeping with what OFSTED had to say about leadership and

management in their school. Thus, there seems to be a relationship between schools

where the headteachers have accepted the OFSTED judgments on leadership and

management and schools where the headteachers received favourable comments about

their work.

Question Three (e)

From the sample of London schools, is there a link between overall school leadership and academic results?

Table 5.3 shows that 33% of schools in the study had GCSE examination results above the national average and 65% below. However, examination of the data reveals that only four (4) of the 13 schools with results above the national average are linked with schools where overall leadership was judged to be effective. In comparison, 11 of the 13 schools with GCSE results above the national average were related to schools with either very good or good quality teaching. Thus, it may be concluded that high GCSE performance seems to be related good quality teaching and less to the effectiveness of school leadership. Nevertheless, evidence of a linkage between overall leadership and school performance appears in table 5.9. It shows that there were 32% of schools in the questionnaire survey with GCSE results below the national average, but that they were also experiencing improving GCSE results. Furthermore, these schools were judged by OFSTED to be improving. In addition, all three case study schools, with GCSE results below the national average, are now making significant gains with their results, following major reforms of their school leadership structures. This reinforces the apparent link between improving leadership and examination results.

Question Three (f)

From the sample of London schools, is there a link between effective overall leadershi and /management, and the quality of teaching?

In table 5.3 95% of teaching has been judged to be satisfactory, good or very good, with 70% judged to be good and above. In addition to this, in table 5.9 of the questionnaire survey, teaching was one of the areas where headteachers say inspection has contributed to improvements, that is, from 55% of headteachers in the survey. Further study of the research data demonstrates that 15 out of the 17 schools with overall effective leadership were schools that OFSTED judged to be providing satisfactory to very good teaching standards. The findings also show that 20 of the 28 schools with good to very good teaching quality were also linked to schools (a) with effective SLTs or SMTs and (b) where appraisal was consistently implemented and connected to staff development. In the three case study schools, improving teaching has been a central focus for the changes and reforms they had been engaged in. Thus, there tends to be a link between effective overall leadership and the quality of teaching from these findings.

Question Four

To what extent does the OFSTED inspection process influence headteachers leadership and management styles?

In table 5.2 83% of headteachers are considered to be effective in their leadership, but only 25% were said to have adopted a collegial approach to leadership. This is

reinforced by the fact that in table 5.5 of the questionnaire survey, 23% of headteachers defined their leadership style to be strong and task oriented, 23% to be strong and democratic and 50% to be consultative or participatory. In contrast, only 14% and nine per cent (9%), respectively, took the empowerment routes of delegating/partnership and collegiality. Furthermore, 59% of headteachers also described their leadership style to be in line with the OFSTED judgment on leadership and management, with respect to their schools. In table 5.4 there was an equal split of 32% of headteacher for whom inspection had no influence on their leadership, and 32% who said it had some or significant influence on their leadership style. In table 5.7 headteachers appear to be offering their SLTs or SMTs a greater role in leadership and management and this seems to confirm the findings in table 5.5, which shows that headteachers tend toward the more democratic/collegial spectrum of leadership. However, as seen in table 5.6, they (headteachers) also perceive themselves more to be leaders (82% leader and 73% professional leader) and less as managers, chief executives or facilitators. In the case study schools, the headteachers came to their jobs with a clearly defined vision about where they intend to take their school. They were guided by the OFSTED key issues, but not dominated by them, especially with respect to Case Study School Two. Thus, although the findings are indicating that headteachers might be influenced by the OFSTED stress on the 'strong leadership' image for headship, this may be more related to the notion that headteachers should be visionaries, shapers of events, role models for professional standards and strategic thinkers. Thus, there is no conclusive evidence from these findings that headteachers' leadership and management styles are strongly influenced by the OFSTED inspection process.

Question Five

What evidence is there, from the sample of London schools, that inspection is contributing to school improvement?

Table 5.9 indicates that 77% of headteachers in the questionnaire survey indicated that the OFSTED action plan was either completely or substantially implemented in their schools, at the time of the survey. The table also demonstrates that there were only three areas in which inspection was said to have contributed to improvements, namely: teaching quality, 55%; whole school audit/review, 55%; and pupils' attainment, 50%. However, closer study of the data reveals that less than 50% of the schools where the OFSTED action plans were either completely or substantially implemented were they able to produce improvements in the three categories of teaching quality, whole school audit/review or attainment. Furthermore, table 5.9 also shows that there were some important areas in the work of schools that headteachers did not feel that the OFSTED inspection had influenced, such as: school ethos, attendance and punctuality, curriculum planning, curriculum monitoring, behaviour management and pupils' progress. In the case studies all three headteachers described the OFSTED inspection as the 'catalyst' for the changes effected in their schools. However, they acknowledged that the turn around was as a result of the school leadership team's commitment to improvements in learning and in making teacher accountable for their performances.

Conclusion

The overall purpose of the thesis is to investigate the degree to which certain essential features of Educational Leadership and Management (such as: visioning; providing inspiration and a sense of direction; developing management structures, policies, review mechanisms, and planning; monitoring; and evaluation) are intentionally developed in the practice of headship. The study also explores the extent to which the strong headteacher model, advocated by OFSTED, can effectively extend leadership in schools today.

From the findings, drawn from the documentary analysis, the questionnaire survey and the case studies, it can be seen that many of the schools in the research possess potentially competent headteachers, who are generally judged by OFSTED to be providing effective leadership. However, some of the essential features to educational management, linked to the line management roles of school leaders and middle managers, are not shown to be full developed in many of the schools featuring in the research study. Hence, the observation that the research findings demonstrated that although the great majority of headteachers are said, by OFSTED, to be delivering strong leadership, yet overall leadership was found to be ineffective in a substantial numbers of the schools that received glowing commendations from OFSTED for their headteachers.

The findings from the study also suggest that the 'strong headteacher' credential may not necessarily lead to the strengthening and developing of a wider dimension of school

leadership, essential for delivering sustained and long term school improvement. From the evidence found in the research, those headteachers who were able to transform their SLTs or SMTs and middle managers in accountable and effective leaders were the ones able to achieve real school improvement success. The ethnographic and interpretive data from the three case studies also emphasized the conclusion, that is, that the 'strong headteacher, model may not be the most effective way to develop and extend leadership in schools today. The three headteachers were able to bring about changes through a combination of factors, such as: vision; having a sense of purpose and direction; commitment to improving learning; empowerment and team building; accountability; and having in place essential management tools and structures to support school leaders. In the next chapter we turn our attention to the discussion of the findings.

Chapter 6

Discussion of Findings

Introduction

The focus of this piece of educational leadership and management research has been on establishing the degree to which certain essential features of educational leadership and management are developed in the practice of headship. This is particularly relevant to inner city schools, where the drive for greater school effectiveness and improvement is most challenging. The research also examined the scope to which the OFSTED emphasis on the strong headteacher image is capable of building and extending the functions of leadership and management more widely in schools today. These research problems were further clarified and refined into by a number of specific research questions; and ultimately were investigated by a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods, involving documentary analysis, a questionnaire survey and case studies.

This discussion chapter will, therefore, seek to interpret and examine the implications of the findings from the research, already presented in the last chapter. Furthermore, the discussion will involve asking key questions, such as:

- How important are the results of the findings and what they may mean?

- Are they consistent with previous research findings in this area?

- If they are not consistent with research findings, what might be the reason(s)?

- Do they support existing theories in this area?

- What are the implications to be derived from the findings?

- What validity and reliability issues have emerged from the study?

In addition to the above issues, the discussion will also look for any methodological limitations and also consider the implications of the findings for the practice of headship.

The Importance of the Findings and What They Might Mean

Findings under the aspect of developing school management (see table 5.1), firstly, demonstrate that matters of documentation and structures scored high percentages. For example, 68% of schools in the study had documentary evidence of whole school polices, 98% had formal SLTs or SMTs in place, 73% formulated appraisal policies, 90% had completed SDPs, and in 94% routine administration ranged between satisfactory to excellent. In comparison, for categories that were to do with implementation, scores were significantly lower. Thus, in only 65% of cases were school aims reflected in the curriculum, just 60% of SLTs or SMTs were effective, merely 25% of job descriptions were clearly defined, 25% of appraisal policies were consistently implemented and in only 45% of cases were SDPs used as effective working documents. Figure 6.1 below illustrates graphically the areas with higher percentages for

documentation and structures. In contrast, figure 6.2 shows the items dealing with the implementation of school policies, which have lower percentage scores. They are the key to making whole policies work. In addition to this, he also made them accountable for the leadership to be referred on them.

With this in mind, the [illegible] came to observation [illegible] the [illegible] [illegible] be regarded as [illegible] and leadership role [illegible] them. [illegible] to these procedures are [illegible] with clear direction and vision, something that observation [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] as healthy in the case study schools in the study. For instance, 83% of headteachers provided strong and effective leadership, which [illegible] a clear sense of [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] was adopted a collaborative [illegible] leadership. On the other hand, [illegible] of those surveys were said to have effective overall leadership, with 58% ineffective. Hence, it is interesting that

Figure 6.1 Categories relating to documentation and structures/systems

Figure 6.2 Categories relating to how well policies are implemented
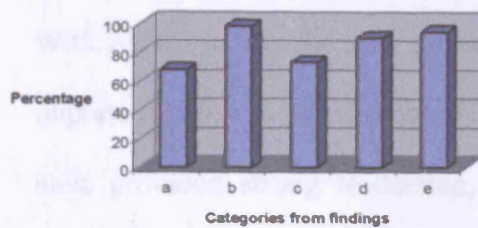
(a) Whole school policies
(b) SLTs or SMTs are in place
(c) Appraisal policies are in place
(d) SDPs are in place
(e) Satisfactory to excellent routine administration
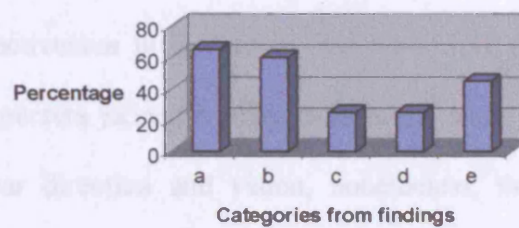
(a) Aims are reflected in the schools' curriculum
(b) SLTs or SMTs are effective
(c) Job descriptions are clear
(d) Appraisal policies are consistently implemented
(e) SDPs are effective

Clearly, the picture emerging from the above observations on these findings is that the schools in the study were better at developing whole school policies and plans, but were not very effective in implementing these same policies and plans. In particular, SDPs appeared not to be used as working documents or key management tools in many of the schools in the survey. However, the findings from the case study schools show that the three schools, which had concerns prior to inspections, but now improving, gave priority and effort to the issue of implementing and monitoring school policies. Furthermore, they made it a point to provide training for SLTs or SMTs and middle managers. As an example, Case Study Two School sought to secure the involvement of every member of staff in formulating and implementing its policies. As a result of this, it now believes that it is developing a spirit of collaboration in the school. Another example is Case

Study Three School, where the headteacher considers himself to be *'the director of operations'*, with the task of empowering middle managers, as he feels they are the key to making school policies work. In addition to this, he also made them accountable for the responsibility he conferred on them.

With regard to the findings relating to effectiveness in leadership (see table 5.2), the important result is that whilst OFSTED inspectors judged headteachers in the study to have provided strong leadership, with clear direction and vision, nonetheless, they (inspectors) also reported that overall leadership was ineffective in the majority of the schools in the study. For instance, 83% of headteachers provided strong and effective leadership, 50% displayed a clear sense of direction and vision and 25% adopted a collegial approach to leadership. On the other hand, only 42% of these schools were said to have effective overall leadership, with 58% ineffective. Hence, it is interesting that there seems to be a divergence between strong leadership by headteachers and overall school leadership, as highlighted by the findings. This is contrary to what one would expect as an outcome from effective leadership by headteachers. Below this is illustrated diagrammatically in figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3 Effectiveness in Leadership
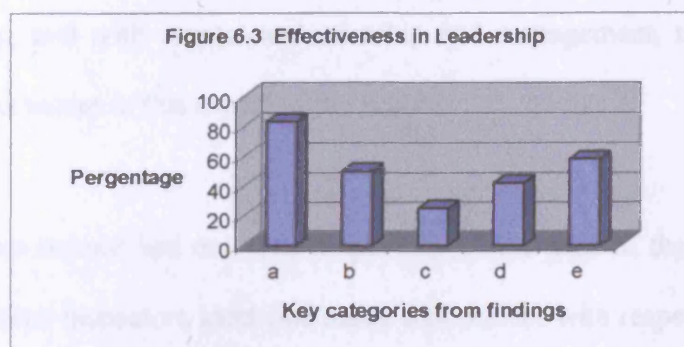
(a) Headteachers provide strong and effective leadership

191

(b) Headteachers demonstrate a clear sense of direction and have vision
(c) Headteachers adopt a collegial approach
(d) Schools with effective overall leadership
(e) Schools with ineffective leadership

This may be interpreted to mean that headteachers are less proactive in building and expanding leadership amongst colleagues, such as senior and middle managers. Additionally, members of SLTs or SMTs and middle managers may require more effective induction arrangements and training for their role in leadership and management. However, the findings from the case studies highlight the positive impact on overall school leadership, when visionary leadership is matched with a strategy for empowering colleagues to share in leading and managing the process of change.

In Case Study One, the combination of strong visionary headship and the distribution or spreading around of leadership to other colleagues is now an important aspect of the school's leadership and management approach. The headteacher believes in delegating responsibilities to staff, while providing matching support for them. She accepts the description from colleagues of being *'the iron fist in a velvet glove'*. The school's first inspection placed it under 'special measures', with leadership and management judged as issues of concerns. However, the second inspection concluded that the school was now improving, and with respect to leadership and management, inspectors found no significant weaknesses in this aspect of the school.

Case Study Two School had only one inspection (at the time of the interviews for this research), in which inspectors identified many weaknesses with respect to leadership and management. The new headteacher, who took up her responsibilities two terms

following the inspection, decided to pursue her goal of creating a high performing leadership team, built on collaboration, openness, transparency and a vision for excellence. Emphasis is placed on creating a learning community in which she describes herself as 'the lead learner', modeling the professional standards and values she is expecting from her staff. The first deputy headteacher confirmed the shift in leadership and management when he said that the SLT or SMT now operates under a structured leadership and management system, with everyone being given clear responsibilities to fulfill.

For Case Study Three School, the new headteacher has developed an effective SLT or SMT around him. These school leaders are given meaningful managerial responsibilities, back up by delegated decision-making authority, but they are equally expected to deliver on performance. There is also a clear line of accountability between the SLT or SMT and middle managers. The SLT or SMT have designated areas to lead and manage, such as finance, building, personnel, pastoral care and curriculum. Middle managers functioning in these areas are required to report to their appropriate line manager in the SLT or SMT. This strategy reinforces the headteacher's self defined role as 'the director of operations', which is behind his philosophy of empowering all groups of leaders and managers within the school.

