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**Teacher Education Practice**

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**Overview**

This paper examines some of the issues related to the practice of teacher education. Here a wide definition of teacher education is taken, looking to the preparation, career long development and induction and continuing development in the area of leadership. The paper begins with a brief overview of the wider context of social and economic policy where demands for social and economic development has had a significant impact on the practice of teacher education. These demands placed on education have raised significant questions about the most effective way of educating teachers to be able to fulfill these ambitions. This paper will examine three broad areas of practice which are currently the focus of debate and development in teacher education: initial teacher education, career long teacher development to support accomplished teaching and leadership development. Across these areas there are some recurring themes which this paper will explore:

- the issue of selection into teacher education but also at specific career transitions points;
- the principles underpinning teacher education; and
- who are the teacher educators.

**Setting the Agenda**

Questions of the quality of teaching are now regarded pivotal where education is seen as the basis for economic development within developing countries and economic regeneration in developed countries alike. A direct link between educational outcomes and economic performance has been made by the OECD (2010) in the recent report, *The High Cost of Low Educational Performance*. The authors of this report, acknowledging that educational reform and improvement is a difficult task, nevertheless argue that differences in cognitive skill can be used to explain differences in economic performance. However, this is not simply a question of resourcing education. Barber and Mourshed (McKinsey Report, 2007) note that although spending on education had increased significantly in OECD countries there has not been the expected increase in 'outcomes', that is in the achievement of learners in aspects such as literacy and numeracy. Thus "[t]he available evidence suggests that the main driver of variation in student learning at school is the quality of teachers" (p 12). Barber and Mourshed (2007: 13) found three features shared by the top performing systems:

- They get the right people to be come teachers (the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of teachers).

- They develop these people into effective instructors (the only way to improve outcomes is to improve instruction).
- They put in place systems and targeted support to ensure that every child is able to benefit from excellent instruction (the only way for the systems to reach the highest performance is to raise the standard of every student).

Central to this search for improvement are two issues: the development of high quality teaching and of leadership. The findings of comparative reports have led to reviews of teacher education in a number of educational systems. For example, Scotland has just completed a major review of teacher education, covering all aspects of career long teacher education (Scottish Government, 2010) and the USA is in the middle of its first national review of higher education provision for initial teacher education (NCTQ, 2011). The practice of teacher education is in a state of flux and is also deeply contested.

Initial teacher education is affected by the general drive for extended professionalism of teachers. There is a growing understanding among policy makers and academics that in order to achieve the professionalisation of the workforce that is being looked for, teacher learning should be structured over the phases of a career long continuum (OECD, 2005; European Commission, 2007; Council of the European Union, 2007; Day 2006, 2010). Countries, such as Portugal, are reforming their teacher education programmes along these lines (Campos 2010:13). The conceptualisation of teacher education as a continuum takes the pressure off the initial phase where teacher educators had been asked to expand the curriculum to include new policy or curricular initiatives. Teacher educators can focus only on those aspects of learning appropriate to the first phase and are no longer required to fit 'everything a teacher has to know and do in a career' into the initial phase. However the construction of career long teacher education brings with it the question of how to go about constructing approaches to the development of serving teachers and leaders that leads to improvement in pupil learning outcomes. This paper will now consider the impact of these demands on the practice of teacher education in the three broad areas of initial teacher education, continuing professional development (CPD) and leadership development.

### **Initial teacher education**

Interest in initial teacher education, not only in terms of scholarship but also in terms of policy, is high (OECD, 2005, Darling Hammond, 2006). Following on from the international comparison studies (Barber and Mourshed, 2007) one current focus is on the quality of entrants. However, there are other areas of debate relating to where initial teacher education should take place, who should be involved and what form it should take.

