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**Performativity and Inadequacy in School Leadership Development: A  
Comparative Study of Primary Schools in Punjab (India) and Midlands (UK)**

**Jaspal Kaur**

**A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield  
in partial fulfilment of the requirement  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**The School of Education and Professional Development  
The University of Huddersfield**

**April 2022**

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## Abstract

The study set out to understand how continuing professional development (CPD) of primary headteachers in the state schools in two diverse contexts: Midlands (UK) and Punjab (India) was organised. It aimed to identify approaches employed for headteachers' CPD and the impact they had on headteachers' approach to school leadership. It also aimed to identify the key factors facilitating and inhibiting headteachers' participation in CPD activities in both contexts.

Twenty-two primary headteachers (eight from the Midlands and fourteen from Punjab) were interviewed. In addition, data was collected by conducting focus groups with three headteachers and three CPD training team members from Punjab. Also, data was collected by observing (18 hours) headteachers attending three days formal training organised by the government of Punjab. All research data was thematically analysed by using four theoretical frameworks to understand the phenomenon under investigation which are the Network of Practice (NoP) (Brown & Duguid, 2000), Community of Practice Theory (CoP) (Wenger, 1998), Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000), and a Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning in Work (Sambrook, 2002).

The research findings suggest that the English headteachers' CPD lacks a systematic approach as their CPD activities are decided on the basis of their school development plans (SDP) rather than their personal professional development needs. In contrast, Punjabi headteachers have formal training, however from headteachers' perspective, this training is inadequate as the aims and objectives are set on the basis of policy initiatives and their personal professional development needs are not considered. The findings also suggest that the English headteachers regard their "collaborative groups" as an effective tool for enhancing their professional practice. Punjabi headteachers, on the other hand, tend to seek informal help from their family, friends, and other local community members whenever they get stuck with a specific task. Finally, the findings reveal that primary headteachers' professional development in the both contexts is influenced by three levels of factors which involve individual, organisational and functional, for instance their motivation to learn, the culture of their school and availability of resources, and funding required for their professional development activities (Sambrook, 2002).

The findings identified that each context of this study has something positive to offer which, if combined together, may contribute to an effective CPD of headteachers in both contexts. For instance, the English headteachers have "collaborative groups" and availability of online training but lack an organised formal CPD and Punjabi headteachers have an organised formal CPD but deprived of "collaborative groups" and online training.

This study fills the gap in the Network of Practice (NoP) (Brown & Duguid, 2000) by integrating three dimensions of practice known as mutual engagement, joint enterprise, and shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998) to provide a coherent structure and three levels of capacity building namely personal, interpersonal, and organisational (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000) to provide an appropriate curriculum for headteachers' professional development. This study proposes a framework for forming a NoP for headteachers' CPD including a factor analysis model to identify potential barriers and facilitators for their participation in CPD activities. The combination of four theoretical frameworks utilised in this study appear to be an appropriate way to theorise headteachers' CPD practice within the given context of this study. Finally, the findings might be useful for the policy makers in the primary education sectors in both contexts to enhance professional practice of the primary headteachers.

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## List of abbreviations

AISES.....	All India School Education Survey
AT.....	Assistant Teacher.
B.ED.....	Bachelor of Education
BIS.....	Business, Innovation and Skills
BMT.....	Block Master Trainer
BPEO.....	Block Primary Education Officer
CAIE.....	Cambridge Assessment International Education
CAVA.....	Certificate in Assessing Vocational Achievement
CBSE.....	Central Boards of Secondary Education
CCMS.....	Council for Catholic-Maintained Schools
CHT.....	Centre Head Teacher
CIET.....	Central Institute of Educational Technology
CISCE.....	Council of Indian School Certificate Examinations
CMT.....	Cluster Master Trainer
COBSE.....	Council of Boards of School Education
COP.....	Community of Practice
CPD.....	Continuing Professional Development
DCELLS.....	Department for Children, Education, Lifelong Learning and Skills
DCSF.....	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DE.....	Department of Education
DEL.....	Department for Employment and Learning
DEO.....	District Education Officer
DFE.....	Department for Education
DTLLS.....	Diploma in Teaching in the Lifelong Learning Sector
ELB.....	Education and Library Boards
HMI.....	Her Majesty's Inspectors
HT.....	Head Teacher
HTPM.....	Head Teacher Performance Management
IBO.....	International Baccalaureate Organisation
INSET.....	In-Service Training
LA.....	Local Authorities
LC.....	Learning Community

LCD.....Liquid Crystal Display  
M.ED.....Master of Education  
MHRD.....Ministry for Human Resource Development  
NCERT.....National Council of Educational Research and Training  
NCSL.....National College for School Leadership  
NCTL.....National College for Teaching and Leadership  
NIOS.....National Institute of Open Schooling  
NOP.....Network of Practice  
NTT.....Nursery Teacher’s Training  
OECD.....Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development  
PD.....Professional Development  
QCA.....Qualifications and Curriculum Authority  
QCDA.....Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency  
QQA.....Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education  
RIE.....Regional Institutes of Education  
RTE.....Right to Education Act  
SIP.....School Improvement Plan  
SLD.....School Leadership Development  
SLDP.....School Leadership Development Programmes  
SRA.....Societies Registration Act  
SSA.....Sarva Siksha Abhiyan  
TRA.....Teaching Regulation Agency  
UK.....United Kingdom  
UT.....Union Territory

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1 School leadership**

This study focuses on school leadership development. In order to understand what school leadership development is, it is important to understand the notion of school leadership first. The scholars Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999) maintain that there is no agreed definition of the concept of leadership. Yukl (2013) suggests that the definitions of leadership are both arbitrary and subjective because the concept of leadership and its aspects are usually defined by the scholars in accordance with their individual perspectives and interests. According to Yukl (2013) most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that leadership involves a social influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted either by an individual or by a group over other people in order to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or an organisation. Similarly, Bush (2008) recognised the three key aspects of the definitions of leadership. First, the central concept of all these definitions is influence rather than authority. While both influence and authority are the dimensions of power, authority tends to reside in formal positions such as school headteachers and influence can be exercised by any staff in the school. In this sense, leadership is independent of positional authority (Bush, 2008). Second, the process of leadership is intentional because an individual who seeks to exercise influence has a purpose to achieve. Third, influence can be exercised by an individual as well as by a group. In a nutshell, Bush (2008) maintains that leadership is a fluid process that potentially emerges from any part of the school. He further adds that leadership is independent of formal management positions and it has the capability to reside with any member of the organisation such as associate staff and students.

With reference to the education sector, Gunter (2004) notes that the labels to define educational leadership have been changed from “educational administration” to “educational management” and more recently to “educational leadership”. In the same vein, Earley and Weindling (2004) note the changing discourse of leadership literature shifting from management to leadership. They suggest that leadership theory in education is categorised chronologically under five headings: that is, trait, style, contingency, influence, and personal trait. Nonetheless, Bush (2008) states that these changes are either purely semantic or reflect significant changes in educational leadership. For example, the shift in this paradigm is exemplified most strongly in England with the opening of the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) in 2000 (Bolam, 2004) (National College for School Leadership (NCSL) was merged with the

Teaching Agency to become the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) in April 2013 which ultimately replaced by Department for Education (DfE) and Teaching Regulation Agency (TRA) in March 2018). The importance of school leadership for school effectiveness and school improvement has increased but there remains a mystery about what leadership actually is or how to define it. In spite of the unavailability of a precise definition, a working definition of this complex concept was established by Bush and Glover (2003; 2014) that includes the main features of leadership.

Leadership is a process of *influence* leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a *vision* for their schools based on their personal and professional *values*. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision (Bush & Glover 2003, p.5, original emphasis).

Leadership, in accordance with the given definition above, may be seen as having three main dimensions namely influence, vision, and values (Bush & Glover, 2003). According to Bush (2008) influence is an intentional process which is exercised by individuals as well as groups in the school in order to achieve certain purposes. However, influence being neutral does not recommend school leaders to pursue specific goals or actions as these need to be grounded in their personal and professional values. The researchers (Day, Harris, & Hadfield, 2001) claimed that the actions of good leaders are informed by their personal and professional values which represent their moral purposes for their schools. It implies that school leaders' values are chosen. However, Bush (2008) argues that values might be imposed on school leaders by government as they are forced to bring change by implementing policy initiatives in their respective schools. The dilemma between fulfilling the governmental obligation to implement policies and their own perspectives on positive impact of the relative policies creates tensions among school leaders (Bush, 2014). The third dimension of school leadership known as vision is considered an essential feature of school leadership and if articulated clearly it has the potential to develop schools (Bush, 2014). This research study's definition of school leadership is consistent with Bush and Glover's definition of leadership.

The following section of this chapter will conceptualise leadership development in relation to the context of this study. It will further discuss various approaches in general employed for

school leadership development internationally that range from pre and in-service training to succession planning. Then, this chapter will discuss continuing professional development (CPD) in particular as the main focus of the study including aims, objectives and research questions guiding this study. An overview of the education systems in India and the United Kingdom will be provided followed by a rationale of conducting this study that includes personal perspective and background of research. Finally, this chapter will explain the significance of the present study in relation to filling the knowledge gap in literature and theoretical contribution.

## **1.2 Conceptualising leadership development**

Leadership development is regarded as a complex (Dalakoura, 2010) and multidimensional phenomenon (Day & O'Connor, 2003) as there is conceptual confusion between the notions of leader and leadership development (Day, 2001). It is argued that "leader development" and "leadership development" are two different concepts, the former concerns with enhancing "human capital" while the latter emphasises the creation of "social capital" in an organisation (Day, 2001). "Leader development" emphasises developing individual leaders' intrapersonal competence (human capital) such as self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-motivation. It is proposed that these intrapersonal competencies contribute enhancing an individual's knowledge, trustworthiness, and personal power which have been considered as the fundamental leadership imperatives within traditional leadership perspective (Day, 2001). "Leadership development" on the other hand, concerns building and using interpersonal competence (social capital) (Day, 2001). Interpersonal competence is the ability of a leader to build relations with others in the organisation in order to enhance social capital (Day & O'Connor, 2003; Galli & Muller-Stewens, 2012). Dalakoura (2010) emphasises that leadership development is a complex phenomenon because it encompasses the interactions between the leader and the social and organisational environment. Hence, it can be argued that leadership development is a broader concept rather than simply developing skills of an individual leader. Nonetheless, the significance of an individual leader cannot be undermined in an organisational context (Dalakoura, 2010; Day, 2001; Day & O'Connor, 2003). The present study perceives leadership development as a multilevel and multidimensional process.