Findings associated with the role of headship and leadership styles are addressed under table 5.6 and table 5.5. In the questionnaire survey headteachers were asked to define the role of headship by responding to five suggested labels (see table 5.6), namely:

Leader; Professional Leader; Manager; Chief Executive; and Facilitator. From these it can be seen that the first two categories focused on leadership, while the last three are linked more closely to management. The weight of the findings in this area shows that headteachers consider themselves more to be leaders and less as managers in their perception of the role of headship. Furthermore, when they had to describe their leadership style (using characteristics such as: task oriented; strong and democratic; consultative and participative; delegating/partnership; and collegial) the vast majority opted for those features that are inclined toward team leadership, which are: consultative and participative; delegating/partnership; and collegial. Nevertheless, some recognized the need to move between styles, depending on the situation or the phase of leadership development existing in the school. These points are further illustrated in figure 6.4 and figure 6.5 below.

Figure 6.4 - Headteachers' Perception on the Role of Headship
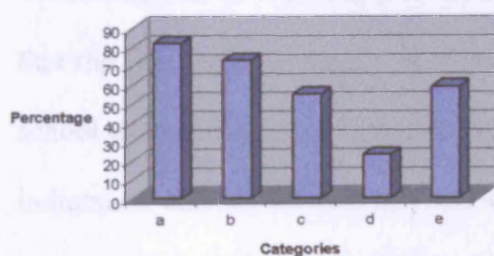
Figure 6.5 - Headteachers' Description of their Leadership Styles
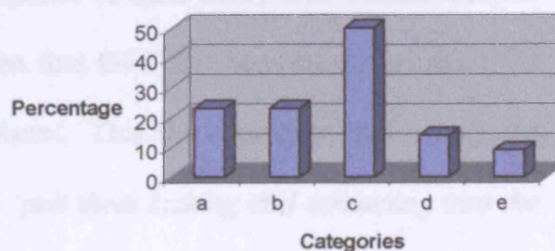
(a) Leader	(a) Strong and task oriented
(b) Professional Leader	(b) Strong and democratic
(c) Manager	(c) Consultative and participative
(d) Chief Executive	(d) Delegating/partnership
(e) Facilitator	(e) Collegial

194

Evidences from the case studies of these findings, connected to headship and leadership styles, support the observations: (a) that headteachers see themselves essentially as leaders and to a lesser extent as managers; and (b) that headteachers will modify their leadership style to meet the immediate situation they are operating in. Therefore, as a corollary to the findings in figure 6.4 above, all three headteachers displayed clarity of purpose and vision. They knew where they wanted to take their schools. Hence they made leadership the central focus of their role of headship. In particular, the headteacher of Case Study Two School said quite clearly that her main role, and that of the rest of the leadership team, was leadership and not management. Thus, they subscribed to the concept found in the table 6.4 above, which is that headteachers see themselves as primarily leaders and less as managers. Nevertheless, all three headteachers were also engaged in building and strengthening the role of middle managers in their schools.

With reference to leadership style, the headteacher of Case Study One School recalled that the registered inspector, at the time of the first OFSTED inspection, described the school as *'a school run by teachers for teachers'*. This she considered to be a serious indictment and resolved in her own words to *'pull them kicking and screaming into the 21st century'*. Many members of staff had gone into denial, not wanting to recognize the seriousness of the situation. There was an initial reluctance to consider change. Therefore, in implementing the action plan and changes to teaching, great effort was made in raising the professionalism of teachers, by setting out explicit standards and expectations for teachers to follow. Thus, the headteacher heavily directed the process

of change in an effort to provide urgency and coherence in the school's response to the inspection report. In contrast, post the second inspection, the leadership style adopted by the headteacher and colleagues was relatively more relaxed and opened. The headteacher now sees the leadership structure as less hierarchical, and conversely flatter and horizontal in shape. Hence, this is expected to engender greater ownership and co-operation from staff.

Similarly, for Case Study Three School, the headteacher followed a comparable approach. He described the situation he faced, at the onset of his tenure at the school, as 'dysfunctional'. The school appeared to have been in a state of complacency, and to break out of this situation, the headteacher implemented new procedures for planning, standards for teaching and measures for upgrading professional development for staff. Furthermore, it was made clear to those staff members who were resisting the need for radical change, that if they continue to be unwilling to co-operate with the work of reform, they ought to reconsider their future at the school. In the end many did re-examine their position and resigned from their posts at the end of the headteacher's first term at the school. Notwithstanding that, at the close of the first year following the inspection, the school received a vote of confidence from the HMI monitoring team. The headteacher had made accountability the binding cord, linking leadership with various functional areas in the school. Behind this apparent task driven approach by the headteacher lay a commitment to the empowerment of staff. This was made more concrete by the delegation of power and authority to colleagues, advancing the spreading of leadership functions to more people in the institution.

Whereas, Case Study One School and Case Study Three School, demonstrate that headteachers will vary their leadership style to meet the situation, the position of Case Study Two School was entirely different. Unlike the other two schools, where many members of staff – especially those in leadership and management functions – retreated into a state of denial, the staff in Case Study Two School accepted the results of the OFSTED inspection findings as fair and just. In fact, there were some who thought the school had gotten off lightly with the inspection. Thus, the headteacher, in contrast to the other two, did not have to employ a heavily directive or task driven style of leadership. Instead, she endeavored to put in place a leadership team built on the principle of collegiality. Whilst there were no resistance or opposition to the new style of leadership, some members of the leadership team experienced a degree of disorientation initially, as they were accustomed to being told what to do, rather than having to make decisions themselves. However, they gradually adapted to the change.

Findings on the extent to which headteachers had accepted the OFSTED judgment on leadership and management are found in table 5.4. The important aspect about these findings is that a majority (that, is 55%) of headteachers in the study had accepted inspectors' judgments on leadership and management about their schools. Furthermore, 11 out of the 12 respondents who accepted the judgments also felt that their leadership and management styles were in harmony with what OFSTED had to say about leadership and management in the various inspection reports. However, it could be argued that this is to be expected, since, as we have seen in the findings, 83% of

headteachers were considered to be providing strong and effective leadership (see table 5.2). This observation, that headteachers had accepted the OFSTED verdict on leadership and management, appears to have been contradicted by another of the findings in this area, which found, coincidentally, that 55% of headteachers reported that the OFSTED judgment had little or no impact on their leadership style. These points are also further illustrated by figure 6.6 below.

Figure 6.6 - Findings on the extent to which headteachers have accepted the OFSTED judgment on Leadership and Management
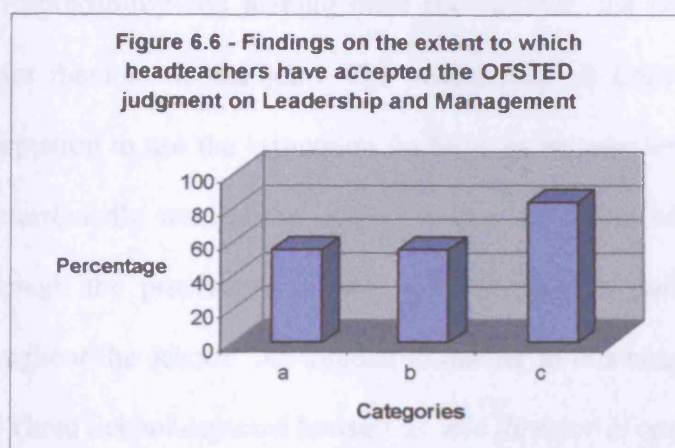
(a) Headteachers who accepted the inspection judgment on leadership and management
(b) Headteachers who reported that the OFSTED judgment had little or no effect on their leadership and management styles
(c) Headteachers who provided strong and effective leadership

This result may suggest that the OFSTED inspection process functions well in describing and explaining the effectiveness of leadership and management with reference to the work of schools. Nevertheless, its limitation is that it contributes very little to shaping and guiding headteachers in developing their own personal approach or style to educational leadership and management. Thus, it could be concluded that the OFSTED inspection influences headteachers knowledge and understanding, with respect

the duties and expectations of headship, but has little impact on their style of leadership and management. This appears to be the situation with the case studies. All three headteachers' approach to their work of headship was motivated more by their own philosophy than by the comments and judgments made by the respective inspection teams. For example, in Case Study One School, the headteacher was driven more by her insatiable vision, love for learning, commitment to the development of her pupils and in wanting people to succeed. She also believed in a stick and carrot approach, that is giving people responsibility and making them accountable, but providing support and the resources for them to do the job. The headteacher in Case Study Two School resisted the temptation to use the inspection findings as an easy lever to force changes. Instead, she determinedly went about implementing her dream of creating a learning community through the process of a long-term strategy of building collegiality in leadership throughout the school. As alluded to earlier in this chapter, the headteacher for Case Study Three School depicted himself as *'the director of operations'*. Implied in this imagery is the concept that the headteacher would be the chief controller of a team of operational managers. Thus, the headteacher's style, headship strategy, work and relationship with staff were guided by this personal ideology to school leadership and management.

Findings on the effectiveness of SLTs or SMTs (see table 5.1) and their role (see table 5.7) demonstrate that the vast majority of schools had SLTs or SMTs in place (that is, 98%), of which 60% were judged by OFSTED to be effective. In addition, the findings also confirm headteachers' inclination to accept the principle of distributed leadership

among colleagues. SLTs or SMTs are expected to support headteachers in, for example, modeling standards, establishing school ethos, leading out in school reviews, formulating and implementing SDPs, reviewing and monitoring school policies, monitoring curriculum planning and evaluating the quality of teaching. These expectations, identified by headteachers in the questionnaire survey, were not meant as lip service to the principle of empowerment and distributed leadership. On the contrary, headteachers were willing to credit SLTs or SMTs with aiding their schools' successful OFSTED inspection outcomes. In fact 55% said SLTs or SMTs contributed significantly to the inspection results and 27% moderately. Figure 6.7 and figure 6.8 below illustrate these observations from the findings.

Figure 6.7 - The Effectiveness of SLTs/SMTs

Figure 6.8 - SLTs'/SMTs' Contribution to Inspection Outcomes
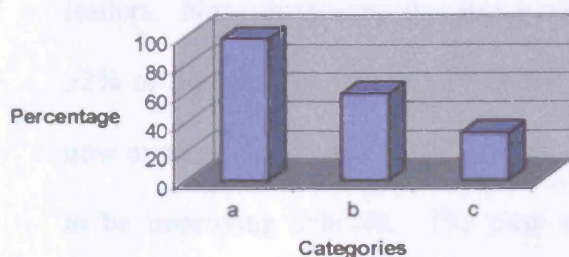
(a) Schools with SLTs or SMTs
(b) Schools where SLTs or SMTs were judged to be effective
(c) Schools were SLTs or SMTs were judged to be ineffective
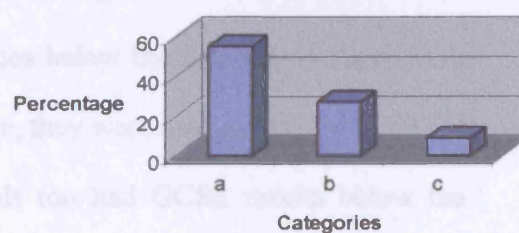
(a) Significant contribution
(b) Moderate contribution
(c) Slight contribution

The meaning of these reflections to the findings in this area is that effective SLTs or SMTs may be, to a great extent, the by-product of good leadership by headteachers, given the fact that 23 of the 24 schools with effective SLTs or SMTs were ones where

200

headteachers are said to be providing effective leadership. This is further reinforced by the experience of the case study schools, were, as we have seen, the headteachers are clearly very committed, in practice, to empowering colleagues to develop and maximize their leadership and management potentials.

Another important element to the findings is that only one third of the London schools in the research population, that is 13 schools, had GCSE examination results (5 A*-C passes) above the national level. Of these, just four were linked with schools judged to have had effective overall school leadership. However, 11 of these 13 schools, with above average performance, were also reported by OFSTED to have had good to excellent teaching standards. Therefore, it appears that successful GCSE examination results were more related to quality teaching than to the overall effectiveness of school leaders. Notwithstanding the above comments, the findings in this area also show that 32% of the schools, which had GCSE performances below the national average, were now experiencing rising GCSE results. Furthermore, they were also judged by OFSTED to be improving schools. The case study schools too had GCSE results below the national average, but are now making significant improvements with their results. As such, these reinforce the apparent connection between effective school leadership and improving examination results. Thus, these findings indicate that, while schools with successful external examination results might be the outcome of a combination of good to excellent teaching and contextual factors, the work of changing low performing school results seems to be closely linked to effective leadership.

Finally, the findings (see Figure 6.9 below) show that 77% of the headteachers in the research study indicated that they had either completely or substantially implemented the action plan they had submitted to OFSTED.

Figure 6.9 - Implementation of Action Plan
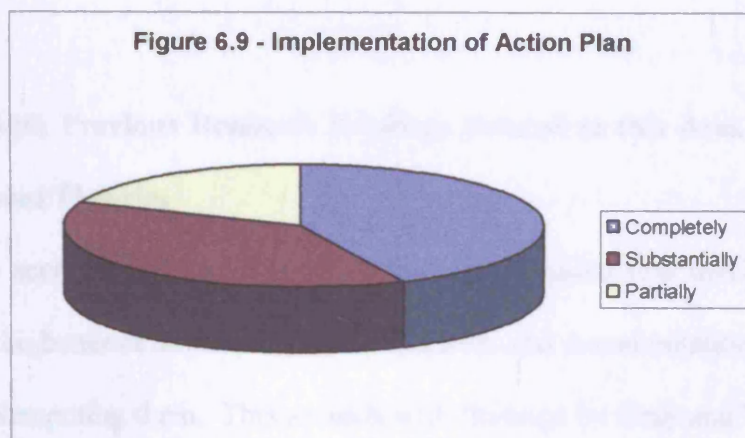
(a) 41% completely implemented
(b) 36% substantially implemented
(c) 18% partially implemented

Furthermore, while they were ambivalent about the specific degree to which inspection had contributed to improvements in theirs schools, nevertheless, they were of the opinion that it had served as a significant catalyst for effecting changes in their schools. This has been the consensus of the case study schools. The headteacher for Case Study One School remarked that what the inspection did best was to concentrate the minds of teachers on the need for change. Her second deputy headteacher also concluded that the inspection presented the school with a challenge, but argued that it was the initiatives of school leaders and the effort of middle managers that delivered the improvements. Case Study Two School felt that the impact of the inspection was most profound on changing the culture and leadership style of the school, making it less authoritarian and more

democratic and transparent. Lastly, all three participants, with respect to Case Study Three School, were of the opinion that the first inspection was a major influence in the changes that took place at the school. They accepted that it would have been difficult to initiate the reforms needed to improve the school without the external pressure provided by the OFSTED report.

Comparisons with Previous Research Findings Related to this Area of Study and Links to Pertinent Theories

In the previous section the first significant finding discussed was that schools in the study appear to be better at developing school policies and documentation, but were less effective in implementing them. This accords with findings by Gray and Wilcox (1996). In their study, issues related to curriculum documentation, school development plans and organizational procedures in secondary schools were not the areas that OFSTED inspectors made strong recommendations on, in the reports of schools represented in their survey. However, they concluded that in many of the schools, curriculum documents and school policies, although having been revised and updated, had very little impact on teaching and learning. In addition, The Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of School (OFSTED, 2002) echoes this concern. It also stated that there were a quarter of schools whose procedures for applying policies consistently and evaluating performance were still unsatisfactory.