### *Recruitment*

The move to extend professionalism can be seen at the point of recruitment where countries are attempting to raise the level of entry qualification to teaching programmes. Like many other countries, Scotland is an all-graduate teaching profession. The McKinsey Report records that Singapore, South Korea, Finland and Hong Kong recruit student teachers from the top third of their graduate cohorts (McKinsey, 2007). Although there is no direct link between teacher quality and the high-performance of the systems, recruitment of the most highly qualified graduates is a feature of these systems (Menter 2010:27). Studies in

Denmark and Norway 'show that students' grade-point average at the time of admission is of major importance for success in completing the studies' (Rasmussen and Dorf 2010:51). Additionally some countries, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, have attempted to ensure applicant quality by requiring applicants to undertake additional tests. The nature of these tests vary and the results they generate are not statistically related to retention or quality.

In another attempt to improve the quality of beginning teachers, programmes of initial teacher education are being devised which grant Masters-level credit or, indeed, culminate in a Master's degree and this movement towards Masters-level work could lead to teaching becoming a Masters-level profession, indeed, that a Masters qualification will be achieved in the early phase, as has happened over the last twenty years in Finland. Zumwalt and Craig note that from AACTE's data there has been a 'jump in the numbers of students at the master's level, even at what historically had been bachelor's-degree-only programmes (Zumwalt and Craig 2006:118).

However, the difficulties in forecasting how many teachers will be needed is not an exact science. In periods when there is a lack of suitably qualified applicants, in times of temporary teacher shortage or in order to secure teachers to teach in difficult areas, governments sometimes resort to alternative routes which by-pass higher education altogether. In Sweden some teachers are not qualified and in England and America where there have been fluctuations in the numbers of teachers needed, various alternative forms have been devised – Teach for America and in England, Teach First, are the most well-known (Lundstrom 2010: 183; Menter *et al.* 2010:19-20). In the USA each state has different certification requirements and multiple certificates. There is a pattern in which new teachers and teachers of shortage subjects are not certified (Zumwalt and Craig 2006b:170-174).

One of the most common issues raised with regard to recruitment into teaching is the growth of diverse populations in classrooms and the largely monocultural white, middle-class female population which teaches them. While a great deal of work has been done to understand the ways in which all students – those of color, those with additional support needs – can be included in mainstream schools and successfully educated, there has been little progress on widening the range of classes and ethnicities who wish to become teachers. As entry tariffs rise, then those qualified to teach are also qualified to enter a range of other employments and professions. Thus the rise in tariffs needs to be associated with outcomes in terms of status and reward which parallel those of other comparable employment routes. There is a real need to look at assumptions of teacher education programmes rather than depending on separate or alternative routes into teaching.

#### *Teacher education programmes*

There is little consensus about the relative proportions of the constituent elements of initial teacher education programmes particularly the balance between building knowledge and developing skill and the relationship between the different sites of learning, particularly university based learning and experiential learning school. There is, however, some degree of commonality around their content. Students will normally develop their knowledge and understanding of subject areas and of pedagogical strategies; their skills in the classroom and following the work of colleagues such as Feiman-Nemser (2001), students are also asked to

interrogate their beliefs, values and teacher identity. These competences and dispositions are developed sometimes in schools, sometimes in higher education institutions. Programmes in the USA since the 1980s have often included a strong liberal arts/science component by requiring teacher education students routes to be graduates.

Although debates about subject knowledge and pedagogical subject knowledge continue, efforts to extend professionalism have taken a new direction. Those who espouse the 'inquiry turn' (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 2001) which characterises much of contemporary discussion of teacher learning, argue that by developing reflective processes, often identified as the main form of teacher learning, by systematically inquiring into their own practice, or into areas identified by the school as requiring further attention, teachers develop a greater understanding of their own professionalism, develop their practice and continue to feel motivated about what they do. These forms of professional learning, which characterized later stages of professional development are now being embedded in initial teacher education in order to form in beginning teachers the rationale and skills associated with the professional learning which will characterise their whole career. The practitioner enquiry methodology is well suited to a higher degree, such as a master's program. As these enquiries are often generated from whole-school improvement plans, there are opportunities for initial teacher education students to work collaboratively. It is still the case, however, that work undertaken for an accredited program is likely to be undertaken on an individual basis. It is argued that his re-positioning of the teacher as being an active producer of evidence-based knowledge has benefits for teacher learning, pupil outcomes, teacher motivation, teacher accountability and a re-organisation of the roles and responsibilities of school and university-based teacher educators (Darling-Hammond 2006; Machala 2010:69). It is also argued that this enabling of teacher learning, begun during the initial phase, will be more likely to produce the extended professionalism required of teachers than old models of continuing professional development, which were not closely integrated to teacher practice.