## **1.3 School leadership and leadership development within the context of this study**

Although school leadership is carried out at different levels by different positions in schools such as school headteachers, senior leaders and middle leaders (Supovitz, 2014), the focus of



this study will be school headteacher. It is to be noted that the terms *Headteacher*, *Principal* and *School Leader* will be used interchangeably throughout the study. Further, there are different approaches to school leadership development such as Pre-Service Training (university-based programmes and formal training), In-Service Training (workshops, coaching, mentoring, and continuing professional development) and Succession Planning (pipeline for leadership development) (see sections 1.4 & 2.3), the focus of this study will be continuing professional development (CPD) of school headteachers. The terms *Continuing Professional Development* (CPD), *School Leadership Development* (SLD) and *Professional Development* (PD) will also be used interchangeably throughout the study.

#### **1.4 Approaches to school leadership development (SLD)**

It has been widely recognised by the education systems around the globe that the school leaders should be developed in order to improve learning and leading complex change (Breakspear, Peterson, Alfadala & Khair, 2017). Day (2001) states that interest in leadership development appears to be among top-level priorities as many organisations view leadership as a source of competitive advantage and schools are not different in this respect. Although, school leadership development has become an increasing priority across many countries (Breakspear et al., 2017) and arguments in educational literature claim school headteachers' leadership to be critical for school improvement (Wright & da Costa, 2016), little research has been conducted on how effectively school headteachers are developed (Liebowitz & Porter, 2019). The literature revealed that there is a paucity of research studies providing an overview of headteachers' professional development activities undertaken as well as their needs and priorities for professional development (Daniels, Hondeghem & Dochy, 2019). Also, little is known about the impact of the various types of school headteachers' professional development activities. (Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011). Consequently, there is a lack of a clear framework which can successfully meet headteachers' professional development needs and priorities (Wright & da Costa, 2016). Bush (2013) identified variation among countries regarding school leadership development models and approaches.

From an international perspective, a study by Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 24 countries revealed that majority of countries provides only pre-service programmes for their school headteachers and only eight countries provide a combination of pre-service, induction and in-service training and support to their headteachers (Schleicher, 2012). Some of the countries are moving towards a systematic approach where

they will build a pipeline to initiate the full support system from recruitment, preparation, development and succession planning of headteachers (Mendels, 2016), to develop leadership capabilities (Breakspear et al., 2017). Hence, multiple approaches followed by different jurisdictions at various stages of leadership development can be broadly categorised as pre-service, in-service and succession planning.

Professional development of school leaders is divided into pre and in-service professional development. The pre-service professional development involves university-based programmes and formal training for the aspiring principals/headteachers to prepare them for the challenges of their chosen career (Moorosi & Bush, 2011; Tingle, Corrales & Peters, 2019). In-service professional development is the training and support programmes for school leaders when they are on the post, it is also considered as continuous learning (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007; Moorosi & Bush, 2011). Succession planning is relatively a new dimension added to the educational leadership development programmes. The expected retirement of headteachers from baby boomer generation (Bush, 2013) and lack of interest in school headship (Moorosi & Bush, 2011) and requirement of effective school leaders (Bush, 2008) have contributed to a school leadership crisis in many countries (Bush, 2013). Hence, the need for identifying and preparing headteacher through succession planning (Bush, 2018) has been recognised in some countries, especially England where NCSL has initiated the 'fast track' programme to support succession planning (NCSL: National College for School Leadership was merged with the Teaching Agency to become the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) in April 2013 which ultimately replaced by the Department for Education and Teaching Regulation Agency in March 2018). Supovitz (2014) argues that though succession planning is repetition of the entire process from pre-service leadership development to in-service leadership development, nevertheless it is the part of a holistic leadership development process.

### **1.5 The focus of this study: continuing professional development (CPD)**

This research study deals with the professional development of the primary headteachers of England and India. Therefore, it is important to understand headteachers' roles, responsibilities and the cultural contexts within which they are working. The literature review and interviews with research participants during this study revealed that the primary headteachers in both contexts shared almost similar roles and responsibilities. The role of the primary headteachers in the English context has been changed considerably after the introduction of the Education

Reform Act (ERA) 1988 (Southworth, 1995). The Education Reform Act 1988 was considered to be a turning point in education policy of England and the core elements of autonomy were established by the ERA that remained largely unchanged. The ERA empowered the school governors to establish strategic directions of their schools and to take control of staffing and finance (Woods & Simkins, 2014). While describing the role of primary headteachers Tucker (2012) suggests that prior to the ERA, a school headteacher was the education leader who was responsible for the quality of education in a school and the issues relevant to resources, staffing, admissions and transfer were organised by the local education authority. However, from the introduction of the ERA onwards school headteachers have had to occupy more central positions than ever before as they are now expected to be system leaders. System leaders are actively involved in a range of activities such as budgeting, marketing, and policy development to improve student learning and teaching in schools and they have the ability to “see the whole beyond its parts and to see the parts in the context of the whole” and to cope with increasing complexity and change (Shaked & Schechter, 2020).

The headteachers are the leading professionals in the English schools and they are responsible for establishing and sustaining school ethos and strategic directions in collaboration with those responsible for governance as well as through consultation with their school communities (Department for Education, 2020). They share a higher level of autonomy and accountability. In other words, in the current landscape of self-improving school systems (Gilbert, 2012), headteachers have the autonomy to innovate and act in the best interest of their school (Day et al, 2000), their work is perceived as pressured (Chaplain, 2001). The most significant problems English primary headteachers are facing currently are the demands of National Educational Policy, managing time and administrative workloads, observing teachers and students in classrooms, managing school buildings and finance, dealing with predecessors’ legacies, professional loneliness, decision-making, enhancing curriculum provisions and resourcing, dealing with poor teacher morale, supporting ineffective staff, and lack of expertise to meet new or changing role and responsibilities (Dunning & Elliott, 2019, pp. 12-13).

In the Indian context, primary headteachers similar to their English counterparts, are the leading professionals and have a high level of autonomy and accountability in their schools. Their roles and responsibilities are identical to English headteachers and they also face similar issues. They are responsible to prepare institutional plan, annual academic plan and school timetable. They have to supervise the work of teachers and they have to observe classroom

teaching. They have to provide the needed professional support and resources to the teachers. They liaise with the local community through School Management Committees (SMCs) for the development of their schools (Rao, 2020). The primary headteachers in both English and Indian contexts are expected to implement education policies in their schools on continuous basis. This has been heightened by rapid changes in education policy that requires headteachers making fast decisions at micro level (Robinson, 2011). The government is unable to manage the situation effectively and consequently headteachers are being used to clear the mess the systems make by introducing rapid education reforms (Robinson, 2011).

More than three decades ago, the Education Commission (1994-66) expressed its concern over the lack of freedom of schools of India and it recommended the devolution of authority to schools to make the system dynamic (Govinda, 2002). The introduction of the Right to Education Act (RTE) (2009) in India led to significant changes into the roles and functions of headteachers (Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler, 2016). All state schools under the RTE are obliged to establish a School Management Committee (SMC) which is identical to governing bodies in English schools. The SMC has been empowered to monitor the functioning of schools and to prepare school improvement plan. Indian headteachers are expected to meet social as well official expectations in a competitive framework. They are under pressure to show school results in a new performance assessment framework. They are expected to lead the school towards improved standards of functioning by collaborating with other team members in the school in order to secure contribution of everyone (Govinda, 2002); however, they solely are accountable for whatever happens in their schools. For instance, if a school is recognised as a low or under-performing school, the headteacher has to face the consequences.

The headteachers in state primary schools in both contexts are appointed on seniority basis. In other words, for a candidate to be considered for the post of headteacher must have certain years of teaching experience. They are not expected to have a professional qualification for headship and the majority of the headteachers is not provided formal induction or training after their appointment (Govinda, 2002). Headteachers in both contexts take the responsibility for their staff improvement by providing them with appropriate continuing professional development (CPD) (Akhtar, 2002; OFSTED, 2006); however, they lack an adequate training and expertise to meet their changing roles and responsibilities (Akhtar, 2002; Dunning & Elliott, 2019; Govinda, 2002). The majority of the headteachers relies on their wisdom rather

than any professional approach to deal with the issues such as providing leadership, maintaining inter-personal relations and time management (Akhtar, 2002).

A survey was conducted by HMI (Her Majesty's Inspectors) between 2005-2006 in 29 schools (13 secondary, 14 primary and 2 special) of England to measure the impact of government's strategy for CPD (OFSTED, 2006). The research findings revealed that although school headteachers played an important role in planning and arranging a systematic CPD for their schoolteachers and other staff, their own CPD was not taken into consideration. The findings revealed a good example of an organised and a systematic CPD in some of the schools in England and the most effective CPD practice was described as a logical chain of procedures. A logical chain of procedures implies a CPD that involves a coherent cycle of designing and implementing a CPD, i.e., identifying staff's learning needs, planning activities to meet their needs, effective delivery, and impact evaluation (OFSTED, 2006). A key research finding revealed that those schools where headteachers put staffs' CPD central to the school's improvement planning produced the best results (OFSTED, 2006). As a whole, a headteacher's leadership plays a vital role in any school's improvement. Unfortunately, headteachers' own professional development is not being considered seriously and it appears that it is left to chance (Bush, 2008).