From the literature review on educational leadership, Sergiovanni's (1987) theory of *'Leadership Forces'* seems applicable to this area of the findings. He suggested that

there are five forces influencing educational leadership, namely: *Technical – derived from sound management techniques; Human – obtained from harnessing available social and interpersonal resources; Educational – gleaned from expert knowledge about matters of education and schooling; Symbolic – received from focusing the attention of others on matters of importance to the school; Cultural – gained from building a unique school culture. '* Thus, since the research demonstrates that many of the London schools in the survey were deficient in implementing and monitoring school policies, this would fall under the 'Technical Force' domain of the theory above. It suggests that school leaders in these schools had not developed sound management techniques to be effective in their work.

The Process Paradigm of Gaziel's (1996) model, designed for measuring school effectiveness, may also be applied to this finding from the study. It proposes that schools can be judged to be effective when their internal management structure is smooth and efficient in performing management tasks such as putting policies into actions, and in monitoring and reviewing them. Hence, we may infer that the schools in the findings were unable to comply with this condition in Gaziel's model of school effectiveness. Lastly, these schools were also failing on Hopkins and Harris' (1997) model for influencing school effectiveness, in that they were not promoting the practice of monitoring and evaluating the quality of education being provided.

The second significant finding from this study is that while headteachers have been judged by OFSTED to have personally provided strong visionary leadership in the

majority of cases (83% of schools), correspondingly they also found that overall leadership was ineffective in the majority of schools in the study, that is, 58%. Therefore, it may be interpreted that headteachers are less proactive in promoting and building distributed leadership in their schools. Studies that have a bearing on this finding are: Earley et al, 2002; Glover et al, 1996; Levacic et al, 1999; and HMI, 2002.

Earley et al (2002) found that the headteachers in their survey often think of their role as primarily leading with vision and setting high standards for colleagues. Thus, the OFSTED judgment, in this research, on headteachers concurs with the perception of school leaders in Earley et al's (2002) study that headteachers are expected to provide strong visionary leadership. Glover et al (1996) in their study on the leadership and management style of four secondary schools, found that only two of the four headteachers adopted the OFSTED model for leadership, that is, visionary leadership and a rational planning system. Nevertheless, the other two headteachers, using a more flexible leadership style, were still judged by OFSTED to have been effective educationally with their schools. This suggests that the OFSTED strong visionary leadership approach will not lead automatically to effective school leadership, nor will its omission result in poor school performance either.

Another study relevant to the second significant finding of this study is Levacic et al (1999). From their case studies they have shown that increasingly headteachers are following the OFSTED rational model, by establishing aims and goals for their schools. Lastly, a recent HMI (2002) report stated that 77% of secondary schools were judged to

have had good or better overall leadership and management. This contrasts with the figure of 42% for London schools found in this study, which is to be expected, given that it is in city schools that school leaders and managers face their most difficult challenges (Brighouse, 1998).

The key point to this finding, which is that the London schools in the study are endeavouring to implement the OFSTED model of strong visionary leadership, must also be examined with reference to current theories in leadership and educational management. Whereas, in the literature there is some agreement that the concept of leadership can be elusive (Fidler, 1997), Bolman and Deal (1991) have indicated that vision has emerged as the only characteristics of effective leadership that is universal. Hence, one can see the reason why this feature of leadership (vision) has become an important part of the OFSTED model for leadership in its inspection and school improvement role. There are also a number of other writers who subscribe to this notion that visionary leadership is vital to school development. Fidler (1997) says that visionary leadership creates possibilities and will articulate the direction of the organization. Beare's (1997) view is that school leadership will only be effective when vision is institutionalized in the organization. Davies (1996) argues that school leaders need to understand educational trends and should use these to formulate a vision for the future. Thus, in this way they become 'instigators of radical thinking'. Bennis and Nanus (1985), on the other hand consider the move to develop visionary leadership over the past decades as the paradigm shift that was required in educational leadership.

Nevertheless, there is a group of educational leadership writers who have been looking beyond visionary leadership and toward the concept of transformational leadership as the way to create successful schools. Foremost among them is Thomas Sergiovanni (1983, 1987, 1990). He has made cultural leadership the theme of his work. This means that school leadership recognizes: (a) the value of the human spirit; and (b) promotes professionalism. He links leadership and excellence together and considers intrinsic motivation to be more influential than the extrinsic factors of transactional leadership. Thus, he suggests that transformational leadership is the ideal form of leadership required for producing excellent schools. He contends that this focus on building leadership through motivating the individual is also about advancing professionalism. Paradoxically, the outcome of this is that growth in professionalism means that there will be less need for leadership. Hallinger and Heck (1991) also feel that leadership should not centre so much on vision. They proposed that vision, goal framing and mission building represent only an initial phase of leadership influence. These should extend the involvement of all the stakeholders in education in the decision-making process, in order to produce high performing schools.

The third important finding from this study indicates that headteachers see themselves essentially as leaders and secondly as managers. In addition, although headteachers favour a consultative and participative style of leadership, nevertheless they will change their leadership style to meet the situation they are operating in. From the literature review in chapter 2, four studies appear applicable to this finding of the study. Firstly, a number of school improvement studies (Edmonds, 1979a; Mortimore et al, 1979;

Corcoran and Wilson, 1989; Mortimore, 1993; and Sammon et al, 1995) have consistently confirmed that strong, purposeful leadership is a crucial element of good schools. Secondly, Hodgkinson (1983) found that principals, college presidents and deans tend to perceive themselves as administrators (used synonymously with the term leadership), rather than as managers. Thirdly, Earley et al (2002) established that headteachers, deputy headteachers and NPQH candidates make a clear distinction between leadership and management. However, these practitioners also see their main task to be that of providing visionary leadership and in setting high standards for colleagues. They believe that headteachers should pay attention to issues such as strategic planning and in determining the organization's route and direction.

Fourthly, Bush (1998), in appraising the TTA's initiatives on headship training, which includes programmes such as HEADLAMP, NPQH and LPSH, came to the conclusion that in formulating the standards for headship, the TTA had given more emphasis to the leadership role of headship, to the neglect of the other important issue of management. Thus, these four studies provide backing to the finding of this thesis that headteachers view themselves as mainly responsible for providing leadership and direction, and with less obligations to the managerial functions of headship. The only research finding from the literature review that could be linked to the finding that headteachers will modify their style of leadership to accommodate the situation existing, is the general leadership study by Fiedler (1967), from which he developed the 'Contingency Model Theory'. From his study he sought to demonstrate that leadership behaviour is a function of the knowledge, skills and techniques that are appropriate for exercising leadership influence

in the situation. Some of these situational factors are: relationships; the work structure; and the positions of power in the organizations.

Leadership theories from the literature review that this third finding provides endorsement to are in two groups. The first group, which elucidates on the dimension of the finding that says that headteachers see themselves primarily as leaders and less as managers, consists of the following: Hodgkinson, 1983 and 1991; Hughes 1973; Bennis and Goldsmith, 1994; Fidler 1997; and Bolam, 1999. Hodgkinson (1983, 1991) proposes that the role of the principal can be divided into two aspects, namely: administration, which is the more strategic and thinking function; and management, which relates more to doing. Hughes (1973), on the other hand, differentiates between the headteacher's role as administrator and professional leader. As the professional leader, the headteacher motivates and formulates the mission of the organization, while as administrator, the headteacher supervises the implementation of the school's plans. Bennis and Goldsmith (1994) identify a clear separation of role between leadership and management. Leadership deals with innovations, they argue, while management involves administration and the maintenance of the system. Fidler (1997) too promotes the dual role concept of headship. He suggests that there is a leadership function, in a political sense, and a chief executive role that is of a managerial nature. Finally, Bolam (1999) see administration as the superordinate category under which education leadership (focusing on transformation) and educational management (dealing with executive functions) reside. Thus, ignoring the fact that many of these terms are used interchangeably, it is, nonetheless, clear that these writers consistently present headship

or principal-ship as having two distinct, but equally important functions. In this thesis they are described as leadership and management. The finding also suggests that headteachers give more weight to the leadership dimension, in keeping with the OFSTED model. However, the consensus from the writers above is that the two functions of headship or principal-ship are inextricably linked together.

The second group of leadership theories which may explain the conclusion that headteachers are predisposed to adopting a consultative and participative style of leadership, albeit the fact that they may pragmatically vary this to reflect the situation, are as follows: Blake and Mouton, 1978; Likert, 1967; Maxcy, 1991; Hersey and Blanchard, 1982; and Fielder, 1967. Allied to this finding also, are earlier observations from the study, which found that headteachers are providing effective leadership, in keeping with the OFSTED model. In addition, headteachers also viewed themselves as essentially leaders and secondly as managers. Thus, Blake and Mouton's (1978) Managerial Grid theory, suggesting two broad types of leadership behaviours, appears relevant. These are: concerns for people; and concerns for production, of which they view the ideal to be a combination of both types of behaviours. Headteachers are, from the study, attempting to strive for this optimum, that is, to be goal focused and people centred, as suggested by Blake and Mouton (1978).

Likert (1967) using his four basic styles of leadership model (that is, exploitive-authoritative; benevolent-authoritative; consultative; and democratic-participative) suggest that the democratic-participative style of leadership is the most effective. Hence,

it can be argued that headteachers' behaviours in this study are in keeping with this theory. This concept of leadership becoming a process, involving more people, is also shared by Maxcy (1991), who says that leadership should be spread around and for excellence to be its by-product. Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) model of four phases in leadership styles, consisting of: telling; selling; participating; and delegating provide a structured set of conceptual tools for headteachers to use when it is necessary to vary their styles to fit the occasion. Thus, in a situation that is chaotic and in discord, the leader would need to adopt a 'telling style' in order to bring the situation under control.

The fourth major finding from this study demonstrates that the majority of headteachers in the questionnaire survey had accepted the inspection judgment on leadership and management, as it relates to their particular school. However, all of these headteachers also reported that the inspection judgments had little effect on their leadership and management style. From other research findings in the literature review, connected to this result, three are in general agreement and one differs. OFSTED's own research, conducted by Keele University and Touche Ross (1995) found that 90% of headteachers were in agreement that inspectors' judgments were fair and accurate. Earley (1996) reported that 75% of respondents in their survey accepted that inspections had contributed positively to their school improvement work. And, a recent HMI (2002) report also concluded that 77% of secondary schools were experiencing improvements as a result of inspection. On the other hand, a NUT study (NUT, 1998) contradicts these views. They found that headteachers were equally divided, with 44% believing that the inspection judgments were fair and accurate, while 44% felt the opposite. In addition,

the NUT (1998) survey also shows that 66% of headteachers and deputy headteachers did not think that inspection had helped them with their school improvement effort. This can be interpreted to mean that it accords with the second part of this finding, which says that headteachers did not think that inspection had any influence on their leadership and management styles.

From the literature review there are only two theoretical positions that the finding in this area appears to have endorsed. Nixon (1992) proposed that inspection could make an impact on schools by alerting them and others to the schools' potential. Furthermore, inspection acts as a vehicle for challenging schools to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching methods, and for stabilizing or affirming those developments that were in place before inspections. Part of the finding in this area concluded that inspection functions well, by explaining what was actually happening in schools, and harmonizes with Nixon (1992). Caldwell and Spinks (1992) and Coleman (1992) both argued that inspection also provides accountability, ensuring that schools are implementing government reforms. Once again, this finding affirms the view that inspection contributes to helping schools to become accountable.

The fifth prominent finding is that 98% of London schools in this research study had formal SLTs or SMTs in place and 60% were judged to be effective by OFSTED inspectors. Furthermore, the finding also shows that headteachers accord recognition to SLTs or SMTs for the contributions they make to their schools' successful inspection results. They also see SLTs or SMTs as important partners in leadership. Thus, this

reinforces headteachers' commitment to the principle and practice of distributed leadership and the conclusion that distributed leadership is the by-product of good leadership by headteachers. However, there were no research studies discussed in the literature review that could be shown to be consistent with this finding. Interestingly though, Spaulding (1997), in a survey on teachers' perspective on school leadership, found that most school leaders give support to the concept of partnership in leadership, such as we have seen with this the fifth finding of the study. Nevertheless, teachers are still of the view that principals and headteachers continue to display an autocratic attitude in their behaviour to their colleagues.

However, despite no recognizable research studies from the literature review endorsing the finding in this area, there are some theories that the finding appears to confirm. For example, Bolman and Deal (1991) included the concept of the leader being a catalyst for building and empowering leadership among their four frames of leadership characteristics. This seems to be something that a significant number of headteachers were involved in developing in the 60% of schools with effective SLTs or SMTs. Maxcy's (1991) concept of spreading around leadership also appears to have been confirmed. Davies (1996) talked about the idea of headteachers developing an empowerment culture and this study also provides a degree of evidence in support of this view. Additionally, the finding also supports one of the three important professional leadership principles of the school effectiveness movement, which is the sharing of leadership roles and positions by the headteachers with management colleagues.

The sixth most important finding from this study demonstrates that successful examination results for these London schools appear to be linked more to quality of teaching than to the overall effectiveness of leadership. However, decisive leadership seems to be the defining factor for those schools with improving results. Observations from Mortimore (1993) confirm this connection between a school's academic performance and the quality of its teaching. He suggested that the role of any school in achieving school effectiveness is to be able to create success in the teaching and learning processes. Rutter et al (1979) cited high quality teaching and learning as an important factor contributing to school effectiveness. Keele and Touche Ross (1995), in a research project conducted for OFSTED, found that 61% of the schools in their survey made progress in improving teaching and reducing underachievement. Bush (1998) also strongly argued that international research, on school effectiveness and school improvement, showed that the quality of leadership and management is a significant factor contributing to the transformation of under-performing schools into improving ones.

With reference to theories supported by this finding, Mortimore's (1993) proposition that competent teaching and learning are at the heart of school effectiveness appears relevant. The finding also affirms an established school effectiveness principle that a focus on teaching and learning contributes to academic standards and rising pupil attainment Reynolds et al (1996). However, Fidler et al (1998) comments that the practice of judging school performance against national norms can be misleading. The reason for this being that earlier inspections took place when value added and

214

benchmark techniques were under-developed and hence did not take as much account of pupils' ability at entry.

The seventh significant finding emerging from this study is that the majority of headteachers reported that they had either completely or substantially implemented the action plan developed in response to school inspections. In addition, they also expressed the view that inspection has been an important catalyst for generating school improvement. From the literature review there are a number of research studies germane to this finding. Keele and Touche Ross (1995) in their survey, on behalf of OFSTED, found that 96% of schools had made reasonable attempts to address their post OFSTED action plans. Fidler (1995) reported that 55% of schools in their study were able to integrate action plans into their SDPs. Gray and Wilcox (1996) declared that, from their work, 52% of schools had either fully or substantially implemented the recommendations made by inspectors. Gray and Wilcox (1995) also concluded that inspection would lead to school improvement when inspection reports are accepted and the findings translated into strategies for action. This appears to be the case in this study, in that, as this finding demonstrates, many schools have been engaged in carrying out their action plans. Thus, it should be noted that inspections and their related reports and findings are not offered as blueprints for school improvement. They provide the evidence and information for schools to use in formulating their strategies for improvement.