### *Partnerships*

Although experience in schools is generally agreed to be an important feature of teacher education, there is, again, variation in the nature of the partnerships, which exist between teacher education providers and partners in schools. Some countries such as Singapore and some US states have highly developed partnerships in which school-based mentors are responsible for the learning of students in schools and assessment is undertaken jointly between school and university staff at boards chaired by principals / head teachers. Even where there are very developed relationships there can still be quite marked differences in how the roles are conceptualized and distributed. Menter *et al* propose a three-fold typology – models where there are separate roles (Singapore), models which focus on pedagogic relationships (Netherlands and Finland) and collaborative models developed in Australia and the US. In Professional Development Schools in America in UPS there are posts where some teachers do not teach children or young people but are responsible for teacher and student learning. The use of the school as the site of the learning of children and young people and the professional learning of teachers means that new roles can be developed for school and university staff in order to achieve and support the achievement of these aims (Menter *et al* 2010:28). This idea of a 'hub school' (Scottish Government, 2010) is an area of experimentation in Scotland for example 'the clinical schools model.' Part of this area of

development is looking to ways of developing and indeed improving the practice of serving teachers.

### **Teachers' career long development – fostering accomplishment in teaching**

The case for an extended programme of initial teacher preparation and induction, incorporating closer and more active models of school and provider partnership has been outlined above and in related 'State of the Art' papers (Noble Rogers, 2011). During the early phase of teachers' development, the focus has often been developing strategies to support early career development, such as the Teacher Induction Scheme in Scotland, and in many cases to mitigate attrition rates. However the numbers leaving at that stage represents only a small proportion of the profession, and the majority of teachers, will be directly engaged in practice for the duration of their careers, many retiring after lengthy years of service. How do teachers remain enthused and engaged, how is their growing expertise developed, harnessed and shared and how is evolving accomplishment recognised and rewarded? Such issues were associated with many 'workforce remodelling' agreements that characterised the early years of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. In Scotland this was evident in the Teachers' Agreement, *A Teaching Profession for the Twenty First Century* (SEED, 2001). While the key focus was on teachers' pay and conditions of service, their professional learning and development became increasingly linked to this, through for example, the introduction of mandatory continuing professional learning (CPD) and incentivised forms of CPD, linked to salary remuneration.

A range of models have evolved that help teachers develop and that recognise and reward, expertise or accomplishment in teaching. These take different forms, though there are many similarities: Advanced Skills Teachers and Excellent Teachers in England; Chartered London Teacher in England's capital city; Chartered Teacher in Scotland and Wales; National Board Certified Teachers in USA, Master Teacher in Singapore and Advanced Skills Teachers in Australia (see OECD, 2009). In Chile teachers can apply individually for the Pedagogical Excellence Award but benefit also from the National System of Performance Assessment (SNED) that rewards top performing schools (OECD, 2009:45). Such schemes are not without controversy, particularly if linked to financial incentives based on student performance on national, state or standardised tests.

While there is some variety in the range of schemes adopted internationally, common features include career milestones marked by recognition and remuneration through application and demonstration of attainment of benchmarks or standards and in some instances a staged model for progression. Other features include:

- progression through a postgraduate programme of study leading to a Masters qualification;
- individual responsibility for costs (fees for postgraduate study / application for award);
- award of new professional status; and
- salary remuneration.

There are also some similarities in the construction of professional learning on which they are based, particularly when they are related to postgraduate programmes of study. As noted

above, these collaborative, reflective and enquiry based approaches to practice have also become key pillars for programmes of initial teacher preparation and induction. As teachers progress through postgraduate study to Masters, these become increasingly more sophisticated and complex. The processes for measuring this developing accomplishment or expertise vary, though often involves the submission of a professional portfolio, which evidences, directly and indirectly, the claims made for expertise in practice.