The gender pay gap appears to be an issue among English headteachers. Arnold in 1974 stated that "in nearly every field a woman holding down a job does not get the same pay as a man who does the same work" (p,1). The situation remains same as Ward (2019) suggests that female headteachers get paid less on average than their male counterparts in primary, secondary and special schools in the UK. For example, the average salary for a female headteacher in a maintained primary school is £62,262 whereas a male headteacher in primary school earns £63,929 (Ward, 2019). On the other hand, no evidence was found in relation to gender pay gap among primary headteachers in India; however, their earning is based on the years of experience they have. For example, a primary school headteacher having 10-19 years of experience earns an average income of Rs 380,000 per month whereas a headteacher with 20 and higher years of experience earns around Rs 470,000 on average basis (Sarkari Naukri Pay Salary, 2021). A study (Kelleher, 2011) shows that women in India may not go for leadership roles because they are socialised to believe that men are better leaders and women may struggle with balancing responsibilities of work and home. However, men also face highly gendered

expectations of earning as much as possible which may pressurise them to pursue positions of leadership such as headteacher roles.

The above section explained the roles, responsibilities and cultural contexts of the primary headteachers within they are working in both contexts. The following section will explain various terms used for CPD along with aim, objectives and research questions of the study.

There are variations among leadership development approaches (see sections 1.4 & 2.3), the focus of this study will be the continuing professional development (CPD) of the primary headteachers in two diverse contexts. The concepts of continuing professional development (CPD), professional development (PD), and in-service training (INSET) are used interchangeably to refer all kind of professional learning both by the aspiring and practicing headteachers except their initial training (Mestry, 2017). Daniels et al., (2019) suggest that while there are several interchangeable concepts of in-service professional development in literature; the most used concept is continuous professional development (CPD). There are inconsistencies in conceptualising the concept of CPD. It is usually conflated with in-service training and on the job learning; however, it can include a range of approaches and teaching and learning styles and it can take place in different settings (Muijs, Day, Harris, & Lindsay, 2004). The CPD is co-related with individuals' professional identities and roles as well as the organisational goals they work for (Muijs et al., 2004). It is regarded as a structured approach to learning which develops educators' professional skills to meet the challenges by intensifying knowledge, skills, and practical experience (Mestry, 2017). The scholars (Day & Sachs, 2004) defined CPD as all the activities in which educators participate to enhance their professional practice during the course of a career. Thus, the CPD can involve both structured (formal) and self-directed learning (informal).

### **Aim of the study**

This study aims to understand how the continuing professional development (CPD) of state primary school headteachers in a developed nation (UK) and a developing nation (India) is organised. In particular, this comparative study aims to identify the similarities and differences among the current CPD practices in the both countries.

### **Research objectives**

Drawing on the aim of the study, the specific objectives of this research study are as following:

RO1: Identify the various approaches used to develop primary headteachers' professional competence.

RO2: Understand the need analysis processes employed to identify headteachers' professional development needs and priorities.

RO3: Understand how CPD impact evaluation is carried out and what impact it has on headteachers' approach to school leadership.

RO4: Understand how national education policy context influence headteachers' CPD.

### **Research questions**

The key research questions guiding this study are as following:

RQ1: How is the professional development of primary headteachers in the Midlands (UK) and the State of Punjab (India) organised?

RQ2: How are the professional development needs and priorities of primary headteachers identified?

RQ3: What impact do professional development activities undertaken by primary headteachers have on their approach to school leadership? How are these impacts measured and by whom?

RQ4: How does the (national) policy environment in India and the UK influence the professional development of primary headteachers?

## **1.6 Education systems in India and the UK: an overview**

The United Kingdom consists of four constituent countries namely England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. However, it was not feasible to focus on the whole of India and the United Kingdom (UK) due to lack of time and resources. Hence, I decided to focus on two districts from each context in particular, Ludhiana and Fatehgarh Sahib from India and Dudley and Leicester from the UK.

### **1.6.1 Geographical overview of India**

India is the seventh largest country in the world, covering area of 3.28 million sq.km. India has 29 states and seven union territories (UTs): the largest state (Rajasthan) in India covers area of 3,42,239 sq.km and smallest state (Goa) is spread in the area of 3,702 sq.km. (Maps of India, 2021). The landform of India is greatly diverse including mountains of Northern Himalayas, tropical forest of Kerala in South India, deep valleys, from sacred river of Ganga to Thar Desert and coastal ghats (Shira & Devonshire-Ellis, 2012). Demographically India is the second most

populous country around the globe (Shira & Devonshire-Ellis, 2012) with estimated 1.38 billion population in 2020 (Our World in Data, 2019).

Figure 1: Map of India



Source: Maps of India, 2021

### 1.6.2 Educational system of India: an overview

The education system in India is one of the largest and most complex in the world (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2019). There are approximately 1,516,865 schools in India (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2019), including 847,118 primary schools, 425,094 upper primary schools, 135,335 secondary schools, and 109,318 senior secondary schools (MHRD 2016, p.3). According to the eighth All India School Education Survey (AISES, 2009) there are over 1.3 million schools in India with a gross national enrolment of 227 million students taught by about 7.2 million teachers. (Padwad & Dixit 2014, p.250).

The central government established the Department of Education in India in late 1947 under the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) and introduced its first education policy



in 1968. In 1976, MHRD started sharing the responsibilities with state government of 29 states and 7 union territories of across the nation to develop education system (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2019). The government of India undertook two major initiatives to curb the issues related to accessibility, inclusivity, and quality of education. These are Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA) 2001 and Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act 2009 (RTE). The Right to Education Act (RTE) 2009, made elementary education free and compulsory for all children from the ages of 6 to 14. Elementary education consists of primary (for 6-11year olds) and upper primary levels (for 11-14year olds) (The British Council India 2014, p.10). The SSA ensures that development of numerous very small schools to develop universal primary education for everyone (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2019).

The Indian education system broadly has four dimensions: 1) pedagogical structure of education; 2) ownership and management of schools; 3) organisational structure of education; and 4) boards of education (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2019 & MHRD, 2020). A brief description of these dimensions is as follows:

### **1.6.3 Pedagogical structure of education**

The most common format that exists across the country is 3+4+3+2 that is pre-primary (ages 3-6), primary (ages 6-10), upper primary (ages 11-14), and secondary school (ages 14-16); 2 years of higher secondary (ages 16-18) and 3 years of tertiary education (ages 18+) (MHRD, 2020; Saravanabhavan, Pushpanadham, & Saravanabhavan, 2016). Nonetheless, National Education Policy of 2020, the first policy of 21<sup>st</sup> century has proposed the reconfiguration of pedagogical structure (figure:2) on the education in orders to cater the learning and development needs of different age range. It includes 2+3+3+4. Foundational stage (age 1-2, pre-school), preparatory stage (age 3-5), middle stage (6-8) and high stage (age 9-12). The Right to Education Act (RTE) 2009, made elementary education free and compulsory for all children from the ages of 6 to 14. Elementary education consists of primary (for 6-11 years old) and upper primary levels (for 11-14year olds) (The British Council India 2014, p.10). (see table 1)

Table 1: Pre-2019 and proposed post 2019 structure of education in India

Age (typical)	Current (2019)	Grade	Proposed In revised National Education Policy*
17-18	Higher secondary	12	High stage
16-17		11	
15-16	Secondary	10	
14-15		9	
13-14	Upper primary	8	Middle stage
12-13		7	
11-12		6	
10-11	Primary	5	Preparatory stage
9-10		4	
8-9		3	
7-8		2	Foundational stage
6-7	1		
5-6	Pre-primary		
4-5			
3-4			

Source: Anderson and Lightfoot (2019, p. 16)

#### 1.6.4 Ownership and management of education

Education governance structures vary among the states and territories. Schools in India can be categorised as public sector schools owned by the central/state/local government bodies, private sector schools owned by the individuals, trusts or societies (Saravanabhavan et al., 2016), private sector aided school managed by private bodies but government provides grants to these schools (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2019). The majority of schools in India falls under the public sector (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2019). Although there are differences in the policy formulation, planning, administration and management; all states and union territories have a Department of Education. Fifteen states have one Department of Education that handles Primary, Secondary and Higher and Adult education together, whereas 13 states have separate departments for each sector of education (Saravanabhavan et al., 2016). There is at least one Minister of Education in each state, who is usually an elected member of the state legislative assembly. The Minister of Education controls three divisions: (i) secretariat (ii) directorate (iii) inspectorate which are responsible for policies, budget, administration and supervision of Primary to Higher Secondary education. School headteachers at all levels are expected to work

with in conjunction with these government officials in the management of the schools and in achieving India's overall educational goals.

### **1.6.5 Organisational structure of education**

The MHRD is responsible for managing the educational system in India at central level. It develops overarching educational policies and state governments adapt these policies according to their respective contexts in orders to create implementation plans. It has two departments: School Education Literacy and Higher Education. A broader education policy is created by the central government. In order to support and adapt these policies at state levels, MHRD has established apex organisations with different responsibilities related to the education system. These apex organisations include: National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), Regional Institute of Education (RIE), and Central Institute of Educational Technology (CIET).

The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) is mainly responsible for education in India. It is an apex resource organisation which is set up by the government of India with headquarters at New Delhi in 1961 under Societies Registration Act (SRA)1860. NCERT assists and advices the central and state governments to formulate and implement the education policies. The objective of NCERT is to assist and advise the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare in the enforcement of its policies and major programmes in the field of education specifically school education (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2019; The British Council India, 2014).

On the other hand, RIE and CIET are responsible for teacher training and developing educational technology respectively. The RIE (Regional Institute for Education) comprises of five teacher training institutes located in North (Ajmer), West (Bhopal), East (Bhubaneswar), South (Mysuru) and Northeast (Umiam) of India. The CIET (Central Institute of Educational Technology) was established in 1984 to develop different forms of technology communication to spread the education content across the nation including remote areas. These channels include broadcast, satellite communication and online media.

### **1.6.6 Boards of Education**

Educational boards in India include National boards and International boards. There are three national boards and other state boards in India. The state government boards are directed and

controlled by the Department of School Education. The National boards include Central Boards of Secondary Education (CBSE), Council of Indian School Certificate Examinations (CISCE) and National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS). These boards are responsible to conduct examinations of grade 10 and grade 12 across the Nation. The International boards include International Baccalaureate Organisation (IBO), Cambridge Assessment International Education (CAIE) and Council of Boards of School Education (COBSE).