Thus, the finding in this area and the above conclusion reinforce the need for schools to be proactive in gathering information and facts to be applied to school improvement initiatives. Alternative approaches to inspection, for the purpose of providing schools with reliable audit data, are for example the IQEA and MSIP approaches, discussed in the literature review by Harris and Young (2000). The IQEA project focuses on linking research knowledge to practice, emphasizes teacher development and promotes collaborative investigation by schools themselves. The MSIP method is centred on improving the learning experiences in schools, by building capacities for schools to become transforming organizations. The proposition, that schools should be engaged in capacity building, is also echoed by Hopkins and Levin (2000). This also seems to have been the general approaches of the three schools in the case studies. They focused on establishing vital leadership capacity, as a crucial factor to the process of turning around their schools, from failing ones to successful entities. Therefore, this endorses the observation that schools need not be totally dependent on inspection to spur them into improvement. They can, themselves, using some of the approaches discussed above, generate the information and data necessary to develop genuine school improvement strategies.

Implications from the Findings

Implications for school leadership and management can be drawn from the consequences of the findings emerging from this study and which were discussed above. This section of the chapter now examines some of the significant observations that can be inferred for these findings.

Firstly, the finding which established the fact that the London schools in the research were better at formulating policies and developing documents, but ineffective at implementing them in the operation of schools, means that this aspect of school management is not fully cultivated in these schools. It suggests that policies and procedures lack clear and effective implementation strategies and co-ordination. Furthermore, it calls into question the system of accountability existing in these schools, with the assumption that governors and headteachers are failing to ensure (a) that policies become actual working documents and (b) that there are proper line management structures existing in their schools to guarantee that policies and procedures are fulfilled.

In addition, this will also impact on the present performance management system now introduced in schools. It should definitely be an area where headteachers ought to be agreeing targets with school leaders and middle managers to bring about changes in the way policies are applied in the operation of schools. It can also be concluded that this deficiency could ultimately adversely affect pupils' attainment in schools where the implementation of policies is weak. Finally, it raises questions as to whether OFSTED and other outside agencies such as the LEAs have failed to influence schools in developing more reliable implementation strategies for school policies.

Secondly, the findings showed that while headteachers' behaviour displayed strong leadership and visionary spirit, nonetheless in many cases overall leadership was

ineffective. This, as was discussed earlier, would lead one to believe that headteachers were less proactive in building and extending leadership amongst colleagues. The repercussions from this observation are: that governing body should in future give more attention to the need for appointing headteachers who will give priority to the development of team leadership; and that headteachers themselves should endeavour to actively make team building and the empowerment of colleagues (with leadership and middle management responsibilities) a leading item on their school leadership and management agenda. It can be further deduced from this finding that distributed leadership is under-developed in a number of schools in this research. Furthermore, it can be implied too that bodies such as the DfES, OFSTED, the TTA and its headship training programmes, like the NPQH, HEADLAMP and LPSH have influenced the current state of thinking that strong visionary leadership is the prime characteristic of effective headship. Thus, conversely, these bodies will need to assist in a reshaping process that puts transformational leadership at the forefront of the on-going discourse on educational leadership.

Thirdly, the findings confirmed that headteacher perceived themselves to be essentially leaders and less as managers. In addition, they were inclined toward the more consultative and participative style of leadership, but able to adjust and vary their methods to meet the demands of the situation. The effect of this is that important management requirements of headship are being down grade, with damaging consequences for the overall effectiveness of leadership and management for the schools in the study. Therefore, many headteachers need to rethink the nature of their headship

duties and accept the vitally important responsibility of ensuring that effective management principles and structures are complementary to their visionary and strategic roles. Once again, similar to the discussion above, bodies such as the DfES, OFSTED, the TTA and the NCSL will need to give a positive lead in establishing higher expectations for headteachers to give equal emphasis to the managerial aspects of headship.

Whereas, as the findings have indicated, headteachers are also predisposed to follow a consultative and participative mode of leadership and will vary this to fit the circumstances, the implication for building and practicing democracy in education means that there has to be genuine commitment to this fundamental principle. Hence, the case for headteachers to be pragmatic and flexible in deploying more direct methods in leadership, whenever it is needed. This, however, should not become a convenient way of deflecting from the ideal route to long-term effectiveness in school leadership, which is to develop intrinsic motivation in colleagues.

Fourthly, the findings substantiated the fact that the OFSTED inspection process is successful in describing the performance of schools and in providing information on areas of strengths and weaknesses, with respect to leadership and management. However, the process is inadequate in guiding headteachers in securing changes and improvements. Furthermore, it cannot assist them in shaping their leadership style and in developing management techniques. This situation is analogous to say a car mechanic giving you a detailed list of all the faults found on you car and assuming that

because you are a qualified driver you would possess all the necessary skills required for solving the problems. Of course, in many cases this assumption would be presumptuous. Likewise, it should not be taken for granted that all headteachers are fully supplied with the necessary skills to deal with after inspection developments. Therefore, this could mean that post-inspection work, on the principle and practices of school improvement, is needed to supplement or follow on from the inspection report, especially with respect to weak schools. This would allow headteachers and school leaders to develop the tools needed to apply and use the information contained in the inspection report to good effect in bringing about changes and improvements.

Fifthly, the study asserts that the effective SLTs or SMTs found in the research were likely to have been the outcome of good headship, especially given their commitment to the practice of distributed leadership. It follows that such SLTs or SMTs would have been well led by the headteachers, who had given dedicated personal effort in ensuring their effectiveness. It also implies that trust, confidence and mutual respect were significant factors contributing to their cohesion. Members of SLTs or SMTs would have been given areas to manage, but equally made accountable for the responsibilities they carried (see case studies). Furthermore, it suggests that in those successful SLTs or SMTs a form of cabinet style model of leadership may have been followed unwittingly in many of those schools. The headteachers were the prime leaders (ministers) amongst other bona fide school leaders (ministers), caring for specific areas.

Penultimately, the findings established the fact that successful external examination results, measured against national standards, were more related to teaching than to the effect of good overall school leadership. However, it was also demonstrated that low performing schools, that were experiencing improving results, were also being led by effective headteachers and school leaders. Therefore, it implies that schools should still continue working at developing teaching quality as an important way of accelerating the drive on raising educational standards, as part of the national agenda. Improving teachers' pedagogical skills ought to be given high priority by school leaders and managers. However, with respect to failing and low performing schools, they will require dynamic, visionary and inspirational leadership, in order to radically break them away from the debilitating culture of hopelessness and failure.

Finally, the findings also proved that while in these London schools inspections acted as a very valuable catalyst for educational change and reform, actual school improvement was the result of leadership initiatives. Thus, it can be said that the role of the inspection service, in providing reliable and valid information on the work and performance of schools, is fully justified. Nevertheless, despite the fact that OFSTED has been regularly reviewing its framework and inspection procedure and practices, it should also re-evaluate its existing mission and purpose to ascertain whether they are still relevant and appropriate (a) for the current needs of the education service and (b) in light of its own success in encouraging change. This particular finding above, also suggests that schools may need to develop systematic school improvement strategies that are built more on their own internal evaluation (self evaluation) information and data, and less on

the OFSTED reports. The benefit of this is that it would remove the stress and strains on schools, created by the intimidating presence of OFSTED, which may be mainly based on perception and mythology. However, it would also crucially establish an important link in the school improvement process, by bringing together the sources through which problems are identified and the system by which they are solved. It would free up OFSTED's resources for it to concentrate and focus more squarely on those schools with chronic ailments and disorder in school performances and leadership. Furthermore, it could continue its monitoring and accountability role by evaluating self-evaluation reports, verified by LEAs and submitted annually by all schools to OFSTED.

An Evaluation of the Research Method

This section now provides a brief post research evaluation of the research methods used for conducting the study.

The study consisted of three elements, namely: a documentary analysis of OFSTED's leadership and management judgments of London schools; a questionnaire survey of the headteachers of the schools in the documentary analysis aspect of the research; and three case study schools, drawn from the questionnaire survey. It also used a combination of quantitative and qualitative research tools to explore a number of inspection, leadership and management issues and to answer the research questions designed for the study.

The strength of the documentary analysis dimension to the research was that the instrument yielded good results and data on a range of matters, such as: leadership and

management practices in a number of London schools; the effectiveness of leadership and management in those schools; and standards of external examination results and quality of teaching. The sample for the documentary analysis, selected on a stratified random basis, also covered a sizable field of London schools and LEAs, thus guaranteeing the validity of the data gathered. Nevertheless, there were some facets in this area of the methodology that could have been improved on. For example, with hindsight, the pilot of 20 schools, drawn from nine London LEAs, was unnecessary and should have been done on a group of five to six schools, and from a much smaller number of LEAs. This would have meant that the schools for the full documentary analysis could have been selected from a larger group of LEAs, rather than the eight used in the study. Thus, this would have improved the representation aspect of the procedure and strengthened the validity of the data.

The questionnaire survey section of the research also generated very good data with information on issues such as: the impact the OFSTED inspection had on school leadership; headteachers' leadership styles; the role of senior managers; strategic planning; and the influence inspection had on school improvement. Furthermore, it allowed the schools from the documentary analysis part of the study to comment themselves, through the headteachers, on their experiences of inspection, thus adding triangulation to the data collection process. However, the questionnaire survey was conducted in the prevailing climate of complaints by headteachers about the unacceptable level of paper work demands on their time. Hence, many of the headteachers from the 40 schools in the documentary analysis were reluctant to

complete the questionnaire. Despite this, the survey produced a 55% response rate, which for postal surveys was still an extremely good result. Nonetheless, the option of administering the questionnaire survey, using telephone calls rather than the post could have been considered, irrespective of the obvious fact that a significant amount of time would have been needed to do this. However, this would depend on the benefits of a possible 70% to 80% response rate being weighed against the constraints of the additional administrative time required.

Finally, the case studies too have delivered rich informative and insightful qualitative data, adding to the triangulation process and complementary to both the documentary analysis and the questionnaire survey. The case studies also collected opinions, not only from the headteachers, but also from other school leaders and chairs of governors, adding to the validity of the research. Nevertheless, the case studies centred exclusively on headteachers and school leaders, but could have included interviews of, maybe, a sample of teachers, in order to broaden the opinions and views collected on the experience and impact of the OFSTED inspections.

Notwithstanding these observations and criticisms, the writer would point out the fact that the research methodology produced reliable and valid data, using a variety of research instruments and techniques. Furthermore, the research method also conformed to the BERA ethical framework and guide.

Summary

This chapter, in discussing the findings of the research, asked certain questions, such as: How important are the results and what they mean? Are they consistent with previous research findings in this area? If they are not consistent with research findings, what might be the reason(s)? Do they support existing theories in this area? What are the implications to be derived from the study? And, What validity and reliability issues have emerged from the study?

The discussion concluded that there were seven key results to be drawn from the findings of the study, namely that:

- Schools are better at developing policies and documents, but less effective in implementing them.

- Whereas, inspectors judged headteachers to have provided strong visionary leadership, overall school leadership was ineffective in a majority of cases. Thus, headteachers appear less proactive in building and expanding leadership amongst colleagues, SLTs or SMTs and middle managers.

- Headteachers see themselves primarily as leaders and to a lesser extent as managers, and will also vary their leadership style to reflect the situation.

- The majority of headteachers accepted inspectors' judgments on leadership and management, and feel that their leadership style was in harmony with OFSTED's expectation. Thus, OFSTED functions well

225

in describing and explaining leadership behaviour in schools, but limited in its influence in guiding and shaping headteachers' approach and leadership style.

- The majority of schools had SLTs or SMTs in place, with 60% judged to be effective. The implication is that this is the result of good leadership by headteachers, where this had occurred.

- Success in GCSE examinations for most schools in the research seemed more related to teaching than to overall effectiveness in leadership. However, the study also demonstrated that where low performing schools were able to improve, this appeared to have been connected to the effectiveness of headteachers.

- While inspection was found to be a catalyst for change and reform, school improvement was the product of leadership initiatives by headteachers.

The discourse on the findings further demonstrated, in general, that a number of research findings also provided similar and comparable results to these of the thesis, such as: Wilcox and Gray (1996); OFSTED (2002); Earley et al (2002); Levacic et al (1999); Glover et al (1996); HMI (2002); Edmonds (1979a); Rutter et al (1979); Mortimore (1993); Sammon et al (1995); Bush (1998); Keele and Touche Ross (1995); NUT (1998); Fidler (1995).

In addition, these major findings from the study appear to add support to the following theoretical positions: Sergiovanni's (1989) Leadership Forces; Gaziel's (1996) Process Paradigm Model; Fidler (1997), Beare (1997), Davies (1996) and Bolman and Deal's (1991) notion of Visionary Leadership; Sergiovanni's (1990) concept of Transformational Leadership; Hodgkinson (1983) (1990), Hughes (1973), Bennis and Goldsmith (1994), Fidler (1997) and Bolam's (1999) perspectives on The Dual Nature of Headship; and Blake and Mouton (1978), Likert (1967), Maxcy (1991), Hersey and Blanchard (1982) and Fiedler 's (1967) views on Leadership Styles.

The chapter further identified the following as major implications to be drawn from the research findings:

- that in many schools policies and procedures require effective implementation strategies;

- that the accountability of school leaders needs improving on;

- that Performance Management should make the implementation of school policies an area of priority;

- that schools desire more headteachers that will give attention to team building and empowerment;

- that the managerial role of headship tends to be down graded, hence it implies that educational agencies, such as the DfES, OFSTED and NCSL need to be proactive in raising the managerial aspects of headship;

227

- that the advancement of the principles of democracy in education requires commitment by headteachers to the ideals of partnership in leadership and management;

- that OFSTED reports and judgments on weak and low performing schools necessitates post inspection support for headteachers in developing school improvement skills and techniques;

- that to have an effective SLT or SMT requires a cabinet form of school leadership model, with SLT or SMT members caring for specific areas of school operation;

- that in raising educational standards schools need to continue the push to increase teaching quality, driven by effective school leadership;

- that school improvement strategies should, in future, be built more on self-evaluation information and data, thus joining up the two crucial processes of school improvement, that is, the audit element with the strategic development aspect. This will free up more time for OFSTED to deal with the statutory areas of accountability and give it more opportunity to guide schools with chronic operational and leadership disorders.

Finally, the chapter concluded with an evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of the research methodology, but argued that this had yielded reliable and valid data for the research study. The final chapter is the conclusion.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

The context of this research is a desire on the part of the writer to see schools, particularly city schools, become places of learning for all children, irrespective of their social, educational, economic or ethnic background. They should be given every opportunity to develop their potential without hindrance and having at their disposal the best physical, teaching and learning, and leadership and management resources to realise this vision. This personal ideal accords with the views of many educators, parents, industrialists and business leaders, and also reverberates with the national campaign by government for greater school effectiveness and improvement (DfEE, 1997). Thus, this research focused on a sample of London schools because it represents a microcosm, in exaggerated degree, of an educational system that for decades has not fulfilled its responsibility for educating all of the nation's children, but has been a system serving the few. Hence, it is the hope of the writer that the findings and conclusion from this study will, in some modest way, contribute to the discourse on school improvement strategies, especially for city schools.