Reshaping teacher education and teachers' professional learning to reflect and provide for teachers' career long development, and through this promote and foster accomplishment, was the focus of a series of international symposia and national seminars on *Accomplished Teaching* held in Scotland in 2010 (Forde, 2010a; 2010b). The fostering of accomplishment in teaching and the relationship between accomplished teaching and career long progress has also been a key focus of the recent review of teacher education in Scotland: *Teaching Scotland's Future* (Scottish Government, 2010). From the symposia and seminars, there was broad agreement that accomplishment in teaching reflects depth and quality in practice rather than simply the accumulation of experience, so that accomplished teaching should be perceived as a process rather than a destination; a process starting early and sustained over a teacher's career. The focus should not be on 'reaching a standard' as the culmination of accomplishment but instead look for richer measures of impact over a sustained period. The depth and the breadth of the repertoire and the ability to apply this in different contexts were seen to be important (Forde 2010a; 2010b).

Reconceptualising teachers' learning and development in this way has implications for the ways in which pre-service and in-service programmes of teacher education are developed and delivered but it has also implications for the ways in which leadership is exercised in schools. While on the one hand, there is now a continuum for teacher education and professional development, linked in many cases to a set of professional standards, career long teacher education cannot be conceived of as a linear process: there is no single process or typical career trajectory that could be identified. Instead it is important to recognise the non-linear and sometimes fluctuating nature of teachers' careers. Teachers will reach different levels of expertise and accomplishment at varying rates, and in many cases this is not age related nor linked to years of experience / service. In planning for career long development, there is debate about the extent to which key principles and practices associated with both accomplishment and leadership can be embedded in initial or pre-service programmes of study and developed and enhanced further through in-service study. Indeed Darling-Hammond (2006) argues that one outcome of initial teacher education, and a facet of all levels of teacher education should be the development of 'adaptive experts.' Further work is also needed to smooth points of threshold or transition so that the stages of teacher growth, development and advancement are more fluid rather than lock step.

If teacher education continues to be reconstructed in the ways outlined above, some important questions remain about how to secure and sustain teachers' engagement post qualifying, and how to foster accomplishment that can have impact for their pupils and in their schools. Much can be learned from the forms of accomplished teaching that have evolved in recent years. In models such as Chartered Teacher in Scotland, significant salary remuneration was not sufficiently attractive to entice greater numbers of teachers and since its introduction in 2003 until a freeze on entry in 2011, only 1248 had been awarded

Chartered Teacher status. Uptake for the Excellent Teacher Scheme in England, introduced in 2006 has also remained small. A report on the scheme published in 2009 noted that by December 2008 only 59 had been successfully assessed and eight had been unsuccessful (Hutchings, 2009:14). In its review: *Evaluating and Rewarding the Quality of Teachers* (2009), the OECD notes that the challenge is to design such programmes so the possibility of the incentive is sufficiently high – otherwise only those teachers who are likely to receive one are incentivized (OECD, 2009:19). Non-financial incentives, or a mixed model, where teachers are given time for study during the school year, or short or extended sabbaticals as in Singapore, in addition to salary remuneration, may prove more attractive (Lee & Tan, 2010).

A further dimension to the issue of teachers' engagement with programmes and schemes designed to foster and recognise accomplishment in teaching is the increasingly 'privatised' nature of professional learning. The shift in recent years to individual responsibility for professional learning, with the costs shouldered by the practitioner, can act as disincentive for engagement and reluctance to share expertise collectively. This was evident in the Chartered Teacher initiative in Scotland where the entry criteria was such that applicants were not required to inform their principal / head teacher that they were pursuing Chartered Teacher status and indeed, in the early years of the initiative, it was a 'clandestine' activity for some teachers (Connolly and McMahon, 2007:101). Adjustments to the entry process as the initiative developed, requiring applicants to inform their head teachers that they were participating in the scheme, sought to address this, together with greater clarification of the types of activities Chartered Teachers could contribute to (SNCT, 2009). Such tensions have been avoided in schemes such as the Advanced Skills Teacher scheme in England, where the types of activities that the AST can contribute to are clearly outlined. Significantly an important aspect of the work of an AST is 'outreach' where 20% of their time each week is spent working with teachers in other schools (DCFS, 2010).