### **1.6.7 Geographical overview of the United Kingdom (UK)**

The United Kingdom (UK) is an island country which is located off the North Western coast of Europe and its geographical structure is complex and multi layered. The United Kingdom is made up of four countries namely England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. London is the capital of the UK. London is among the world's leading financial, commercial and cultural centres. Wales formally became part of the UK with the Act of Union of 1536 and 1542. Scotland joined the UK in 1707. Ireland was a part of Great Britain since 1600s but in 1922 after independence of the Republic of Ireland, Northern- Ireland remained the part of the UK (Atkins, 2021). The UK has a total area of 243,610 sq. km and a coastline of 12,429 m. (Briney, 2019). According to the latest United Nations' data, the current population of the UK is 68,102,716 and it has 19<sup>th</sup> population rank (United Kingdom Population, 2021).

Figure 2: Map of the United Kingdom



Source: United Kingdom Map | England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales. (2021).

The schools in the UK can be broadly categorised as state schools and independent schools. State schools are funded by the government and do not charge fees from students, on the contrary independent school charge fees from the students (The British Education System-HMC, 2021).

### 1.6.8 Administration

The education system in the UK is decentralised where authority and responsibility are shared between central government, local government, churches, and other voluntary bodies depending upon the different aspects of education. In case of Northern Ireland and Wales, decentralised authority is considered as national rather than regional. Scotland is more

independent than the other three Nations (England, Wales, Northern Ireland) as its education is organised differently.

In case of England and Wales all the educational legislations are enacted by the UK parliament. The central government in England established the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) now called the Department for Education (DfE) is responsible for children's services and education, including early years, schools, higher and further education policy, apprenticeships and wider skills. The DfE holds the authority and responsibility for designing, directing and implementing education policy as a whole system. Local Authorities (LA) implement these policies according to their regional needs. Similarly, in Wales, the Department for Children, Education, Lifelong Learning and Skills (DCELLS) is responsible for ensuring that all accredited units and qualifications meet specific criteria. The DCELLS reviews the submitted proposals for accreditation to ensure that the study programmes have relevant content and appropriate methods of assessment. After the qualifications are accredited, they are listed in the Register of Regulated Qualifications and the policy guidelines are adapted by Local Authorities accordingly. The DCELLS also holds the power to withdraw the existing qualifications if they do not meet standards and quality.

Northern Ireland has its own education legislation. Most of the legislation is parallel to England and Wales but some provisions are made particularly of Northern Ireland region. The central authorities to administer education in Northern Ireland are the Department of Education (DE) and the Department for Employment and Learning (DEL), and Local Authorities comprises of Education and Library Boards (ELBs), the Council for Catholic-Maintained Schools (CCMS), established by the Education Reform Order 1989, to manage Catholic-maintained schools (Europeia, 2010).

In case of Scotland, the Scottish Parliament has legislative control over all aspects of education and the majority of Scottish schools follow the Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) across Nursery, Primary and Secondary stages. Pupils in Scotland complete seven years of education at primary school (from P1 to P7) and at the age of 12 they move to secondary school (from S1 to S6). The system has five levels of curriculum: Early (pre-school and P1); First (to the end of P4); Second (to the end of P7); Third and Fourth (S1 to S3); and Senior (S4 to S6, college, and so on). Unlike in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, there are no phases or stages in Scotland and the curriculum runs from age 3 to 18. The Scottish government sets

guidelines for the curriculum and provides schools more flexibility and freedom to make their own decisions about how and what to teach (The British Education System-HMC, 2021).

### **1.6.9 Ownership, management and funding of schools**

There are two broad categories of schools which are state schools also known as maintained schools (aided by government) and private schools also known as independent schools (not aided by government) (Child Law Advice, 2021; Types of Schools, 2021). In the UK, schools are set up through devolution of power by central government to local government. Therefore, the leaders of England, Northern Ireland, Wales and Scotland will maintain the rules for the schools in their territory. However, the central idea remains the same in spite of slight difference in schools across the UK (BBC, 2017)

State schools do not charge fees from students. Financial aids for state schools in England and Wales are provide from Local Authorities (LAs) which ultimately receive funding channelled through local government by central government. Academies are exception in this case as these are directly funded by DCSF. Schools in Northern Ireland are funded either by DE or by DEL. There are some categories of school which receive funding from Education and Library Boards (ELBs) (Europeia, 2010).

The land and building of state schools is completely owned by the LAs. These schools must follow National Curriculum and government guidelines regarding admission, exclusion and special education needs (Child Law Advice, 2021). There are four different types of state school: community schools, foundation schools, academies and grammar schools. Community schools are completely controlled by local authorities whereas other three types of schools have comparatively more freedom towards changing from guidelines from Local Authorities (Types of School, 2021).

Private schools on the contrary are not funded by government and charge fees from their pupils. Nonetheless, all independent schools are registered with government and go through regular audit by independent school inspectorate (Types of School, 2021). The funding of these schools is arranged by diverse resources comprises of fees, capital investments and contributions made by supporting bodies. These schools are not bound to follow the National Curriculum, but they must register their own curriculum with the Department for Education. Moreover, they have

their own policies and procedures. Nonetheless they are required to secure approval from state government under section 41 of the Children and Families Act 2014 (Child Law Advice, 2021).

#### **1.6.10 Qualification, curriculum and assessment authorities**

England, Northern Ireland and Wales have their separate official bodies to manage qualifications, curriculum and assessment. Despite of being distinctive authorities they work in collaboration with each other to regulate external qualifications.

In England the responsibility for developing and maintaining National Curriculum, examination and assessment relies with Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, 2021). The QCA has been replaced by the Ofqual (the Office of the Qualifications and Examinations Regulator) and the Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency (the QCDA) from 1 April 2010 by the Apprenticeships, Skills, Children and Learning Act 2009 (Europeia, 2010). The Ofqual is non-ministerial and responsible for regulating qualification, assessment and examination in England body and QCDA was further replaced by Standards and Testing Agency in 2012 (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, 2021).

In Wales, the Department for Children, Education, Lifelong Learning and Skills (DCELLS) and in Northern Ireland, Council for the Curriculum, Examinations and Assessment (CCEA) hold the authority and responsibility to regulate qualification, assessment and examination (Europeia, 2010).

#### **1.6.11 Levels of education in the UK**

It is evident that the UK has multiple zones and education system in each zone is a little different, but they are almost similar stages of education. In the UK every child between the ages of five to sixteen must attend schools by law in order to receive full time education according to their age, aptitude, ability and special educational needs. (Understanding the UK education system, 2020). Broadly the UK education system includes five stages of education: Early Years, Primary, Secondary, Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE) (UK Education System Guide, 2019) (see table: 2).



Table 2: Stages of education in the UK

Stages of Education	Key stage: years	age
Early Years	Foundation Years	3 to 4 years
Primary	Key Stage 1: Years 1 and 2	5 to 7 years
Secondary	Key Stage 2: Years 3,4,5 and 6	7 to 11 Years
	Key Stage 3: Years 7,8 and 9	11 to 14 Years
	Key Stage 4: Years 10 and 11	14 to 16 Years
Further Education	Training & vocational courses	Above 16
Higher Education	University courses	Above 18

Source: Created by the author

Education from key stage 1 to 4 is compulsory for everyone. Further education (FE) (16-18year olds) is a common term for all the basic skill courses which can be taken after the completion of compulsory education. The levels of these courses range from basic skills to advanced levels. These are mainly provided by institutions other than universities. However, the 16-18year olds can also follow academic routes. They can do ‘A’ levels at FE colleges or 6<sup>th</sup> forms either at school or at 6<sup>th</sup> form colleges. Higher Education (HE) is different from further education (FE). It includes undergraduate courses, masters, doctorates and post graduate diplomas and certificates. The following section will discuss the rationale behind choosing these two specific contexts (UK & India) for the present study.

### 1.7 Motivation and rationale of the study

I was motivated to do this study for a variety of reasons. The first and foremost reason was to do a doctorate which was my lifelong dream. Hence, I was required to find a research topic of my interest. I did some research on global issues and school leadership development was one of them that interested me. My literature review on school leadership revealed that little attention has been given to the primary headship in comparison with the secondary headship in the UK. Although “throughout the 1980’s and 1990’s there was increasing interest in school management, the neglect of the headteacher’s position in the infant and junior school is particularly marked” (Baron, 1980 as cited in Southworth, 1995, p.8). Weindling (1990) argues that in contrast to work in the US, researchers in this country (UK) have paid relatively more attention to secondary school headteachers than primary school headteachers. It appears that no large-scale funded investigation of British primary headship has been taken place despite

widespread recognition of school leadership (Coulson, 1988; Southworth, 1995). Consequently, primary headteachers lack a data base which may enable them to relate their own work to a large sample of their colleagues (Laws & Dennison, 1990). There seems to be little research in the area of primary headship even after two decades since Laws and Dennison's article (Dunning & Elliott, 2019). As a result, there is a lack of a clear guidance to support headteachers' professional development. The existing literature on school leadership lacks the actual accounts of the headteachers in different contexts regarding the nitty gritty or the "street realities" (Ball, 1987) of their jobs (Miller, 2016). Hence, a systematic research study of primary headteachers' activities might prove as a valuable tool in improving their professional development frameworks (Laws & Dennison, 1990).