Chapter 1 of the thesis firstly sets out the purpose of the study, along with the research questions to be addressed, and discusses the function of OFSTED. It then traces the evolution in education since the 1944 Education Act. It shows that a consensus existed amongst the main political parties, with respect to national education policy making. However, this was dismantled in the 1970s during the great debate on the future of education, when the political parties responded to the

growing concerns about educational standards by reshaping their policy and ideology. This culminated in a change of government in 1979 and the introduction of the 1988 ERA (Chitty, 1994). From this a range of educational reforms ensued, including the implementation of a national curriculum. The chapter continues by discussing the challenges facing city schools, including those in London, drawing on writers such as: Blackstone (1980); Marks et al (1986) and Hall (1974).

Chapter 2, the Literature Review survey, presented a comprehensive coverage of how leadership theories have developed during a significant part of the last century (Blake and Mounton, 1978; Hersey and Blanchard 1982; Fiedler, 1967; and Sergiovanni, 1983, 1987 and 1990). Studies on the role and styles of educational leaders and managers were examined and the main features of both the school improvement and school effectiveness movements were considered (Hodgkinson, 1983, 1991; Hughes, 1973; Bolam, 1999; Gaziel, 1996, Rutter et al, 1977; Mortimore et al, 1988; Mortimore, 1993; and Sammons et al, 1995. In addition, research findings on the impact of the OFSTED inspection were also looked at, such as: Keele and Touche Ross, 1995; Earley, 1996; Glover et al, 1996; Gray and Wilcox, 1996; NUT, 1998; and HMI, 2002. Lastly, alternative approaches to the OFSTED school review model were considered (Harris and Young, 2000).

Chapter 3 dealt with the research methodology, which included: a documentary analysis element; a questionnaire survey; and a case study section. Chapter 4 presented the findings, drawn from the data collected from the three areas listed above, while chapter 5 discussed the meanings and implications to be derived from the findings. The remainder of this chapter will: offer some general conclusions;

consider the contribution the research is making to this field of study; outline key recommendations; and identify areas for further research.

General Conclusions from the Study

The following general conclusions can be drawn from the findings of the research and also from the ensuing discussion on the meanings and implications of the result.

The first general conclusion to be made is that whilst the education reforms and school inspections have, over the last decade, resulted in improvements in the way schools are led and managed, a number of essential aspects of school management, including the implementation of school policies have remained underdeveloped. This judgement finds resonance with HMCI's annual report (OFSTED, 2002), which revealed that a quarter of schools had unsatisfactory procedures for implementing school policies.

The second general conclusion to be inferred from the study is that headteachers have attempted to follow the rational leadership model favoured by OFSTED, in establishing aims for their schools and being engaged in various shades and forms of strategic planning (Levacic et al. 1999). However, this has retarded their understanding of the synergetic effect that distributed leadership and empowerment can have on school improvement (Hallinger and Heck, 1999; and Sergiovanni, 1990). In addition, it could be said that headteachers weakened their effectiveness and influence by the narrow definition they take of their role, centring on leadership exclusively and neglecting crucial aspects of, for example, ensuring effective

management of: policies; teaching and learning; school leaders; and middle managers (Hodgkinson, 1983, 1991; Bush, 1998; and Bolam, 1999).

The third general resolution from the findings is that where it was found that headteachers were able to combine the principle of dual headship in their work, and actively implement their belief in distributed leadership and empowerment, it has been demonstrated that they (headteachers) were able to establish effective and efficient SLTs or SMTs as a result of this. This conclusion accords, in many ways, with the views of Maxcy (1991); Hallinger and Heck (1999); Sergiovanni (1990); and others.

The fourth general deduction from the findings is that weak and failing schools require strong and determined leadership. They need leadership, which will provide them with instructions and directions and that, in a sense, will give them the 'jump-start' to a real process of change. This follows in the mode of Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) 'telling' dimension to their Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. This suggests that in certain situations, where there might be a dearth of experience and maturity of leadership in colleagues, it is necessary to have a leader with a mandate to give clear guidance and command to guarantee that the tasks of the organisation are achieved.

The fifth general resolution to be drawn from the study confirmed that inspection fulfils a catalyst role in igniting the process of school improvement for many of the schools in the survey. However, it has not been shown to be the means or the process for producing and delivering actual school improvement. This conclusion also

echoes the view of the Education and Employment Committee's 4th Report (1999), which concluded that inspection should be the spark that brings change and improvement to schools. Fullan (1991) also concurs with this position by stating that improvements will only be secured through the institutionalisation of initiatives for change.

The Research's Contribution to the Field of Educational Leadership and Management

This section of the chapter takes a retrospective look at the potential contribution this research study can make to the field of educational leadership and management.

Firstly, this study is relatively unique in that from a literature review perspective it is the only known study to date that has been conducted on school leadership and management, with respect to London secondary schools. In evaluating the issue of school leadership in London schools it has produced data giving good insight into the level and effectiveness of school leadership and management in these schools. It has demonstrated that secondary school leadership in the capital city, whilst judged to be strong and visionary overall, lacks the complementary force and support armoury of effective management systems and procedures in many cases. Thus, this provides academics and educational practitioners, at various levels, with useful information for understanding and developing leadership and management in city schools.

Secondly, until the 1980s there were not many studies specifically looking at the leadership behaviour, and the outcome of headship. The exception has been through the indirect examination of leadership and management from the range of studies

since the late 1970s, by the school effectiveness and school improvement movements (Rutter et al 1979; Elliot 1980; 1981; Mortimore et al, 1988; and Sammon et al, 1995). These have centred more on establishing the factors and processes that contribute to good school performance. While professional leadership had been identified as one of those key factors aiding school effectiveness, studies exclusively on headship performance have remained sparse. However, the advent of OFSTED and their focus on leadership and management as an important aspect of inspection has resulted in more research emphasis in this area, with examples such as: Hargreaves (1995); Glover et al (1996); Levacic et al (1996); Earley et al (2002). Therefore, this study will, in some way add to the group of research endeavours directed at examining the conduct of leadership and management by headteachers and school leaders.

Thirdly, the findings of this research support the observations made by Wilcox and Gray (1996), and OFSTED (2002) that many schools do not consistently implement and monitor school policies. Hence, this study is adding to the weight of evidence highlighting this as a matter of concern to government, LEAs, governors and headteachers. In addition, one of the purposes of the thesis is to establish the extent to which certain essential management practices are developed in London schools. In this context, the study is clearly identifying a number of specific management issues as areas for future development in schools.

Fourthly, the findings from this research add to the discourse by writers such as, Hallinger and Heck (1999), Bush (1998) and Bolam (1999) who argue that visionary leadership is just one aspect of a more rounded function for headship, which should

embrace wider managerial prerequisites. In particular, the study demonstrates that headteachers in London schools regarded themselves firstly as leaders and secondly as managers. Thus, the study highlights the need for more work to be done in helping headteachers to recognise the emerging practice in educational administration. This is that headship or principal-ship in today's milieu has a dual nature, consisting of leadership and management, as mutually inclusive dimensions.

Fifthly, under The Education (Schools) Act, 1992 that established OFSTED, it charged the agency with the responsibility for keeping the Secretary of State for Education and Skills (the current name) informed on the quality of educational provisions and standards in England. In addition, it also had a remit to inspect schools as a means of ensuring that they were made accountable for their performance and as a way of contributing to school improvement. However, there have been questions and debates in the education community on whether OFSTED, in reality, is indeed contributing to the process of school improvement (Gray and Wilcox, 1995 and NUT, 1998). This study provides some answers to these questions. It has demonstrated that inspection has been shown to be a very important catalyst for initiating school improvement processes in London schools. However, actual school improvements have been the outcome and product of hands-on leadership initiatives. In other words, OFSTED has been able to tell schools where they need to improve, but cannot show them how to improve.

Finally, there are different schools of thought as to the future direction of inspections and the long-term role of OFSTED. For example, the Education and Employment Committee's 4th Report (1999) recommended that inspection should cover a broad

dimension, ranging from audit function to advisory support, and that each point on the spectrum should be related to the individual circumstances of the school. Another, example is that of Brighouse and Wood (1999) who argue for self-review as an alternative to inspection. In addition to these ideas, this study, under the implications section of the previous chapter, alluded to the view that schools may need to consider developing systematic school improvement strategies, derived from their own internal evaluation information and data, and relying less on the OFSTED reports as the basis for their school improvement plans. Thus, in this way the study is also contributing to the on-going conversation on the future direction for the OFSTED inspection system and the possible alternatives to be considered.

Recommendations

This section will now offer some general recommendations for improving and developing the quality and effectiveness of school leadership and management in secondary schools.

RECOMMENDATION ONE

Given (a) that the findings from this study has shown that London schools were better at developing policies and documents, but less effective in implementing them and (b) that other findings from the literature review such as Gray and Wilcox (1976) and OFSTED (2002) have corroborated this position, there is certainly a need for a national approach for dealing with this apparent weakness in school management. Thus, the writer is recommending that the DfES, in collaboration with the NCSL, should consider formulating a national policy and programme for developing the role of middle managers and school leaders to augment the management functions of

headteachers. This should be made easier by the fact that the NCSL now has a programme for emergent leaders called 'Leading from the Middle'.

RECOMMENDATION TWO

From the findings, headteachers, in a sample of London schools, appear to be strong visionary leaders, but less proactive in cultivating and extending leadership and decision-making authority to members of their SLTs or SMTs. Thus, this second recommendation proposes that the DfES, OFSTED and the NCSL (which has begun to work on this aspect) should give a high profile to the principle and practice of building distributed leadership into the leadership and management structures of all secondary schools. In particular, this is more crucial and necessary for city schools, where the negative impact of this deficiency can be more debilitating on school performance.

RECOMMENDATION THREE

The OFSTED model of strong leadership, employing a bureaucratic and rational decision-making approach has had pervasive influence on many of the headteachers in this study of London secondary schools. Furthermore, this adherence to the OFSTED standard appears to be the case for other schools as confirmed by writers such as Hargreaves (1995) and Levacic et al (1999). Hence, the need to re-shape headteachers' thinking, for them to adopt the concept and practice of a dual role to headship, involving leadership and management, calls for OFSTED's active involvement. It must be at the forefront of promoting, through the inspection process, the headteacher's role in establishing the vital importance of management to school effectiveness. OFSTED has, by default in its inspection work, created the

impression that the SLT members or SMT members and middle managers in a school are the ones primarily responsible for management functions. Thus, it must now take the initiative to re-balance and bring the headteacher's role back into equilibrium between the mutually inclusive requirements of leadership and management skills.

RECOMMENDATION FOUR

Acknowledging the significant observation from the findings of the study that the low performing schools, which were found to be experiencing improvements in their performance were also led by headteachers judged to be effective, means that proactive leadership strategies are require to deal with failing schools. Thus, the writer recommends that were such schools are identified by the inspection process, government, LEAs and governing bodies should appoint, as a matter of policy, senior headteachers with a track record of success with schools in challenging circumstances to lead or supervise them, where this would be the appropriate strategy.

RECOMMENDATION FIVE

Given that the study has demonstrated that inspection tells schools where they need to improve, but cannot show them how to improve, suggests that it is the evaluation results of inspection that is important to the development of schools. However, a process of systematic internal audit or review, by schools themselves, could achieve this outcome more economically and efficiently. Thus, it is recommended that schools should be mandated to conduct annual or two yearly whole school reviews, using standardised instruments approved by OFSTED, and for the results to be

submitted to OFSTED for monitoring. In addition, headteachers and school leaders would receive training through the NCSL for this purpose.

RECOMMENDATION SIX

The intention of this final recommendation is to suggest further reforms and modernisation to the inspection process, in addition to the ones already made by OFSTED, such as for example the introduction of short and full inspections. Presently, the OFSTED inspection system is responsible for ensuring that each school in England and Wales is inspected every six years. However, this recommendation is proposing that the government should revise the above system and to implement the following inspection structure:

1. That regular inspection should in the future be restricted primarily to schools causing concerns, schools with serious weaknesses, failing schools and any other schools identified by OFSTED for specific reasons that would justify a full inspection.

2. That OFSTED would be responsible for monitoring the annual or two yearly returns of school review reports (self evaluation) submitted by the governing body of each school. This report would also carry an attached commentary from the LEA. The information from these returns, along with data from other types of inspections, such as in (1.) above, would be used by OFSTED to formulate its annual report and to provide advice to government.

3. Train and support headteachers of schools that have had a full inspection into developing post inspection skills in school improvement strategies.

This may require legislation, but it would be justified in an effort to make the OFSTED inspection a more dynamic process.

Areas for Further Investigation

Finally, this section of the chapter now presents some suggested fields of study that may be considered as new and worthwhile areas for further research.

This study has yielded many interesting and insightful results, however, it would be useful for there to be a follow-up study for the purpose of consolidating the findings. This could be done on a wider range of city schools, going beyond London. Furthermore, there might also be value in conducting comparative studies, looking at the differences between urban and rural schools, with respect to leadership and management, and the impact of inspection.

New studies focusing on the extent and the circumstances under which headadteachers vary or adjust their leadership style, in order to take account of conditions (such as the micro politics of the situation, the maturity and experience of others associated with leadership, and the cultural context prevailing) might be a valuable area for additional research studies.

From the literature review, it can be seen that there has been a few studies (Wilcox and Gray, 1996; Earley, 1996; Fidler et al, 1995) examining the degree to which schools have implemented their action plans, in response to the OFSTED reports and key findings. However, it might also be useful to broaden research endeavours to include looking at the processes that schools follow in implementing and monitoring their action plans. Furthermore, such studies could be extended to targeting other stakeholders such as SLT or SMT members, middle managers, governors and teachers.

The evidence base for the inspection of leadership and management is built on discussions primarily with headteachers, deputy headteachers and influential governors such as the chairs of governors and chairs of finance. The implication of this is that the evidence collected could be viewed as being derived from a narrow source. Thus, independent studies, looking at the validity and reliability of this approach by OFSTED, could be a valuable area for further study.

Recognizing the recent efforts of OFSTED in promoting and encouraging schools to be involved in conducting systematic self-evaluation exercises and also the growing interest in school improvement projects such as IQEA, further research, examining the extent to which schools are engaged in self-evaluation programmes and school improvement initiatives, ought to be an area for educational researchers to further explore.

Finally, recent developments in leadership training by the TTA (such as the NPQH, HEADLAMP and LPSH) and the evolving programmes of the NCSL are areas that

will inevitably be attracting the attention of researchers, seeking to establish the relevance and effectiveness of these initiatives, designed to advance the preparation and work of headteachers.

Summary

This research was conceived from a genuine commitment on the part of the writer to see improvements in the quality of city schools. Thus, with the assertion by the House of Commons Education Committee (1995) that leadership and management is the most important factor responsible for differences in the performance of city schools, then it stands to reason that the establishment of effective leadership in city schools is a prerequisite to success for these schools. Hence, the reason for this research focusing on examining certain leadership and management issues in London schools, and the impact of inspection on the work of school improvement. The study has established a numbers of important findings in these areas. Thus, it is the wish of the writer that this work will be of influential and informative value to educational practitioners, government and others who are engaged in and are committed to the cause of education.

Bibliography

Alexander R (1992), *Policy and Practice in Primary Education*, London:Routledge.

Anderson W and Burns B (1989), *Research in Classroom,* Pergamond Press.