Given the resource implications of incentivised models of professional learning, an important issue is evidence of impact. The research base for this, though growing, remains small. From research undertaken evidence does seem to be emerging of impact. Research conducted in 2009 by the National Research Council relating to National Board Certification in the USA found that National Board Certification:

- improves student achievement and learning
- develops effective teachers
- makes a difference in high need schools
- retains teachers; and
- recognises skilled teachers and leaders (NBPTS, 2011).

Research on the Chartered Teacher initiative in Scotland in 2007 found that teachers were making a range of formal and informal contributions in their schools and were particularly involved in the mentoring and coaching of their colleagues (McMahon, Reeves *et al*, 2007). Further research in 2010 indicated that it is in the area of pedagogical leadership and curriculum development and innovation that Chartered Teachers are most active and have most influence (McMahon, 2011; Reeves & McMahon *et al*, 2010). In England, a study looking at the benefits of CPD in 2008, found that many ASTs and ETs played an important part in organising and leading CPD (Pedder *et al*, 2008). This suggests that accomplished teachers do have the capacity to make a difference to pupil learning, to their colleagues'

development and to contribute to school improvement, if school cultures and structures are open to this. For this to occur leadership in schools needs to be reconceptualised and reorganized and as the following section shows, much has already been achieved in the shift towards more distributed forms and cultures of leadership in schools.

A career long approach to teacher education and the development and sustaining of accomplished teaching requires commitment and participation from all, with the strengthening of existing partnerships and the establishment of new ones. Building capacity at school level, through strengthened partnership relationships, will foster knowledge exchange between practitioners and researchers and ground practice securely in theory and practice. This process would also strengthen research and its roots in the profession.

The development of teacher education in the last decade reflects the organic nature of professional learning and there are now clearer pathways for teachers to progress in the profession. Allied to this are the systems, relationships, cultures and rewards that have evolved to support this in flexible and adaptive ways, so that it is responsive to more recent shifts in emphasis towards teachers' relicensing and professional update. There is a danger however that the 'remodelled' profession of the early 21<sup>st</sup> century is increasingly being dismantled in an era of financial constraint, accountability and scrutiny, as in Scotland, where entry to the Chartered Teacher programme has recently been frozen and the fostering of accomplishment in teaching becomes a tussle between investing more generally to improve teacher quality or more specifically to incentivise and reward expert teaching. One way to reconcile this may be to align accomplishment and leadership more closely.

### **Leadership**

Leadership is a key focus of educational policy with debates about the responsibilities of leaders, the nature of leadership, the recruitment of leaders and the skills of effective leadership under scrutiny (Pont et al, 2008). The demands on head teachers and principals has intensified (Mulford, 2002) from the various policies which established management systems for the scrutiny of the performance of individuals, enacted externally mandated reforms and more recently used international comparative data collection to drive reform. The use of large scale reform programmes across state or national systems has more recently called into question the efficacy of such approaches in which the school leader was placed as the 'conduit' through which external reforms programmes would pass into the school and classrooms, for example, ideas of 'turnaround' leadership (Fullan, 2006), 'breakthrough' leadership' (Fullan *et al*, 2006) and 'motion' leadership (Fullan, 2010) and *The Fourth Way*, (Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009) all advocating a form of leadership to bring about systemic and sustained change.

Side by side with the shift in the expectations of leadership in school is the question of succession planning. In a number of studies (MacBeath *et al* 2009, MacBeath, 2011) point to the issue facing a number of systems about the recruitment of the next generation of school leaders. This is only partly a question of the demographics of an ageing profession (Peterson, 2002). Thomson argues the current issue of recruitment and retention: "derives from the nature of heads' everyday work" (p150). Although Thomson (2009) and MacBeath *et al* (2009) found that many head teachers reported great job satisfaction, at the same time



headship is becoming a less attractive career choice including intensification of work, the demand for unrelenting change and increasing pressures. Gronn (2003) sees this as part of the greediness of leadership as leaders become more and more emotionally entangled in their role as leader. It is against this backdrop that different approaches to leadership development are being established.