My choice of investigating primary headteachers' professional development was influenced by the time limit I had for research completion. I decided to focus on only primary and not secondary school headteachers/school principals. I did not have the experience to be a headteacher; however, I worked as a schoolteacher (five years) and an ESOL/IELTS tutor (four years) in two public schools and in a language academy respectively in the state of Punjab (India). I also gained work experience being an ESOL tutor and a teacher training assessor/tutor in a community centre, an academy and a college in England (UK). Reflection on my teaching experience and teaching qualifications in both contexts helped me to gain insights into my research topic. For instance, a decade ago, when I was a schoolteacher in Punjab (India), I was familiar with teacher training qualifications such as Nursery Teacher's Training (N.T.T), Bachelor of Education (B. Ed) and Master of Education (M. Ed); however, I was not aware of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for teachers. During my nine years teaching career in India, I did not receive any in-service/CPD training. On the other hand, my teaching experience in the context of the UK was different. During my five years of teaching experience in England (UK) I had the opportunity to attend a few one-day training such as Edexcel Business Skills Sector Forum, QAA Conference and online training such as City & Guilds Invigilator Training, First Aid Awareness and Prevent for Governors and Board Members. I found these events informative but not very productive. In contrast, I found structured professional courses effective in both contexts. For example, I did my N.T.T (Nursery Teacher's Training) from India and DTLLS (Diploma in Teaching in the Lifelong Learning Sector) and CAVA (Certificate in Assessing Vocational Achievement) in the UK. These professional courses included a variety of learning activities such as written assignments, professional discussions, micro-teaching observations, peer learning and reflective activities.

Hence, there was a balance of theory and practice in the curriculum. On the whole, from my personal learning and teaching experience, I learned that a systematic approach to professional learning is much more effective and productive as compared to a fragmented or piecemeal approach.

I decided to do a comparative study due to several reasons. First, a comparative study can help in improving education globally as it provides deep insights into the strengths and weaknesses of the education systems and educators' practice of other countries. For instance, this study helped me to acquire better understanding of school headteachers' CPD practices in the context of India and the UK. My research findings enhanced my understanding of the strong and weak points of CPD procedures in both contexts that developed my theoretical perspectives (Osborn, 2004) which consequently helped me to propose a CPD framework that may be appropriate to meet primary headteachers' professional development needs in both contexts. In doing so, I borrowed and synthesised different aspects of CPD procedures from both contexts. Second, a comparative study can provide valuable insights to the future researchers who wish to acknowledge the importance of structure and agency to illuminate the complexities of interaction among culture, social structure, institution and individual action (Osborn, 2004). For example, the results of this study may be used as baseline data for further research interventions. In addition, my experience of living and working in both contexts also motivated me to do a comparative study. I was born and brought up in India and I had spent almost six years in the UK before I joined my PhD. Consequently, I developed familiarity with the cultures of both contexts. Another reason for selecting these two specific contexts was the research conducted on school leadership, for example, while extensive research has been done in the field of educational and school leadership in the UK (see sections 2.2 & 2.3), it is relatively a new phenomenon in India (see section 1.7.1). In the state of Punjab, in particular, it appears to be the first of this kind of research which collects empirical data from the state primary school headteachers in relation to their continuing professional development (CPD). My extensive literature review did not reveal any published literature on primary headteachers' CPD in the State of Punjab (India).

### **1.7.1 School leadership in India**

Chugh (2016) claims that school leadership is an under researched area in India and there is a lack of evidence-based research showing the connection between school leadership and school transformation. Although a number of micro studies have been carried out across India, these

have never been documented and disseminated. As a result, trends in school leadership research cannot be captured (Chugh, 2016). In India, the notion of school leadership is not well-understood and little attention has been paid to school headteachers' professional development both at the institutional and the system level (Chugh, 2016). Hence, there is a need for the educational research authorities to commission research on different topics relevant to school leadership such as what type of soft skills headteachers require to perform their job role (see section 1.5 for headteachers' roles and responsibilities).

Mythili (2017; 2020) is also in agreement with Chugh (2016) as she states that school leadership development is comparatively a new phenomenon in Indian context. She further adds that since the 12<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (Government of India-Planning Commission, 2012) recognised the role of school leadership in improving school quality, the initiatives to introduce school leadership development programmes (SLDP) have undertaken under *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (SSA) and *Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan* (RMSA). Mythili (2017) argues that SSA and RMSA programmes neglected school headteacher in any of their programmes ever since they came into existence in the year 2000 because of its extreme focus on improving schoolteachers' quality (Subitha, 2018). Consequently, leaving headteachers with heightened pressure to manage schools and lead teachers rather than considering their own development.

Khandpur (2020) also argues that while most of the other education policy documents lack a clear guidance on school headteachers' professional development, the 12<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan for teacher education in India underscores the need for school headteachers' professional development and allocates specific budget for it (MHRD, 2012). Nonetheless, it limits headteachers' development to the area of planning and management and ignores their leadership skills development (Khandpur, 2020; Subitha, 2018).

Gangmei, Gowramma, and Kumar (2019) in their systematic review found that research on school leadership in the Indian context is limited. They identified some of the studies which focus on teacher effectiveness and leadership skills. However, this systematic review does not indicate any research studies on school leadership development in India. Gangmei et al. (2019) suggest that India could draw a framework to conduct research on school leadership from other Asian countries as they have a number of good studies on school leadership. Hallinger and Chen (2015) in their systematic review concluded that research on school leadership and management in Asia remains at a relatively early stage of development. They noted that

knowledge production on school leadership and management is highly uneven across Asia and there were only few pockets of excellent research. The astonishing finding of this review was that 55% of the total Asian literature was produced by Hong Kong and Israel only. The scholars (Dimmock & Walker, 2005; Hallinger, 2011) argue that as the Western context dominated the educational leadership and management literature, there is a little room to gain insights into how educational leadership and management is practised outside these contexts (Hallinger & Chen, 2015; Mertkan, Arsan, Cavlan & Aliusta, 2017; Truong, Hallinger, & Sanga, 2017). Hence, scholars emphasise on considering a global context including different countries to build a balanced knowledge base on the subject (Belchetz & Leithwood, 2007; Dimmock & Walker, 2005).

### **1.8 Significance of the study and claim of knowledge**

Although, school leadership development has become an increasing priority across many countries (Breakspear et al., 2017) and arguments in educational literature claim school headteachers' leadership to be critical for school improvement (Wright & da Costa, 2016), little research has been conducted on how effectively school headteachers are developed (Daniels, Hondeghem, & Dochy, 2019; Day & O'Connor, 2003; Guskey, 2009; Liebowitz & Porter, 2019) The literature revealed that there is a paucity of research studies providing an overview of headteachers' professional development activities undertaken as well as their needs and priorities for professional development (Daniels et al., 2019). Also, little is known about the impact of the various types of school headteachers' professional development activities (Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011). Further, the literature revealed that continuing professional development is an under-theorised area of research. It is argued that literature on teachers' CPD is partial, fragmented and under-theorised (Guskey 2009; Kennedy, 2014; McCormick, 2010) (see sections 2.4 & 2.6). Consequently, there is a lack of a clear framework which can successfully meet headteachers' professional development needs and priorities (Wright & da Costa, 2016).

This study also identified a gap in the literature on educational leadership and management which shows regional literature imbalances as it is particularly dominated by Western countries which consequently limits one's understanding how educational leadership and management is practiced outside these contexts (see section 1.7.1).

This study fills the knowledge gap in the literature highlighted above. First, this is a comparative study of two different contexts: UK (Western) and India (Asian). In particular, in the state of Punjab this study appears to be first of this kind of empirical research in relation to state primary school headteachers CPD. In this sense, this study makes an original contribution in the area of state primary school headteachers' CPD. Second, this study suggests that an approach which combines the Networks of Practice (NoPs) and structured training to headteachers' professional development might be helpful in enhancing the efficiency of primary headteachers' CPD in both contexts of this study. For example, the research findings of this study revealed that "collaborative groups" were one of the best forms of English headteachers' CPD in the given context; however, these collaborative groups appeared to have weak structures. English headteachers also appreciated online training due to its flexibility and cost effectiveness. On the other hand, as research evidence showed, Punjabi headteachers had formal training (structured CPD), but it was not adequate in meeting headteachers' professional development needs and they also lacked online training. However, they tended to seek help from informal contacts (i.e., family, friends, students' parents). According to research findings, it appeared that introduction of Networks of Practice (NoPs) (Brown & Duguid, 2000) in both contexts including structured professional training might enhance the efficacy of headteachers' CPD.

Third, this study advocates Guskey's (2002) five levels of impact evaluation to identify headteachers' CPD needs and to gauge the potential impact of CPD programmes in both contexts. Fourth, this study fills the gap in the literature by proposing a combination of four frameworks to theorise the primary headteachers' CPD in the given context of this study. This framework involves Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Network of Practice (NoP), Wenger's (1998) Community of Practice Theory (CoP), Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community and Sambrook's (2002) Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning at Work. This specific framework has not been employed before to theorise headteachers' CPD.

Finally, this study makes a theoretical contribution by proposing a *Framework for Forming a NoP for Headteachers' CPD* (see section 8.7, figure 7). This study fills the gap in the Network of Practice (NoP) (Brown & Duguid, 2000) by integrating three dimensions of practice such as mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998) to provide a coherent structure. In addition to Wenger's three dimensions of practice, Mitchell and

Sackney's (2000) three levels of capacity building namely personal, interpersonal and organisational have also been integrated into the Networks of Practice to provide an appropriate curriculum for headteachers' professional development. In addition to proposing a framework for forming a NoP for headteachers' CPD, this study also proposes a *Factor Analysis Model* (see section 8.7.1, table 8) to identify potential barriers and facilitators for headteachers' participation in CPD activities. The proposed framework fills the gap between available approaches to school leaders' professional development to the actual developmental needs of school leaders/headteachers. (see chapter 8: theoretical contribution).

### **1.9 Chapter summary**

This chapter began with defining the key concepts of school leadership and school leadership development. Second, it explained the concepts of school leadership and school leadership development within the context of this study. Third, it critically analysed various approaches used for developing school leaders globally from pre-service training, in-service training to succession planning. Fourth, it discussed the focus of this study including research aims, objectives and the research questions guiding this study. Fifth, it provided an overview of the education systems in India and the United Kingdom followed by the motivation and rationale behind this study. Finally, this chapter explained the significance of the present study in relation to filling the knowledge gap in literature and theoretical contribution.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides a review of literature in relation to school leadership development. It is divided into two sections. The first section begins with a discussion of the importance of school leadership development in the 21<sup>st</sup> century followed by a critical analysis of various school leadership development approaches from pre-service, in-service to succession planning. It then conceptualises school leadership development by viewing it as a multidimensional and multilevel phenomenon. The second section of this chapter starts with conceptualising the notion of continuing professional development (CPD) in a broader sense followed by a critical review of the key issues surrounding CPD, for example research gap, curriculum/content, impact evaluation, national policy environment, collaborative CPD and communities of practice (CoPs). Finally, this chapter ends with the chapter summary.