Apple M and Beane J (1995, *Democratic School,* Alexandria, VA Association for
     Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Aronowitz S and Giroux H (1985), *Education Under Siege: The Conservative, Liberal
     and Radical Debate Over Schooling,* New York: Bergin and Gravey.

Bailey K (1982), *Methods of Social Research,* New York: The Free Press.

Ball S J (1990), *Politics and Policy Making In Education* In *Education Exploration in
     Policy Sociology,* Routledge London and New York.

Best J and Kahn J (1989), *Research in Education,* Prentice Hall, Englewood: New
     Jersey.

Blackstone T (1980), The Challenge of the Inner City in *Education for the Inner City,*
     (Ed.) Marland M: Heinemann Educational Books, London.

Barnard N (1998), *£1bn inspection regime fails to raise standards,* Times Educational
     Supplement 16 January 1998.

Beare H, Caldwell B and Millikan R (1997), 'Dimensions of leadership', in Crawford
     M, Kydd L and Riches C (Eds.) *Leadership and Teams in Educational
     Management,* Open University Press.

Benne K (1970), 'Authority in Education', *Harvard Educational Review,* 40, No. 3, pp.
     385-410.

Bennis W and Goldsmith (1994), *Learning to lead,* Addison Wesley, Reading MA.

Bennis W and Nanus B (1985), *Leaders,* New York: Harper and Row.

Blake R and Mouton J (1978), *The New Managerial Grid,* Houston: Gulf Publishing Co.

Bogdan R and Biklen S (1992), *Qualitative Research for Education* (second edition),
     Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Bolam R (1999), Chapter 15: Educational Administration, Leadership and Management: Towards a Research Agenda, in Bush T, Bell L, Bolam R, Glatter R, and Ribbins P (eds.) *Educational Management: redefining theory, policy and practice*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Bolman L and Deal T (1991), *Reframing Organisation: Artistry, Choice and Leadership*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bone E (1983), *Exercising Leadership* In Paisey A (ed.) *The Effective Teacher*, Ward Lock Educational.

Borg W and Gall M (1979), *Educational Research: an Introduction* (third edition), London: Longman.

Brighouse T (1997), *From the Bronx to Birmingham*, Times Educational Supplement 7 February.

Brighouse T (1998), *In search of infallibility*, Times Educational Supplement 27 November p. 15.

Brighouse T and Woods D (1999), *How to Improve Your School* London: Routedge Falmer .

Brown S, Duffield J and Riddell S (1995), 'School effectiveness research: the policy makers' tool for school improvement', *The European Educational Research Association Bulletin*, pp. 6 15.

Bryman A (1986), *Leadership and Organisation*, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Budge D (1997), Research Focus – Pathfinders shift focus to classroom, *Times Educational Supplement 14 March*.

Burns J (1978), *Leadership*, New York: Harper and Row.

Burrell G and Morgan G (1979), *Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis*, London: Heinemann Educational Books.

Bush T (1998), 'The National Professional Qualification for Headship: the key to effective school leadership?' *School Leadership & Management*, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 321-333.

Caldwell and Spinks J (1992), *Leading the Self-managing School*. London: Falmer Press.

Cameron (1984), 'The Effectiveness of Ineffectiveness', *Research in Organisational Behaviour* 6: 235-285.

Charles C (1995), *Introduction to Educational Research* (second edition), Longman: New York.

Chitty C (1994), Consensus to conflict: the structure of educational decision-making transformed, in *Accountability and control in educational settings*, Ed. by Scott D: Cassell.

Clegg A and Megson B (1968), *Children in distress*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Cohen L and Manion L (1994), *Research Methods in Education*, London: Routledge

Cohen L, Manion L and Morrison K (2000), *Research Methods in Education*, Routledge, Falmer.

Coleman J, Campbell E, Hobson C, McPartl J & Mood A, Weinfeld F & York R (1966), *Equality of Educational Opportunity*. Washington, US Government Printing Office.

Coleman M (1994), 'Leadership in educational management', in Bush T and West -Burnham J (Eds.) *Principles of Educational Management*, Harlow: Longman.

Coleman M (1996), *Inspection and Evaluation in Schools*, Educational Management Development Unit: University of Leicester.

Corcoran B and Wilson B (1989), *Successful secondary schools: vision of excellence in American public education*, London Falmer.

Davies B (1996), 'Re-engineering school leadership', *International Journal of Educational Management* 10/2 1996 11-16.

Dewey J (1916), *Democracy and Education*, New York: MacMillan.

Dewey J (1935), 'Towards Administrative Statesmanship', *The Social Frontier* 1 No. 6 pp. 9-10.

DES (1989), *National Curriculum*, HMSO: London.

DfEE (1997), *Excellence in Schools*, The Stationery Office.

DfEE (1998), *Teachers: meeting the challenge of change*, The Stationery Office: London.

DfEE (2000), *Cabinet Office Social Exclusion Unit*, DfEE ONELINE and The Stationery Office: London.

DfEE (2000), Excellence in Cities: *The Standards: ONELINE.*

Diener E and Crandall R (1978), *Ethics in Social and Behavioral Research*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Donoughe B (1987), *Prime Minister: The Conduct of Policy under Harold Wilson and James Callaghan*, London: Jonathan Cape.

Dubin R (1968), *Human Relations in Administration (2nd Ed.)*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice – Hall.

Duncan M G (1968), *A Dictionary of Sociology*, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Earley P, Fidler B and Ouston J (1996), *Improvement through inspection? Complementary approaches to school development.* David Fulton Publishers Ltd

Earley P (1996), *School Improvement and OFSTED Inspection: the Research Evidence*, in Earley P, Fidler B and Ouston J (Eds.), *Improvement through inspection? Complementary approaches to school development*, David Fulton Publishers Ltd.

Earley P, Evans J, Collarbone P, Gold A and Halpin D (2002), *Establishing the Current State of School Leadership in England*, Institute of Education: University of London.

Edmonds R (1979a), 'Effective School for the Urban Poor', *Educational Leadership* 37, pp. 20-24.

Edmonds R (1979b), 'Programmes of School Improvement: An Overview', *Educational Leadership* 37, pp. 4-11.

Elliott J (1980), 'Implications for classroom research for professional development', in Hoyle E and Megarry J (Eds.) *World Book of Education 1980*, London: Kogan Page.

Elliott J (1981), *School Accountability*, London: Grant McIntyre.

Elliott J (1996), 'School Effectiveness Research and its Critics: alternative visions of schooling', *Cambridge Journal of Education*, Vol. 26, No. 2, 1996.

Etzioni A (1961), *A Comprehensive Analysis of Organisation*, New York: Free Press.

Fiedler F (1967), *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*, McGraw Hill: New York.

Fidler B (1997), 'School Leadership: some key ideas', *School Leadership and Management* Vol. 17, No. 1, pp. 23-37.

Fidler B, Earley P and Ouston J (1995), *OFSTED: School inspection and their impact on school development,* Paper presented to the British Educational Research Association: University of Bath.

Fidler B, Ouston J, Earley P, Ferguson N and Davies J (1998), *The contribution of inspection to school improvement,* Institute of Education: London.

Fitz-Gibbon C (1995), *The Value Added Project: issues to be considered in the design of a national value added system,* (London, SCAA).

Foster W (1989), 'Toward a critical practice of leadership', In Smyth J (Ed.) *Critical Perspectives on Educational Leadership,* London: Falmer Press.

Frankfort-Nachmias C and Nachmias D (1992), *Research Methods in the Social Sciences,* London: Edward Arnold.

Fullan M (1991), *The New Meaning of Educational Change,* London: Cassell.

Fullan M (1993), *Change Forces: Probing the depths of educational reform,* London: Farmer.

Gall M (1996), *Educational Research: An Introduction, Sixth Edition.* Longman Publishers USA.

Galton M and Delamont S (1985), *Inside the Secondary Classroom,* Routledge & Kegan Paul: London and New York.

Gaziel H (1996), 'School Effectiveness and Effectiveness Indicators: Parents', Students' Teachers' and Principals' Perspectives', *International Review of Education.*

Geertz C (ed) (1973), *The Interpretation of Culture,* NewYork: Basic Books.

Gibson A and Asthana S (1998), 'School Performance, School Effectiveness and the 1997 White Paper', *Oxford Review of Education,* Vol. 24, No. 2.

Giddens A (ed) (1975), *Positivism and Sociology,* London: Heinemann Educational Books.

Giroux H (1986), 'Authority, Intellectual, and the Politics of Practical Learning Teachers', *College Record,* 88 No. 1 (Fall) pp. 22-40.

Glatter R (1997), 'Context and Capability in Educational Management', *Educational Management and Administration:* SAGE Publications (London).

Glover D, Levacic R and Bennett N (1996), Leadership, Planning and Resource
Management in Four Very Effective Schools, *School Organisation*, Vol. 16, No.
2, pp. 135-148 and Vol. 16, No. 3, pp. 247-261.

Goodlad J (1984), *A Place Called School*, New York: McGraw Hill.

Grace G (1997), 'Critical Leadership Studies', in Crawford M, Lesley K and Colin R
(1997) (Eds.) *Leadership and teams in educational management*, University
Press.

Gray J and Wilcox B (1995), *Good School, Bad School: Evaluating Performance and
Encouraging Improvement*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

Green H (2000), Editorial. In *School Leadership*, Croner.CCH Ltd September 2000 No.
13.

Hall S (1974), Education and the crisis of the urban school, in Raynor J (Ed) *Block 1:
Why Urban Education?* The Open University Educational Studies.

Hallinger P and Heck R (1999), Chapter 14: Can Leadership Enhance School
Effectiveness, in Bush T, Bell L, Bolam R, Glatter R, and Ribbins P (eds.)
Educational Management: redefining theory, policy and practice, London: Paul
Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Halpin A (1966), *Theory and Research in Administration*, New York: Macmillan.

Hargreaves D (1984), *Improving Secondary Schools, Report of the committee on
curriculum and organisation of secondary schools*, London: ILEA.

Hargreaves D (1995), 'School culture, school effectiveness and school improvement',
School Effectiveness and School Improvement 6 (1) 23-46.

Harris A and Young J (2000), Comparing School Improvement Programmes in England
and Canada, *School Leadership & Management, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 31-42.*

Harris A (2000), What works in school improvement? Lessons from the field and future
directions, *Educational Research, Vol. 42, No. 1, pp 1-11.*

Heal K (1978). 'Misbehaviour among children: the role of the school in strategies for
prevention', *Policy and Politics*, 6, 321-333.

Hemphill J and Coons A (1957), 'Development of the Leader Behavior Questionnaire'.

Hersey P and Blanchard K (1982), *Management of Organisational Behaviour*, Prentice
-Hall, Inc., in Stoghill R and Coons A (eds.) *Leader Behavior: Its Description*

and Measurement, Columbus: Ohio State University Bureau of Business Research.

Hitchcock G and Hughes D (1995), *Research and the Teacher* London: Routledge.

HMI (2002) *Leadership and Management Training for Headteachers:* a report, HMI 457. OFSTED.

Hodgkinson C (1983), *The Philosophy of Leadership,* Oxford: Blackwell.

Hodgkinson C (1991), *Educational Leadership: the Moral Art,* NY: State University of New York Press.

Hoinville G and Jowell R (1978), *Survey Research Practice,* London: Heinemann.

Hollander E (1978), *Leadership Dynamical: A Practical Guide to Effective Relationships,* New York: Free Press.

Hopkins D (1994), 'School improvement in an era of change', in Ribbins P and Burridge E (Eds.), *Improving Education: promoting quality in schools,* London: Cassell.

Hopkins K, Hopkins B and Glass G (1996), *Basic Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences* (third edition), Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Hopkins D and Harris A (1997), 'Improving the quality of education for all', *Support for Learning* Vol. 12 No. 4 NASEN 1997.

Hopkins D and Levin B (2000), Government Policy and School Development, *School Leadership & Management, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 15-30.*

Hopkins D and Reynolds D (2001), The Past, Present and Future of School Improvement: towards the Third Age, *British Educational Research Journal, Vol. 27, No. 4, pp. 459-475*

House of Commons Education Committee (1995), *Performance In City Schools Volume,* London: HMSO.

House of Commons (1999), *Education and Employment Committee, Fourth Report,* Stationery Office.

Hoyle E (1986), *The Politics of School Management,* Hodder and Stoughton: London.

Hughes M (1973), 'The professional as administrator: The case of the secondary school head', *Educational Administration Bulletin,* 2(1).

ILEA (1984), *School Examination Results In the ILEA (1984),* London:ILEA.

Jencks C, Smith M, Ackland H, Bane M, Cohen D, Gintis H, Heyns B and Micholson S (1971), *Inequality*, London: Allen Lane.

Jensen A R (1969), How can we boost IQ and scholastic achievement? *Harvard Review*.

Johnson D (1994), *Research Methods in Educational Management*, Longman.

Joseph K (1976), *Stranded in the Middle Ground? Reflections on Circumstances and Policies*, London: Centre for Policy Studies.

Keele University and Touche Ross (1995), *Inspection Quality 1994/1995*, OFSTED.

Kitwood T (1977), Values in adolescent life: towards a critical description, Unpublished Ph.D dissertation, School of Education, University of Bradford.

Koontz H and O'Donnell C (1982), *Essentials of Management*, McGraw Hill, NewYork.

Krippendorf K (1980), *Content Analysis*, Sage Publications.

Leithwood K and Montgomery D (1984), *Patterns of growth in principal effectiveness*, Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of AERA, New Orleans, April, 1984.

Levacic R, Glover D, Bennett N, and Crawford M J (1999), Chapter 2: Modern Headship for the Rationally Managed School: Combining Cerebral and Insightful Approaches, in Bush T, Bell L, Bolam R, Glatter R, and Ribbins P (eds.) *educational Management: redefining theory, policy and practice*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Likert R (1961), *New Patterns of Management*, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lipham J (1964), 'Leadership and Administration', in Griffith D (ed.) *Behaviour Science and Educational Administration*, Chicago University.

McLaren P (1988), 'Foreword: Critical Theory and the Meaning of Hope', in Giroux H (1988) *Teachers As Intellectuals: Toward Pedagogy of Learning*, New York: Bergin and Garvey.

McLaren P (1989), *Life in Schools*, New York: Longman.

Mark J, Cox C and Pomian-Srzednicki (1986), *Examination Performance of Secondary Schools in the Inner London Education Authority*, National Council for Educational Standards.

Mackenzie D (1983), 'Research for School Improvement: An Appraisal of Some Recent Trend', *Educational Researcher* 12: 5-16.

Matthews P and Smith G (1995), 'OFSTED: Inspecting schools and improvement through inspection', *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 25 (1), 23-34.

Maxcy S (1991), *Educational leadership: a critical pragmatic perspective*, Bergin & Garvey.

Middleton R (2001), *Leadership in the real world*, in Sergiovanni T (2001), *Leadership: What's in it for schools?* London: Routledge Falmer.

Miles M and Huberman M (1994), *Qualitative Data Analysis* (second edition), Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

Mortimore et al (1988), *School Matters: The junior years*, Salisbury: Open Books.

Mortimore P (1993), 'School Effectiveness and the Management of Effective Learning and Teaching', *School Effectiveness and School Improvement* 1993, Vol. 4, pp. 290-310. Swets & Zeitlinger.