### *Leadership development*

Leadership development has been a keynote of improvement efforts in many educational systems internationally (Bush, 2008) particularly where the quality leadership is one of the factors pointed to consistently (for example, Sammons *et al*, 1995, Hallinger & Heck, 1998) as the means of bringing about institutional improvement (Leithwood *et al*, 2006). Therefore as Huber (2008:176) argues: “[t]here is broad international agreement about the need for school leaders to have the capacities to improve teaching, learning and pupils’ development and achievement.” Given the significance of leadership for school performance, who should provide leadership development and how this is constructed is a much debated issue. The involvement of universities remains a question with Levine’s (2005) criticism of the academic nature of such programmes although as McCarty and Forsyth note (2009) there has been significant changes in this form of provision. In the UK ‘leadership academies’ have been instituted by government to lead leadership development including the National College in England (Bush, 2004) and proposals for the expansion of a virtual college in Scotland (Scottish Government, 2010). Davies *et al* (2006) argue that leadership development programmes benefit from the establishment of partnerships between universities and employers. They also note that there has been an expansion of providers of leadership development including universities, local school districts but also an increasing use of private organisations particularly management consultants. This ‘mixed economy’ (Davidson *et al*, 2009) is also evident in the practice of leadership development.

Though the literature is replete with different constructions of leadership, the current dominant constructions that are shaping the practice of leadership development are:

- distributed leadership (Gronn 2000, 2002, Spillane 2006)
- leadership for learning (MacBeath and Dempster, 2009).

These two constructions of leadership are shaping the practice of leadership development by firstly widening the scope of those who engage in leadership development and secondly by sharpening the focus on the development of leadership practice to impact positively on pupil learning. The concentration in the past has been on the development of aspirant and serving school principals (Dinham *et al*, 2011). More recent research has pointed to the significance of leadership density (Sergiovanni 2001) through which the number of people working with and leading others and having access to new ideas will expand the pool of staff “who have an important stake in the school and its success” (p 116). Therefore leadership development can be targeted at different points in a teacher’s career and indeed there have been various schemes designed to talent spot and accelerate teachers into leadership posts (Simkins *et al*, 2009, Earley and Jones, 2011).

### *Leadership development as a continuum.*

Huber (2004) notes in his international comparative study of the development of school leaders that the establishment of a uniform approach to leadership development at a particular point in a teacher’s career is not supported. Instead the idea of a leadership development

continuum has taken hold. This continuum can take different forms, some making broad distinctions between early leadership, middle and strategic – for example a framework used in Scotland which has four ‘stages’ where the scope and responsibilities increase incrementally: project leadership – taking forward a development project, team leadership – first line management role, school leadership those aspiring and newly appointed to headship and strategic, serving experienced headteachers (SEED, 2003). Huber (2004: 87) proposes a career long leadership development approach with six phases in each of which there will be particular concerns and approaches more appropriate for that stage of leadership development:

- a continuous development phase for teachers: ... training and development for teachers in the fields of school effectiveness, school improvement and school leadership;
- orientation phase: ...the opportunity for teachers interested in leadership positions to reflect on the role of the school leader in respect to their own abilities and expectations;
- a preparation phase: this occurs prior to taking over a school leadership position or even before applying for it;
- an induction phase: after taking over a school leadership position, development opportunities are provided to support the school leader in his or her new position;
- a continuous professional development phase: this provides various training and development opportunities for established school leaders, best tailored to their individual needs and those of their schools; and
- a reflective phase: this provides the opportunity for experienced school leaders to continue to grow introspectively by being involved in development programs for others as coaches and to gain new experiences through learning by teaching, supplemental trainer-the trainer programmes, and the exchange with younger colleagues who participate in programmes. (87)

#### *Approaches to leadership development*

Although the relationship between educational leadership – wherever it is exercised in a school – and pupil learning is widely supported, the question of how you develop this form of leadership remains contentious. Forde (2011: 355) characterized three broad approaches to leadership development found in international examples:

- an apprentice based approach where the prerequisite skills in leadership and management are required through experience in schools, that is learning ‘on the job’;
- a knowledge based approach where masters level qualifications in the area of leadership and management are undertaken at a university;
- an experiential learning based approach where there is the focus on structured sets of experiences to acquire the necessary understandings, skills and personal development.