### **Section 1**

#### **2.2 School leadership development: a significant phenomenon**

The development of school leaders has become an emergent phenomenon among scholars, practitioners and policy makers (Eacott & Asuga, 2014), around the globe (Bubb & Earley, 2009; Bush, 2008; 2013). School leadership gained significant attention in the past decade (Barber, Whelan & Clark, 2010; Bush, 2013; Daniels, Hondeghem & Dochy, 2019; Moorosi & Bush, 2011). The growth of school leadership development can be traced back in 1980s United States, Europe, Australia and parts of Asia (Hallinger, 1992). Grogan and Andrews (2002) suggest that the role of school headteachers was reconceptualised in late 1980s and 1990s resulting in dramatic changes of the work of school headteachers from being a manager to a leader.

The major reason behind this paradigm shift was educational and policy reforms (Yakavets, 2017), initiated in 1980s (Hallinger, 1992), established that the professional development of school headteachers is necessary to support these reforms (Barth, 1986). Nonetheless, the significance of headteachers' profession and need for their preparation through specially designed programmes were greatly realised in late 20<sup>th</sup> century (Bush, 2018). There are various contributing factors for this changed attitude towards headteachers' development. Firstly, the Education Reform Act 1988 which has expanded the authority, responsibility, and accountability of school headteachers (Bush, 2008; 2013; 2018). Secondly, the increasing



demands and challenges for school leaders due to globalisation, technological, and demographical changes (Bush 2008; Moorosi & Bush, 2011). Thirdly, decentralisation resulting in shift of decision-making power from system level to school level (Bush, 2008; Huber, 2004). Finally, the development of stronger centralised power structure to increase the control of central authorities for evaluation and inspections of schools (Huber, 2004). Developing effective school leaders has become one of the top priorities among policy makers internationally in order to develop the quality of education system (Huber, 2004; Yakavets, 2016). The increased performance pressure on headteachers has led to the demand and supply gap. Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr & Cohen (2007) identified that there was growing shortage of applicants who were interested in becoming headteachers. The reason of this gap was that both the present headteachers and willing to be headteachers were neither well prepared for the challenges nor did they have adequate support to handle the multi tasks in their schools (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007).

There is growing evidence that scholars, practitioners and policy makers agree that school leadership is directly correlated with school improvement (Barber et al., 2010; Bush, 2013; Eacott & Asuga, 2014; Grogan & Andrews, 2002; Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2020; Mythili, 2015; Supovitz, 2014) and educational reforms are unlikely to achieve their goals without developing school leaders (Eacott & Asuga, 2014).

Leithwood et al. (2020; 2008) concluded through their exhaustive literature review that school leadership plays a vital role in enriching learning experience and school organisation as it is second only to classroom teaching in order to influence learning. Bush (2013) argues that effective leadership is crucial factor in enhancing the teaching quality, learning outcome of students, and overall performance of the school. Barber et al. (2010) in their international review of school leadership from eight countries, claim that statement made by Leithwood et al. (2020; 2008) is consistent with countries across the globe with different contexts. This report further concludes that the quality standards of a school will always remain below the quality of its leaders, for example, 93% schools will have high achievement levels of students if they have effective leadership whereas only 1% school will have high achievement levels of students if they do not have effective leadership (Barber et al., 2010).

Despite of the realisation of the importance of effective school leadership in world class education systems and receiving significant recognition over the years (Moorosi & Bush,

2011), the argument regarding the importance of educational leadership in school improvement is not accepted universally (Bush 2013). Barber et al. (2010) posit that while school leadership is being increasingly accepted as a top priority in all regards, leadership development in education is the area which requires more work to be done. Bush and Jackson (2002) identified that majority of professional development training was provided for those school leaders who wanted to achieve more; however, this has not changed since then. A research study by Moorosi and Bush (2011) in ten commonwealth countries concluded that only two countries had mandatory entry training for headteachers. This is because an applicant's teaching qualification and extensive teaching experience are considered to be sufficient attributes to be a school headteacher. However, being a school headteacher involves a different role as compared to a class teacher, hence a headteacher requires training specific to his/her job role (Bush, 2018).

Given the importance of school leadership, Bush (2008) argues that school headteachers' development and preparation cannot be left to chance. The scholars Crow, Lumby and Pashiardis, (2008, p.2) suggest that, "If school leaders and leadership are important, then perhaps we should be deeply concerned with how leaders learn to do their jobs". Nonetheless, the research evidences show that school headteachers' preparation and development is neglected in many countries in the world (Moorosi & Bush, 2011) and in England over the past decade in particular (Bush, 2018).

### **2.3 Approaches to school leadership development: an international perspective**

School leadership development is a system or process rather than a one-off event. Research on the procedures of development of effective school headteachers is still at initial stage and difficult to find (Daniels et al., 2019). Majority of the research studies is focused on either formal training of the headteachers or on particular techniques such as coaching and mentoring (Daniels et al., 2019). Hence, there is a lack of clear conceptualisation of the approaches or frameworks which can successfully develop school headteachers' professional competence (Wright & da Costa, 2016). The research evidence shows that there are variations among countries regarding school leadership development models and approaches (Bush, 2013). A study by Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OCED) in 24 countries revealed that majority of countries provides only pre-service programmes for their headteachers and only eight countries provide a combination of pre-service, induction and in-service training and support to their principals (Schleicher, 2012). Some countries are moving towards a systematic approach where they will build pipeline to initiate the full support system

from recruitment, preparation, development, and succession planning of headteachers (Mendels, 2016), to develop leadership capabilities (Breakspear et al., 2017). Hence, multiple approaches followed by different jurisdiction at various stages of leadership development can be broadly categorised as pre-service, in-service and succession planning. These leadership development approaches will be reviewed in the following section in turn.

### **2.3.1 Pre-service training for school leadership development**

Bush (2018) argues that effective leadership is crucial to student outcomes as it is the most influential factor to student success after classroom teaching. The literature has common grounds on the fact that preparation and training of headteachers before joining the post ensure effective leadership (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). Hence, the suitability of headteachers to lead the school cannot be left alone to teaching qualification and teaching experience as the role of a headteacher goes beyond the classroom teaching (Bush, 2018).

Pre-service programmes are university-based programmes and formal training for the aspiring principals to prepare them for the challenges of their chosen career (Moorosi & Bush, 2011; Tingle, Corrales & Peters, 2019). The literature shows that due to globalisation and growing accountabilities, there was a growing demand of highly skilled and well-prepared school leaders (Moorosi & Bush, 2011). In response to these demands some advanced countries, such as England, put a strong focus on leadership preparation processes. The National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), the first formal leadership qualification, was introduced in England following the election of a Labour government in 1997 (Bush, 2013). The NPQH is based on the National Standards of Excellence for Headteachers and it is considered a high-profile training for both aspiring and serving headteachers (Gunter, 1999). The NPQH became mandatory for new heads in 2009 but reverted to an optional status in 2012 (Bush, 2016). The scholars (Barber et al., 2010; Harris & Jones, 2015; Leithwood et al., 1996) believe that better educated headteachers are the key to growth for schools. Increased interest of the scholars in the significance of effective leadership in the school improvement coupled with lack of effective leaders in schools has brought the attention of policy reforms towards the school leadership development (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007).

Education policy reforms have increased emphasis on school leadership worldwide with an equal consideration for the state government funding to prepare these leaders with training and programmes in order to improve the school performance (Weinstein & Hernandez, 2016).

Countries around the globe are taking initiatives in providing significant resources for leadership preparation and training (Harris & Jones, 2015). In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, there has been a significant change of governments' attitude towards recognition and importance of leadership development as compared to 1980's from "no clear system" to "centralised" development programmes especially English countries (Bush, Bell & Middlewood, 2019). However, there are different patterns, processes and content of leadership preparation programmes among different countries, for instance, mandatory preparation in Singapore and optional in England (Bush, 2018), in the case of Australia as oppose to other countries there is no national qualification and certification for headteachers (Harris & Jones, 2015).

The content of these pre-service programmes has been criticised for not being appropriate to cater for the challenges faced by school leaders in various contextual settings (Moorosi & Bush, 2011) as they are mainly focused on management and administrative tasks (human resources, financial management and external relation) than leadership, and these programmes provide more theoretical knowledge rather than practical experience (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). For example, as Bush (2008) suggested, although the NPQH programme is regarded as a successful preparation programme for personal development of the school leaders, it has been criticised for its unambitious approach. Bush et al. (2019) conclude that these programmes have gone through major amendments and shifted their focus from theoretical issues to practical implications. Despite of all these changes, these programmes fail to cater the needs of aspiring principals. Gentilucci, Denti and Guaglianone (2013) argue that even after attending preparation programmes from universities and other awarding bodies, headteachers lack required skills to meet the contemporary school leadership challenges. This phenomenon stands true even more than a decade, according to research (Fitzpatrick Associates Economic Consultants, 2018) conducted in Ireland over a decade, school headteachers state that they feel unprepared for the unprecedented challenges they face, such as changing technology, changing demands of stakeholders, legal requirements, administration issues, safeguarding, and people management (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Fitzpatrick Associates Economic Consultants, 2018).

It can be argued the reason behind the failure of pre-service programmes is the knowledge gap. The research (Gentilucci et al., 2013) shows that the content of these programmes undermines or ignores headteachers' learning needs and priorities. Gentilucci et al., (2013) suggest that headteachers prefer support in developing soft skills such as stress management, relationship

building, and networking but majority of the preparation programmes neglects these skills as they are difficult to develop and keeps focusing on hard skills. It is argued that the lack of impact evaluation of the development programmes by the training providers and lack of scrutiny by the headteachers while making choices results in inefficacy of these programmes (Weinstein & Hernandez, 2016). In addition to this, school administration also relies on the reputation of the training providing institutes and there is no direct evaluation of the development programmes on the performance of the headteachers (Weinstein & Hernandez, 2016).