NCSL (2002), *The Framework*, NCSL Online

Nixon J (1992), *Evaluating the Whole Curriculum*, Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

NUT (1998), *OFSTED: The Views of Headteacher and Deputy Head Headteacher Members of the National Union of Teachers*, Institute of Education Library: London.

NUT (2001), Evaluation, inspection and support, a system that works – proposals by the National Union of Teachers, *Education Review, Vol. 14, No. 2.*

OFSTED (1993), *The Handbook for the Inspection of Schools*, London: HMSO.

OFSTED (1994), *Corporate Plan 1994*: OFSTED.

OFSTED (1995), *Framework for the inspection of schools*, London: HMSO.

OFSTED (1995), *Guidance on the Inspection of Secondary Schools*, HMSO.

OFSTED (1995b), *Planning Improvement: A Report on Post-Inspection Action Plans*, London: HMSO.

OFSTED (1998), *The Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools* London: The Stationery Office.

OFSTED (1999), *The Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector: Standards and Quality in Education 1997/98*, London: The Stationery Office.

OFSTED (1999), *Inspecting Schools: The Framework*: The Stationery Office.

OFSTED (1999) *Handbook for Inspecting Secondary Schools*, London: The Stationary Office.

OFSTED (2000), *Improving City Schools*, OFSTED: London.

Oppenheim A (1992), *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*, London: Pinter Publishers Ltd.

Ouston J (1999), Chapter 13: School Effectiveness and School Improvement: Critique of a Movement, in Bush T, Bell L, Bolam R, Glatter R, and Ribbins P (eds.) *Educational Management: redefining theory, policy and practice*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Perrone V (1989), *Effective Schools, and Learning: reflections on teachers, schools, and communities*, New York: Teachers College Press.

Pfeffer J (1978). The Ambiguity of Leadership, in McCall M Jnr. and Lombardo M (Eds.) *Leadership: Where Else Can We Go? Pp. 13-34*, Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Pring R (2000), *Philosophy of Educational Research*, London: Continuum

Purkey and Smith M (1985), 'School Reform: the district policy implications of the effective school literature', *The Elementary School Journal* 85.

Reynolds D and Packer A (1992), 'School effectiveness and school improvement in the 1990s', In Reynolds and Cuttance (eds) *School Effectiveness: Research, Policy and Practice* 171-188. London: Cassell.

Reynolds D, Sammons P, Stoll L, Barber and Hilman J (1996), 'School Effectiveness and School Improvement in the United Kingdom', *School Effectiveness and School Improvement* 1996 Vol. 7, No. 2, pp. 133-158.

Rizvi F (1989), 'In defence of organisational democracy', in Smyth J (Ed.) *Critical Perspectives on Educational Leadership*, Falmer Press.

Rogers R and McIntire R (1983), *Organisational and Management Theory*, John Wiley and Sons.

Rutter M, Maughan B, Mortimore P and Ouston J (1979), *Fifteen Thousand Hours: Secondary Schools and their Effects on Children*, London: Cassell.

Sammons P, Thomas S, Mortimore P, Owen C and Pennell H (1994), *Assessing school effectiveness: Developing measures to put school performance in context,* London: OFSTED.

Sammons P, Nuttall D, Cuttance P and Thomas S (1995), 'Continuity of school effects: a longitudinal analysis of primary and secondary school effects on GCSE performance'. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement,* 6, 285-307.

Scott J (1990), A Matter of Record, in Johnson D (1994) *Research Methods,* in *Educational Management,* Longman.

Sergiovanni T (1987), 'The theoretical basis for cultural leadership', in Sheive L and Schoenheit M (Eds.) *Year Book of the Association of Supervision and Cultural Development,* Alexandria VA: ASCA.

Sergiovanni T (1983), *Administrative Leadership and Organisational Culture,* Urbana: University of Illinois.

Sergiovanni T (1990), 'Adding Value to Leadership Gets Extraordinary Results', *Educational Leadership.*

Sergiovanni T (1992), 'Why We Should Seek Substitutes for Leadership', *Educational Leadership.*

Simkins T (1995), *The Equity Consequences of Educational Reform,* Educational Management and Administration Vol. 23 No. 4 1995.

Smith D and Tomlinson S (1989), *The school effect: A study of multi racial comprehensives,* London: Policy Studies Institute.

Spaulding A (1997), 'Life in School – a qualitative study of teacher perspectives on the politics of principals: ineffective leadership behaviors and their consequence upon teacher thinking and behavior', *School Management,* Vol. 17, No. 1, pp. 39-55, 1997.

Starratt R (1986), *Excellence in education and quality of leadership,* Occasional Paper No. 1 Southern Tasmanian Council for Educational Administration.

Stogdill R (1948), 'Personal factors associated with leadership', *Journal of Psychology,* 25.

Stoghill R (1950), 'Leadership, Membership and Organisation'. *Psychological Bulletin,* 47 pp. 1-14.

Sturman A (1997), Case study methods, in Keeves J (ed.) *Educational Research, Methodology and Measurement: an International Handbook* (second edition), Oxford: Elswvier Sciencer Ltd.

Sutcliffe J (1998), *Leadership is the core of the Blair new world,* Times Educational Supplement 27 November 1998 p.2.

Taylor T (1995), *Movers and Shakers: high politics and the origins of the National Curriculum:* The Curriculum Journal Vol. 6 Summer 1995 pp. 161-184.

The Plowden Report: Central Advisory Council for Education (England) (1967), Children and their Primary School. London: HMSO, 1967. Non Parl.

Tizard B, Blatchford P, Burke P, Farquhar C and Plewis I (1988), *Young children at school in the inner city,* Hove: Lawrence Erlbaum.

The Prince's Trust (2000), *Mapping Disadvantage (young people who need help in England and Wales),* Research Summary.

Travers R (1969), *An Introduction to Educational Research,* London: Collier -Macmillan.

Weber M (1947), *The theory of Social and Economic Organisation,* New York: Oxford University Press.

White P (1982), 'Democratic perspectives on the training of headteachers', Oxford *Review of Education,* 8(1): 69-82.

Wilcox B and Gray J (1996), *Inspecting Schools: holding schools to account and helping schools to improve,* Open University Press.

Williams R (1962), *The Long Revolution: Harmondsworth,* Penguin.

Wilson N and McLean (1994), *Questionnaire Design: a Practical Introduction,* Newtown Abbey, Co. Antrim: University of Ulster Press.

Woods D and Orlik S (1994), *School Review and Inspection,* London, Kogan Page Ltd.

Velzen V et al (1985), *Making School Improvement Work,* ACCO, Leuven, Belgium.

APPENDIX A1
PILOT DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS
20 OFSTED Inspection Reports
Inner and Outer London Schools

Schools	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Total	%age
Standard of Education																						
GCSE examination results above national expectations	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	25%
GCSE examination results below national expectations	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15	75%
Quality of Learning																						
Good	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	10%
Sound/Satisfactory	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	6	30%
Unsatisfactory	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	5%
Poor	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Progress																						
Good	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	25%
Satisfactory	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	8	40%
Unsatisfactory	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	15%
Teaching Quality																						
Good	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	25%
Satisfactory	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	8	40%
Unsatisfactory	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	15%
Curriculum																						
Having a balanced curriculum	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	30%
Lacking a balanced curriculum	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	20%
Strong curriculum planning system	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	5	25%
Weak curriculum planning	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	7	35%

Management and Administration

		Total	%
School having clear aims	0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0	13	65%
Aims reflected in the ethos of the school	1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	2	10%
Aims not reflected in the ethos of the school	0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0	4	20%
Aims reflected in the curriculum	1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	4	20%
Aims not reflected in the curriculum	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0	5	25%

Policies/Documents

		Total	%
Having whole school policies in place	1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1	10	50%
Subject policies in place	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0	0%
Staff handbook in place	1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1	6	30%
Departmental handbook	0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	2	10%
Policies are implemented and monitored	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0	0%
Policies are not implemented and not monitored	1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1	5	25%

Job Description

		Total	%
Job description giving clear roles and responsibilities	0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0	5	25%
Having unclear job description	1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0	8	40%

Teacher Appraisal and Staff Development

		Total	%
Teacher appraisal and staff development in place	0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0	5	25%
Teacher appraisal and staff development not in place	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0	0%

Routine Administration

		Total	%
Good	1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 1	13	65%
Satisfactory	0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	2	10%
Unsatisfactory	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0	2	10%

Leadership

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20		
the headteacher provides clear vision	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	11	55%
The headteacher gives effective leadership	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	12	60%
The headteacher gives ineffective leadership	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	10%
The headteacher uses a collegial approach	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	5	25%
Governors are supportive	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	9	45%
Governors less supportive	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	4	20%

Management Structure

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20		
Is effective for managing change	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	25%
Is ineffective for managing change	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	6	30%
SMT in place	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	12	60%
SMT is effective	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	20%
SMT is ineffective	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	6	30%

Strategic Planning

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20		
SDP in place	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	9	45%
SDP sets priorities	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0		5	25%
Governors involved in formulating the SDP	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0		4	20%
SDP systematically monitored	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	15%

APPENDIX A2

40 OFSTED Inspection Reports
Inner and Outer London Schools

Schools	Code	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	Total	%age
Management																																											
Implementing a balanced and broad national curriculum	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	26	65%
The curriculum reflects the school's aims	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	22	55%
School policies are in place	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	27	68%
Excellent routine administration	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3%
Very good routine administration	5	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	11	28%
Good routine administration	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	19	48%
Satisfactory routine administration	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	15%
Unsatisfactory routine administration	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Poor routine administration	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3%
SMT is in place	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	39	98%
SMT is effective	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	24	60%
SMT is ineffective	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	13	33%
Job Descriptions provide clarity of role & responsibility	13	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	25%
Job Descriptions are vague and unclear	14	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	23%
Appraisal policy is in place	15	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	29		29	73%
Appraisal policy is consistently implemented	16	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	10		10	25%
Appraisal is linked to staff development	17	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	18	45%
Appraisal is inconsistently implemented	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	18%
Appraisal is not linked to staff development	19	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	8		8	20%
SDP is in place	20	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	36	90%
SDP is an effective working document	21	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	45%
SDP is an ineffective working document	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1		12	30%
Leadership																																											
The school has clearly stated objectives in place	23	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	24	60%
The headteacher provides strong and effective leadership	24	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	33	83%
The headteacher has a clear sense of direction and vision	25	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	20	50%
The headteacher adopts a collegial approach/delegates well	26	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10	25%
The headteacher engages in strategic planning	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	10%
The headteacher provides motivation for staff	28	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	4		4	10%
The headteacher provides weak leadership	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3%
Overall school leadership is effective	30	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	17		17	43%
Overall school leadership is ineffective	31	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	23	58%
Standards																																											
GCSE results are above national average	32	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	13	33%
GCSE results are below national average	33	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	26	65%
GCSE results below notional level, but adjusted for context	34	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	7		7	18%
Quality of teaching - very good	35	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2		2	5%
Quality of teaching - good	36	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	26	65%
Quality of teaching - satisfactory	37	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	10	25%
Quality of teaching - unsatisfactory	38	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	5%
Quality of teaching - poor	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%

Analysis of Pilot Questionnaire
Headteachers of the 20 OFSTED Inspection School Reports
Inner and Outer London Schools

School	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
Question									

(1) Were you the headteacher at the time of the first OFSTED inspection?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
YES	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	6	86%
NO	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	14%

(2) Do you accept the judgement of the inspection findings on the leadership and management performance of the school?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
YES	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	29%
NO	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	4	57%

If your answer is 'No' please give the reason(s) why you disagree
with the inspection judgement
(1) The RI and I have different views of leadership and management **(Different views)**
(2) None
(3) Unhappy with reference to weaknesses in management linked to SDP being judged to be a weak tool for management
(4) Judgement based solely on examination results. No account taken of casual admissions. At variance with local inspector
(5) Disagree with many of the judgements. The financial situation coloured judgement too much. Unable to see woods from trees
(6) None
(7) None

(3) Indicate below the extent to which the judgement of the inspection on leadership has influenced your present leadership style.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
No influence	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	29%
Some influence	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	3	43%
Significant influence	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	14%
Major influence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%

Please provide additional comments to explain the way in which
your leadership style has changed in response to the inspection
judgement on leadership and management
(1) None
(2) **It confirmed that I was on the right track** and gave me **confidence to take thing forward** - the sch. Has serious w/ness
(3) Personal style has not change, but management structure have
(4) Less willing to take disruptive children as casual admissions. This affects OFSTED's judgement
(5) None
(6) None
(7) None

(4) Which of the following would best describe your style of
leadership?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
Autocratic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Strong and task oriented	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	14%
Strong and democratic	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	3	43%
Consultative/Participatory	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	5	71%
Delegatory/Partnership	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	14%
Collegial	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	14%

Please provide additional comments to explain the choice you
have used to describe your leadership style
(1) Nobody can run a school on their own. **Need to carry staff with you** - crucial to raising standards
(2) Having recently completed the LPSH, I now made a 360 degree change, using a wide range of styles.
(3) I endeavour to get a consensus on many matters, but will make a firm decision when necessary.
(4) Pupil achievement is central. Teachers will work best is they have ownership of policies. Will I send my child to the school?
(5) I have influenced the direction of the school, but improvement is on possible if everyone is on board. Better 2nd OFSTED.
(6) Important to lead, but values the input of others. Decisions more likely to be successful if people feel they have a part in it.
(7) None

(5) Which of the following concepts best represent your
perception of the role of the headteacher?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
Leadership	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	100%
Management	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	5	71%
Chief Executive	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	29%

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**	**%age**
Professional Leader	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	43%

Please provide additional comments on the concept(s) you
selected to represent your perception of the role of the
headteacher
(1) All. The headteacher must be the **Entrepreneur** to a large extent. Opportunistic management is essential. Client culture
(2) They reflect the **complexity of the job**
(3) None
(4) Role is to get things done through other people. I must give a clear lead in what is to be done. High profile is essential.
(5) None
(6) None
(7) None

(6) Which of the following individuals or group are responsible for
exercising leadership and management functions in the school?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
Headteacher	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	100%
Deputy Headteacher	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	100%
Senior management Team	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	100%
Senior Teachers	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	100%
Heads of Departments	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	100%
Heads of Years/Houses	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	6	86%

Please provide additional comments to support your response (s)
(1) They are responsible and **accountable for their own areas**
(2) None
(3) We do not have heads of Year/House
(4) All are responsible in different ways. I must set the parameters, but I expect others to lead their teams to get the task done.
(5) The strength of management & leadership comes from the development of middle managers. Team leaders now lead.
(6) None
(7) None

(7) Which of the following categories would best explain the
function of the senior management team (SMT)?
Modeling standards

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
Modeling standards	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	6	86%
Defining and establishing the school's ethos	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	5	71%
Leading the annual school review (audit)	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	5	71%
Assisting in formulating the SDP	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	6	86%
Implementing the SDP/targets	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	5	71%
Monitoring the SDP/targets	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	5	71%
Reviewing and monitoring school policies	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	5	71%
Evaluating the quality of teaching	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	5	71%
Monitoring the curriculum planning process	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	5	71%

(8) Describe the processes used in formulating the SDP?
(1) **Definition of what we want to do.** What is affordable and practicable. .....and development & consultation
(2) Audit, whole school targets set by SMT, Team targets by depts, etc, termly review and next review cycle.
(3) Consultation with SMT, Governors and Parents. Draft by Head - discussion with SMT, JDC, Gov. & Staff.
(4) School wide discussion of goals. Proposals for action. Discussion at all appropriate levels. Writing draft. Governors.
(5) We use a 5 year cycle of evaluation and review. Governors have an input. Staff through staff meeting. Drafted with SMT.
(6) Consultation/questionnaire/focus groups - with (a) Staff (b) Parents and (c) Pupils.
(7) Whole day, whole school INSET, followed by voluntary working party and whole staff meeting.