However, Davis *et al* (2005) found a lack of data on the impact of leadership development on their practice, measures relating to effectiveness were largely course evaluation and self report. In-depth studies have been conducted on particular programmes of leadership

development, an example being the range of studies on two routes to achieving the professional standard for headship (SEED, 2005) in Scotland: O'Brien and Draper (2001), Menter *et al*, (2003), Reeves and Forde (2005), Davidson *et al*, (2008), but as Forde *et al*. (forthcoming) argue to some degree impact of particular leadership development programmes can be tracked on the development of the individual leader in terms of understanding, skill and confidence and to a lesser degree on the attitudes and practice of staff it is difficult to track direct impact of particular forms of leadership development on pupil learning. Consequently, large scale studies of leadership development such as Huber (2004) and Davies *et al* (2006) point to leadership development as a complex process bringing together a range of practices. Huber (2004) put forward nineteen factors in leadership development some concerning structures and systems such as quality assurance, trainers' credentials and participant certification, while others related to the place of learning. Further, it is evident from Huber's list that leadership learning is multidimensional, needing to build knowledge and understanding, the ability to articulate and defend practice on the basis of educational purposes as well as capabilities including interpersonal and intellectual abilities. Similarly, from their survey Davies *et al* (2006) noted particular aspects that needed to be included in leadership preparation programmes. Consideration had to be given to the content of the programmes to include research-based material to build both knowledge and criticality along with a coherent and well-designed programme. They also, like Dinham *et al* (2011) found a place for standards in programme design, an issue, which has raised concerns elsewhere (Gronn, 2003 and Thomson, 2009). At the core though lies a construction of leadership development as a process that fosters a critically reflective and developmental stance on the part of a leader and as Davies *et al* (2006) propose there are a variety of methods but the critical factor is the need "to allow principals or aspiring principals to apply the curricular content in authentic settings and toward the resolution of real-word problems and dilemmas."

## **Conclusion**

There are as we have seen, strong social and economic imperatives behind the drive for improvement in education. There is a danger though that these wider imperatives will over shadow the educational concerns. Timperley *et al* (2007) point clearly to the fact that pupil learning is strongly influenced by what and how a teacher teaches but we cannot reduce teaching to a simple set of skills and routines in the classroom, nor leadership to simply a set of interpersonal skills. Instead we need to see teaching and leadership as theoretically informed activities and that a strong theoretical base is the foundation of decisions about the learning needs of individual pupils and groups of pupils and the ways of creating contexts in which learners can flourish. Here we need to keep the central focus on pupil learning but at the same time we need to keep educational concerns at the heart of the practice of education as Fullan *et al* argue, for 'certain non negotiable beliefs':

- All students can achieve high standards, given sufficient time and support.
- All teachers can teach to high standards, given the right conditions and assistance.
- High expectations and early intervention are essential.
- Teachers need time to learn, they need time to be able to articulate both what they do and why they do it (Hill and Crevola 1999, cited in Fullan *et al* 2006).

However, we have to appreciate that the way to achieve the first two ambitions about pupil achievement and teacher quality, is by creating education programmes for teachers and

leaders that enable them to grapple with the issues of teaching and learning in an ever changing context: here the question of why we engage in particular teaching or leadership practices, the purposes and knowledge base on which these are built is equally important as how we go about the practice of educating pupils. Teacher education is a complex process which takes place in many sites for learning and demands contributions from many perspectives and partners. Acknowledging this in the practice of teaching is to appreciate that this is a multifaceted approach – no one way has all the answers.

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