Harris and Jones (2015) state that there is limited research on the impact of training on leadership within different context. The scholars (Harris & Jones, 2015; Weinstein et al., 2018) noted that there is limited or no evidence that effectively prepared school leaders have positive impact on school performance. It is worth mentioning that even educational policy reforms are based only on speculation that pre-service training and programmes will have positive and improved impact on school improvement rather than actual facts (Weinstein et al., 2018).

In order to fill this gap, data from seven Latin American countries was used to explore the relationship between formal education and leadership practices (Weinstein, Azar & Flessa, 2018). This research relied on the data collected in relation to schoolteachers' perceptions about the performance of their school headteachers. This study concluded that preparation programmes either the formal education of headteachers or training have marginal to zero impact on their leadership practices (Weinstein et al., 2018). On the contrary, a comparative study conducted in Ireland between the headteachers who have attended pre-service programmes and principals who did not have any formal preparation before joining the post concludes that headteachers who have gone through pre-service programmes are more adaptive to the changing environment and have favourable attitude towards the further learning opportunities (McGuinness & Cunningham, 2015).

### **2.3.2 In-service training for school leadership development**

Daniels et al., (2019) insist that majority of the headteachers is schoolteachers before they joined as a headteacher and they have been appointed on experiential base rather than on the basis of their formal education, hence their learning starts when they are on the job. Therefore, in-service professional development should be of major interest. In-service professional development is the training and support programmes for school leaders when they are in post,

it is also considered as continuous learning (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Moorosi & Bush, 2011). Professional development of school headteachers involves a range of formal training and informal learning in the workplace (Goldring, Preston & Huff, 2012). Formal learning includes workshops, training, lectures and courses whereas informal learning includes coaching, mentoring and peer networking (Daniels et al., 2019).

The responsibility for in-service leadership development relies with districts to facilitate headteachers' understanding with the complexity of headship and develop decision making skills (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Mendels, 2016; Moorosi & Bush, 2011). Gentilucci et al. (2013) reveal through a study that 100% of headteachers face hardship and 91% of them seek support from administration and peers to curb these challenges. Nevertheless, there is no systematic approach to support headteachers with ongoing challenges (Gentilucci et al., 2013) rather they offer short one day training and waste resources because these training do not generate fruitful results (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007).

The idea behind in-service development is to provide cumulative learning at different stages of the career based on their learning preferences and experiences (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). Hence, leadership development programmes should be bespoke to the individual needs rather than adopting a centralised curriculum (Breakspear et al, 2017; Bush, 2013; Bush et al., 2019; Mendels, 2016). However, the content of formal programmes provided at state level is criticised to be based on the global factors rather than the contextual factors. Bush and Glover (2016) suggest that school headteacher show their concern regarding the unsatisfactory quality of training opportunities as they fail to consider the individual learning needs. Moorosi and Bush (2011) have revealed from a study on ten countries that only one context (Trinidad and Tobago) indicates that state led in-service training is based on the learning needs of the participants.

Moorosi & Bush (2011) identified variations in mandatory provisions in relation to the leadership development programmes in different countries. A study conducted regarding the provision of professional development of headteachers in ten commonwealth countries reveals that they all provide development opportunities to the headteachers but at varied degrees. The findings state that only two countries had mandatory status for the continuous professional development for leaders and in other countries headteachers are expected to participate in professional development (Moorosi & Bush, 2011). However, this study does not reveal

attitudes and initiatives of principals towards optional, recommended, and mandatory training. In other words, this study does not answer the question: do principals attend these training and how do they perceive them. Moreover, literature has limited studies on the integrated and comparative evaluation of different approaches to professional development as majority of the studies is focused on formal training rather than informal (Daniels et al., 2019; Hulsbos, Evers & Kessels, 2016).

There are varied degrees of concentration for development opportunities at different stages in headteachers' careers. Two decades ago, Bush and Jackson (2002) established that professional the development of newly appointed headteachers is ignored, this phenomenon has changed since last decade as headteachers are given support through mentoring at the initial stage of their career but focus on continuing professional development (CPD) of school leaders is limited (Moorosi & Bush, 2011). Nonetheless, more recently scholars, Breakspear et al., (2017) and Mendels (2016) insist on considering the lifelong learning of headteachers. As discussed above formal learning includes workshops and training and informal learning includes coaching, mentoring, and peer networking. Bush and Glover (2016) conclude that headteachers prefer informal learning over formal learning as former is likely to result in individual development rather later is more focused on measurable result. Informal learning is categorised as 'personalised learning' and 'group learning' (Bush et al., 2019).

### ***Personalised learning***

Personalised learning opportunities include one to one support from either mentor or coach (Bush, 2016; Bush et al., 2019). Mentoring and coaching are widely used, desired and recommended forms to facilitate professional development of novice headteachers (Breakspear et al, 2017; Gentilucci et al., 2013; Moorosi & Bush, 2011). Coaching and mentoring are different from each other, mentoring is a process where a more experienced leader provides support and feedback on the leader's performance and challenges the school leaders (Bush, 2016; Bush et al., 2019, Tingle et al., 2019) and coaching is concerned with dialogue exchange between coach and school leaders to set and achieve goals for professional development (Aguilar, 2013; Bloom, 2005).

Coaching has shorter duration than mentoring (Barnett & O'Mahony, 2008) and it focuses on particular skill development (Bassett, 2001) and it is designed according to the context (Jones, Woods & Guillaume, 2015). However, these differences of coaching and mentoring are not

applied in educational leadership development context (Bush et al., 2019) and often identified as similar practices (Bush, 2013).

Coaching is considered as an integral part of leadership development programmes (Bush, Allen, Glover & Sood, 2007) and the current and past headteachers can prove to be best coaches (Breakspear et al., 2017). The success of a mentoring programme requires specific context, wider learning, and careful selection of a mentor according to the learning requirement of a school leader. (Breakspear et al., 2017; Bush, 2013) and similar conditions apply to the coaching programme (Bush et al., 2019; Bush et al., 2007) According to the findings of a recent study with 26 principals after a yearlong coaching programme, coaching has positively influenced confidence, leadership abilities, and leadership practices of school headteachers (Hayes & Burkett, 2020).

### ***Group learning***

Along with personalised learning group learning plays a significant role in the overall development of school headteacher (Bush et al., 2019). There are various forms of group learning, but the most preferred form of leadership learning is networking (Bush, 2016; Bush et al., 2019). School headteachers learn both from the discussion and the feedback on the problems of school from their colleagues which are possibly faced by them as well (Tingle et al., 2019). Breakspear et al. (2017) and Bush (2016) claim that collaborative learning in a cohort with other headteachers with similar issues and concerns, is the most valuable source of advice and feedback on day to day basis. Most importantly leaders do not feel isolated and have a sense of collective achievement (Tingle et al., 2019).

Aas and Vavik (2015) suggest that leaders gain greater confidence by receiving personal and context-based feedback from their fellow school leaders. Hulsbos et al. (2016) have conducted semi-structured interviews with 20 headteachers from Dutch schools and identified that the most valuable workplace learning is the network learning as it provides them with a comfortable and stable environment for reflection. Networking is considered to be the most advantageous form of learning among headteachers because it provides conducive environment for on the spot learning, idea generation, and idea transfer (Bush, 2016; Bush, 2013). Having said that the success of network learning is achieved when there is a clear purpose and similar context (Breakspear et al., 2017; Bush, 2016; Bush et al., 2019).



### **2.3.3 Succession planning for school leadership development**

Succession planning is relatively a new dimension added to the educational leadership development programmes in order to cater the shortage of headteachers' supply (Bush, 2011). The expected retirement of the headteachers from the baby boomer generation (Bush, 2013; Ritchie, 2020), lack of interest in school headship (Moorosi & Bush, 2011) and requirement of effective school leaders (Bush, 2008) have been contributed to a school leadership crisis in many countries (Bush, 2013). Hence, the need for identifying and preparing headteachers through succession planning (Bush, 2018) has been recognised in some countries, especially in England where the NCSL has initiated the "fast track" programme to support succession planning (the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) was merged with the Teaching Agency to become the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) in April 2013 which ultimately replaced by the Department for Education and Teaching Regulation Agency in March 2018). Supovitz (2014) argues that although succession planning is repetition of the entire process from pre-service leadership development to in-service leadership development, a viable succession planning procedure is a significant part of a holistic leadership development process (Ritchie, 2020).

It is worth noting that succession planning is associated with developing assistant headteachers (Gates, Baird, Master & Chavez-Herrerias, 2019) and other departmental chairs (Supovitz, 2014) for the head's post. A study of headteachers' development programmes in seven countries concluded that these programmes are focused on developing aspiring and current leaders and leadership development at other levels is neglected (Bush & Jackson, 2002). This does not appear to change as recently Supovitz (2014) suggested that the importance of development of assistant principals and other department chairs has been ignored for the school improvement.

Hayes and Burkett (2020) argue that the assistant principals lack leadership skills and they need additional support for leadership development so that they can be appointed at senior level. Gates et al. (2019) state that principal pipeline initiative (PPI) includes talent management activities which selects and prepares aspiring principals and contributes to enhanced student performance and school achievements. In consideration with succession planning, jurisdictions are divided into two categories: "centralised" and "decentralised". For centralised consider the case of Singapore, here Ministry of Education selects the candidates to be prepared for principalship on the basis of their past and present performance (Bush, 2008). In England, the

decentralised process of succession planning is more flexible as the assistant principals and teachers are encouraged and motivated to participate in leadership development and succession process (Bush, 2013; 2008). However, the applications are scrutinised to finalise the deserving candidates while combining both the centralised and decentralised approaches.

#### **2.4 Leadership development: a multidimensional and multilevel phenomenon**

It has been widely recognised by the scholars around the globe that effective leadership is a crucial factor in enhancing the teaching quality, learning outcome of students, and overall performance of the school (Bush, 2013). However, research on how effective school leadership takes place is still at its initial stage (Daniels et al., 2019; Day & O'Connor, 2003; Liebowitz & Porter, 2019). The research evidences show that little research has been carried out on school headteachers' undertaken professional development activities and their professional development needs and priorities (Daniels et al., 2019). Additionally, how these activities impact on their performance has also remained under research (Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011).