(9) Indicate the school's league table performance for the past
three years, in respect of the national GCSE results
(1) 5 A*-C (96) 24% (97) 18% (98) 13% **Below national level and declining**
(2) 5A*-C (96) 48% (97) 47% (98) 59% **Above national level and improving**
(3) 5A*-C (96) 75% (97) 62% (98) 74% **Above national level and static**
(4) 5A*-C (96) 19% (97) 25% (98) 13% **Below national level and fluctuating**
(5) 5A*-C (96) 16% (97) 19% (98) 24% **Below national level and improving**
(6) 5A*-C (96) 85% (97) 83% (98) 86% **Above national level and static**
(7) 5A*-C (96) 26% (97) 40% (98) 29% **Below national level and fluctuating**

(10) Has the OFSTED inspection report assisted your school in
improving its performance in any of the following areas?

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
Pupil Attainment	YES	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	43%
	NO	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	4	57%
Attendance/Punctuality	YES	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
	NO	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	100%

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	%age
Pupils' Progress	YES	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	43%
	NO	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	43%
Teaching Quality	YES	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	4	57%
	NO	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	3	43%
Staff Turnover	YES	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	3	43%
	NO	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	4	57%
Curriculum Planning	YES	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	29%
	NO	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	5	71%
Curriculum Monitoring	YES	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	4	57%
	NO	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	43%
Staff Development Provisions	YES	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	43%
	NO	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	4	57%
Financial Administration	YES	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	29%
	NO	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	5	71%
School Ethos	YES	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	29%
	NO	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	4	57%
Behaviour and Pupil Management	YES	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	29%
	NO	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	5	71%
Whole School Audit/Review	YES	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	14%
	NO	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	6	86%

Additional information
(1) None
(2) None
(3) None
(4) Our 2nd OFSTED was positive. Plenty of accolades as well as areas for improvement. HT & DHT seconded to two schools.
(5) My second OFSTED was more helpful
(6) Second OFSTED was a very good experience. 6/13 subsect heads would have paid a consultant for the feedback.
(7) None

Analysis of Full Questionnaire Survey
Headteachers of the 40 OFSTED Inspection Schools
Inner and Outer London Schools

School	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	Total	%age
Question																								
(1) Were you the headteacher at:																								
(a) the first OFSTED inspection?																								
YES	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	11	50%
NO	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	11	50%
(b) the second OFSTED inspection																								
YES	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	8	36%
NO	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	9	41%
(2) Did you accept the inspection findings on leadership and management?																								
YES	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	12	55%
NO	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5%

If your answer is 'No' please give reason(s) why you disagree with
the inspection judgement
(1) No response
(2) No response
(3) No response
(4) No response
(5) Broadly accept the judgement. Lack of management expertise on the leadership team, especially with the first inspection.
(6) No response
(7) No response
(8) No response
(9) No response
(10) No response
(11) No response
(12) No response
(13) Insufficiently acknowledged rapid changes made and achievements recognised
(14) No response
(15) No response
(16) No response
(17) No response
(18) No response
(19) No response
(20) No response
(21) No response
(22) No response

(3) Indicate below the extent to which the judgement of the inspection findings on leadership has influenced your leadership of the school?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
No influence	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	7	32%
Some influence	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0		5	23%
Significant influence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	9%
Major influence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%

Please provide additional comments, if you wish

(1) Assisted self confidence after 1st inspection as I had been in the post only 5 terms before inspection

(2) No response

(3) No influence but very nice to receive accolade about leadership and management -a confidence boost"

(4) No response

(5) The main influence of the first inspection was impetus to develop lesson observation/self review.

(6) No response

(7) No response

(8) No response

(9) No response

(10) No response

(11) No response

(12)Focused on middle managers. They have vital role for raising standards. The comments on leadership were positive, including management. One can never be complacent. My role in monitoring has be influenced significantly by the inspection.

(13) No response

(14) No response

(15) No response

(16) No response

(17) The judgements provided impetus to progress in certain areas of the school already causing concern.

(18) No response

(19) The findings gave us the impetus to move forward on issues we were planning to undertake.

(20) No response

(21) No response

(22) No response

(4) Which of the following would best describe your style of leadership?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
Autocratic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Strong and task oriented	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1		5	23%
Strong and democratic	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0		5	23%
Consultative/Participatory	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	11	50%
Delegating/Partnership	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	14%
Collegial	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	9%

Please provide additional comments to explain the choice used to describe your leadership style.

(1) No response

(2) Really a mixture of 2 and 4

(3) Valuing everyone's views, including support staff. Sharing ideas - involving everyone/participation. I have monopoly on leadership, but subject teachers & NQTs are leaders in their own way

(4) No response

(5) It is necessary to move between the elements on the list, depending on the circumstances.

(6) No response

(7) No response

(8) No response

(9) No response

(10) The school required sharp leadership. The stage is now transitional

(11) No response

(12) I believe in ownership of decisions. I adopt elements of the other categories listed - strong/democratic. I believe in some autonomy of managers. I also like to work as a team

(13) No response

(14) No response

(15) No response

(16) No response

(17) There are elements of all of these

(18) No response

(19) I was Deputy Head (DHT) here prior to becoming HT. I have always worked in partnership with colleagues. Freedom and responsibility should be given to people.

(20) There is need to use a combination of styles at different times.
(21) No response
(22) No response

(5) Does your style of leadership accord with the OFSTED findings
on leadership, with respect to your school?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
YES	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	13	59%
NO	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%

Additional comments, if necessary.
(1) No response
(2) No response
(3) No response
(4) No response
(5) OFSTED does not use the set above in its judgements
(6) No response
(7) No response
(8) No response
(9) No response
(10) No response
(11) No response
(12) No response
(13) No response
(14) No response
(15) No response
(16) No response
(17) No response
(18) No response
(19) OFSTED praised the style and quality.
(20) No response
(21) No response
(22) No response

(6) Which of the following concepts best represent your
perception of the role of the headteacher?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
Leadership	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	18	82%
Management	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	12	55%
Chief Executive	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	5	23%
Professional Leader	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	16	73%
Facilitator	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	13	59%

Please provide additional comments, if necessary.
(1) Additional role - Communicator
(2) No response
(3) 1=Professional Leader 2=Facilitator 3=Leadership 4=Management
(4) No response
(5) All of them really.
(6) No response
(7) No response
(8) A Head is a chief executive who provides strong leadership
(9) No response

(10) No response

(11) No response

(12) Headship has become much more complex. I have at adopt to so many different structures and need to judge the most appropriate style/strategy to achieve objectives

(13) No response

(14) All are relevant

(15) Lead learner

(16) No response

(17) No response

(18) No response

(19) No response

(20) No response

(21) No response

(22) No response

(7) Do you systematically assess the quality of teaching, through classroom observations?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
YES	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	17	77%
N O	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	4	18%

(8) To what extent was the inspection judgement(s) on leadership and management affected by the performance of the leadership team and middle managers?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
Significantly	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	12	55%
Moderately	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	6	27%
Slightly	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	9%

(9) Which of the following categories would best explain the function of the leadership team?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
Modelling standards	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	17	77%
Defining and establishing the school's ethos	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	18	82%
Leading the annual school review/audit	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	15	68%
Assisting in formulating the SDP	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	18	82%
Implementing the SDP/targets	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	18	82%
Monitoring the SDP/targets	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	18	82%
Reviewing and monitoring school policies	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	18	82%
Evaluating the quality of teaching	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0		17	77%
Monitoring curriculum planning	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	16	73%

(10) Describe the processes used in formulating the SDP

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22

(1) **Consultation on priorities** with staff, students, governors and parents. SMT **identify** national, LEA, OFSTED **priorities and produces draft SDP.** Further **consultation** with staff, governors, students.

(2) Consultation between **all senior staff**

(3) Each teacher and support feed into the DDP - these in turn feed into SMT priorities. In addition reviews are conducted in all areas covering previous targets. Governors are fully involved. DHT & HT produce final draft. However, not before consultation with staff. Priorities agreed for all aspects of school life.

(4) No response

(5) Three year major review cycle/annual up-date. Led by Deputy Head, with school plan supported by faculty plans, HOY plans, governors committee plans.

(6) Remodelled on first action plan, but more realistic. **SMT agree to what was remodelled.**

(7) No response

(8) **Review, evaluate and formulate**

(9) Collaborate through **Curriculum Committee, governors, LEA and Staff.**

(10) **Review** - discussion focused widely, **SMT** - refine and create framework, **Consultation, SMT** - refine, **Faculty** - add their dimensioı t to faculties for their contribution, completion

(11) **Dept discussion** - DDP - SMT line managers discuss with HODs - SMT gives 2/3 issues to be included in DDP. SMT review SDP & draws up next year's plan, looking at DDP. Plans priorities

(12) Priorities are agreed each year - externally imposed and those identified through the review. Targets are shared with staff. Every 2 years we adopt a QUILL approach - SWOT analysis

to ensure all are still committed to the consensus. SDP in two parts - priorities and ongoing. Governors ratify the SDP.

(13) No response

(14) Five stage development cycle is generally appropriate

(15) 1. Identifying future perspectives 2. Strategic analysis 3. Strategic Intent 4. Strategic Planning 5. Operational Targets/Priorities

(16) No response

(17) Involvement of **middle managers** leading to **LT recommendations to governors**

(18) Review in Line-management 1/2 term. **New targets set**: immediate, mid and long term. S.T. conference 2 days.

(19) **All staff contribute.** Departments develop their own priorities and contribute to school priorities at 2 day conference (Oct/Nov) Review and planning take place at end of term

(20) 1. Governors set the vision 2. Staff consulted. 3. SMT defines SMART targets. 4. Implementation through **Departmental Action Plan.** 5. Annual **Review.** 6. **Priorities** for improvement 7. **Action Plan.** 8. Review

(21) Written by SMT. Consultation with staff. Amendments as necessary.

(22) Identification of priorities using last inspection report. **Departmental reviews,** targets identified by SMT and details of plan drawn up by the **managers.**

(11) Indicate the school's league table performances for the past   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22

three years for GCSE and KS4 SATS

(1) GCSE: 1997 42%;1998 51.4% and 1999 54.8% **Improving and just above national average.** SATS **Below** national level and declining.

(2) No response

(3) GCSE: 1997 24%; 1998 16% and 1999 22% **Fluctuating and below national level.** SATS **Below** national level, with slight improvements.

(4) GCSE: 1997 18%; 1998 13% and 1999 18% **Fluctuating and below national level.** SATS **Below** national level and fluctuating

(5) GCSE: 1997 40%; 1998 43% and 1999 47% **Improving but a shade below national level.** SATS Generally below national level and static.

(6) GCSE: 1997 35%; 1998 30% and 1999 35% **Declining and below national level.**

(7) GCSE: 1997 28%; 1998 25% and 1999 25% **Declining and below national level**

(8) GCSE: 1997 11%; 1998 12% and 1999 17% **Improving but below national level.** SATS **Below** national level

(9) GCSE: 1997 79%; 1998 87% and 1999 93% **Improving and above national level.** SATS **Above** national level

(10) GCSE: 1997 21%; 1998 24% and 1999 20% **Fluctuating and below national level.** SATS **Below**

(11) GCSE: 1997 28%; 1998 29% and 1999 33% **Improving and below national level.** SATS **Below** national level

(12) GCSE: 1997 64%; 1998 60% and 1999 66% **Fluctuating and above national level.**

(13) GCSE: 1997 26%; 1998 24% and 1999 29% **Fluctuating and improving, but below national level.**

(14) GCSE: 1997 46%; 1998 39% and 1999 63% **Fluctuating and improving - now above national level.**

(15) GCSE: 1997 30%; 1998 29% and 1999 40% **Improving and below national level.** SATS below national level

(16) GCSE: 1997 64%; 1998 61% and 1999 86% **Fluctuating and improving, but above national level.** SATS above national level

(17) GCSE: 1997 28%; 1998 30% and 1999 31% **Slow improvement and below national level.** SATS below national level and improving.

(18) GCSE: 1997 27%; 1998 29% and 1999 32% **Improving but below national level.** SATS below national level, but improving slowly.

(19) GCSE: 1997 56%; 1998 48% and 1999 51% **Falling but above national level.** SATS above national level.

(20) GCSE: 1997 37%; 1998 40% and 1999 41% **Improving and below national level.**

(21) GCSE: 1997 16%; 1998 15% and 1999 25% **Improving and below national level.**

(22) GCSE: 1997 60%; 1998 63% and 1999 68% **Improving and above national level.** SATS at national level.

(12) Has the OFSTED inspection report assisted your school in improving its performance in any of the following areas?

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
Pupils Attainment	YES	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	11	50%
	NO	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	8	36%
Attendance/Punctuality	YES	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	18%
	NO	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15	68%
Pupils' Progress	YES	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	9	41%
	NO	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	10	45%
Teaching Quality	YES	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	12	55%
	NO	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	8	36%
Staff Turnover	YES	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	14%
	NO	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	15	68%
Curriculum Planning	YES	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	18%
	NO	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	14	64%
Curriculum Monitoring	YES	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0		6	27%
	NO	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1		14	64%
Staff Development Provision	YES	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0		3	14%
	NO	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1		16	73%
Financial Administration	YES	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1		2	9%
	NO	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0		16	73%
School Ethos	YES	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		2	9%
	NO	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1		16	73%
Behaviour and Pupil Management	YES	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0		6	27%

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
	NO	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	12	55%
Whole School Audit/Review	YES	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	12	55%
	NO	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	8	36%

(13) Has the school had a second OFSTED inspection

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
	YES	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	13	59%
	NO	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	7	32%

(14) If your answer is 'Yes', was your school judged to be improving?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
YES	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	11	50%
NO	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	9%

Please give additional comments, if you wish.

(1) All priorities from the first inspection addressed.
(2) No response
(3) Released from serious weaknesses. Has been in special measures 1995-1997. HMI report said t in 1997 said some serious weaknesses still remained. May 2000 first full OFSTED under new framework
(4) No response
(5) No response
(6) No response
(7) No response
(8) Judged to be one of the 42 most improved school
(9) No response
(10) No response
(11) No response
(12) No response
(13) No response
(14) No response
(15) No response
(16) No response
(17) No response
(18) No response
(19) No response
(20) No response
(21) No response
(22) No response

(15) To what extent has your school's action plan, in response to the key issue from the first inspection, been implemented? (Please tick as appropriate)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		
Completely	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	9	41%
Substantially	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	8	36%
Partially	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	18%

END