The scholars Day and O'Connor (2003) argue that majority of the leadership development programmes designed around and evaluated through discrete events which results in relatively little information about the efficacy and sustainable improvement of the leaders. They further add that another reason for knowledge gap in leadership development process is that it lacks serious scientific attention. Guskey (2009) further supports this idea by posing that there remains a knowledge gap about what consists of effective professional development. He argues that the reason of this knowledge gap is the gap between the beliefs of effective professional development and the scientifically valid evidence that supports these claims.

Day and O'Connor (2003, p.13) proposed three aspects of leadership development science to understand the process: (i) development of a theory (ii) advancement of multidimensional perspectives, and (iii) application of sophisticated measures and models of change. They claim that in order to understand the leadership development process one needs to pay great attention to theory building as well as theory testing. In other words, leadership development theory requires scientific testing which means a theory must be developed after collating empirical evidences to gain better understanding of the content, knowledge and competence developed through the leadership development model. Further, leadership development is argued to be a multidimensional and multilevel phenomenon (Avolio, 2004; Day & O'Connor, 2003; Mitchell & Sackney, 2000; 2001). The multidimensional perspective refers to three separate

but interconnected domains of interest: (i) development target (ii) development resources (iii) leadership constructs (see figure 3 below). First, leadership development can take place at or between various levels such as individual, dyad, group, and organisation. Second, leadership development is concerned with enhancing a range of resources, for example, human capital, social capital, and system capital. Third, leadership development prioritises the enhancement of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and relational competencies. Thus, a multidimensional perspective views leadership as a dynamic interaction of leaders, followers, and situations (Day, 2001; Day & O'Connor, 2003).

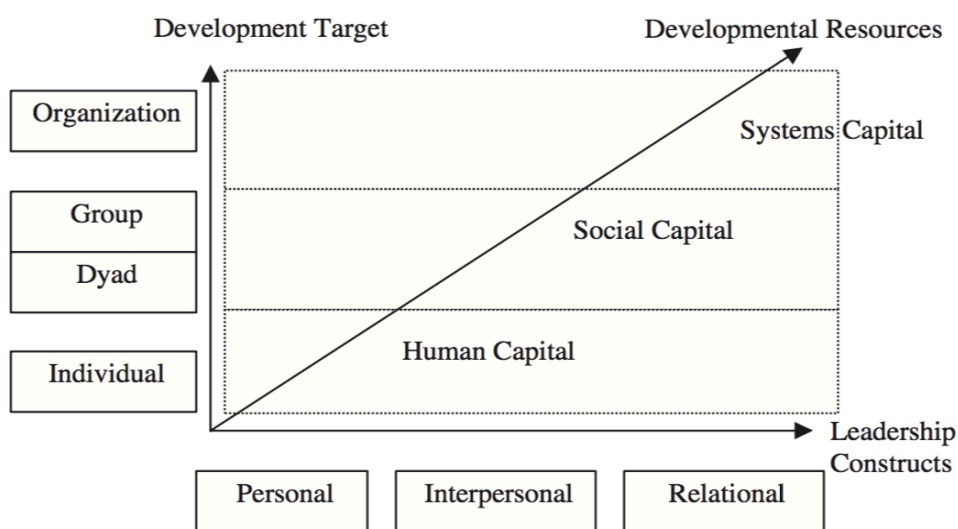


Figure 3: Multidimensionality: Focal areas for understanding the process of leader(ship) development (Day & O'Connor, 2003, p.19)

Kegan (1994) argues that while developing individual leaders without considering the social and system factors (reciprocal relations among people; organisational culture) will limit the success in developing leadership, focusing utterly on social and organisational context without proper investment in individual leader's development can put the leaders and other staff in the organisation in challenging development situations. Hence, an appropriate approach to leadership development is, to design a strategy which links an individual, group, and organisation as well as strengthens human, social, and systems capital (Day & O'Connor, 2003). Dalakoura (2010) further supports this idea by stating that leadership development is a complex phenomenon because it encompasses the interactions between the leader and the social and organisational environment. Hence, it can be argued that leadership development is a broader concept rather than simply developing skills of an individual leader.

The third and final aspect of leadership development science involves measuring the impact of leadership development process. It can be argued that any leadership development process involves change in leadership practice. However, it is difficult to measure the impact of leadership development process (Day & O'Connor, 2003; Guskey, 2002; 2009; Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011) because it is a problematic process (Bolam & McMahon, 2004; Rhodes, Stokes & Hampton, 2004) and lack of research evidence in relation to measuring impact (Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011) results in little agreement about whether complexity can be assessed individually or collectively. Although, some practices such as 360-degree feedback, coaching, mentoring, networking, job assignments, and action learning to name a few are considered impactful for leadership development, little evidence supports these claims (Day, 2001). Hence, there is a need to design appropriate impact measurement tools to assess constructs in work related situations at individual, group, and organisational levels.

The chapter so far has discussed the importance of school leadership development. It also discussed various approaches used to develop school headteachers' professional competence around the globe followed by conceptualisation of leadership development. The focus of the following section will be continuing professional development (CPD) of school headteachers.

## **Section 2**

### **2.5 Conceptualising continuing professional development (CPD)**

There are differences of opinions among scholars while defining the concept of CPD. Traditionally, the purpose of CPD was understood as the acquisition of content knowledge and teaching skills (Hoyle 1980 as cited in Muijs, Day, Harris & Lindsay, 2004). However, the increasing demands placed on educators due to educational reforms resulted in reconceptualising CPD and a new definition was proposed by Day in 1999 to encourage teaching professionals to be lifelong learners in order to keep their practice up to date to meet the job challenges (Lane 2010). The working definition for CPD proposed by Day (1999) is as following and it is still relevant:

[Continuing] professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school and which contribute through these to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral

purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives (Day, 1999, p.4)

The above definition of professional development proposed by Day (1999) reflects the complexity of the process by viewing professionals' learning within their broader change purposes. It views CPD as a dynamic process where the professionals engage and share their ideas with others in order to develop their overall practice. It considers professional development as a combination of structured (formal) and self-directed (informal) learning activities. Bradshaw, Twining and Walsh (2012) suggest that if the CPD process has to be effective, it needs to be participant-centred as well as a culture shift away from the professionals having CPD "done" to them. Bradshaw et al., (2012) further supported by Luneta (2012) by claiming that participants' involvement throughout the process of professional development, from its inception, implementation to impact evaluation, will result in the successful and sustainable improvement in learning. The scholars (Muijs et al., 2004) suggest that this definition (Day, 1999) can be used as a conceptual framework to consider models of CPD impact evaluation.

## **2.6 Continuing professional development (CPD): an under-theorised area**

Lane (2010) claims that the majority of literature of CPD focuses on improving the quality of learning and teaching and classroom practice. A study in England focused on the importance of networking suggests a number of limitations in relation to how researchers see CPD and how schools participate and register in CPD activities (McCormick, 2010). The research findings of this study reveal that CPD is under-theorised and there is a lack of literature showing what happens in ordinary schools in relation to teaching professionals' continuing professional development. Similar to McCormick (2010), Kennedy (2014a) argued that literature on teachers' CPD is partial, fragmented, and under-theorised. Guskey (2009), argues that the majority of research studies remains silent on many important issues in relation to professional development or their findings are applicable to limited contexts. He also criticises the research studies for unjustifiable generalisation about professional development approaches and activities (Guskey, 2009). Bush, Bell and Middlewood (2010) argue that much less is known about how the various approaches to professional development can be combined to meet the professional learning needs of the school leaders at different stages. Hence, there is a

need to design an appropriate curriculum/content which can cater for school leaders' professional development needs.

## **2.7 Curriculum for school leaders' professional development**

Moorosi and Bush (2011) criticise the content of the professional development programmes for not being appropriate to meet the challenges faced by school leaders in various contextual settings. They claim that these programmes are more focused on management and administrative tasks than leadership skills and these programmes mainly focus on theoretical knowledge and undermine practical experience (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). It is argued that as the educational leadership literature is dominated by Western perspectives (Mertkan et al., 2017; Truong et al., 2017) which results in leading some of authors to advocate a "one size fits all" model for school leaders' professional development (Bush et al., 2010). However, simply cloning these leadership development practices in the cultures and contexts which are different from those in which they are developed might be unwise (Walker & Dimmock, 2000). Consequently, leadership development programmes have begun to consider the significance of culture and context while designing the curriculum and also some of the countries have realised the need for customised (specialist) leadership development (Moorosi & Bush, 2011) specifically by understanding the impact of effective leadership on learners' outcome (Bush, 2012). Leithwood et al., (1999) argue that the generic components (curriculum/content) of leadership development programmes can enhance the basic skills of leadership rather than the overall development of leaders. The main argument is that the overall development of the school leaders is not possible through generic models of leadership development because effective leadership is greatly influenced by the context in which it is exercised (Leithwood et al., 1999). Hence, contextual factors (both local and national) must be taken into account while designing curriculum for leadership development programmes. Bush (2012) identified that each country has multiple contextual factors which influence the choice of leadership development models. These multiple factors include: (i) the salience of culture and context (ii) availability of resources to shape a development model (iii) the nature of national education system (centralised or decentralised), and (iv) preferences for certification or leader choice.

It is crucial to pay attention to the delivery process of the leadership development programmes along with the curriculum/content (Bush 2012). Leaders can be developed through content-focused programmes or process-rich activities, nevertheless little is known how these both approaches (content-focused and process-rich) can be combined to provide a holistic learning

experience which meets leaders' developmental needs in different contextual settings (Bush et al, 2010). The scholars (Bush, Allen, Glover & Sood, 2007) recommend four dimensions which need to be considered while designing leadership development programmes and these include (i) *learning environment*: an enriched learning experience is supported by an environment which consists of a balanced approach that links theory and practice, and provides the opportunity for the participants to learn in groups while reflecting on their experiences (ii) *learning styles*: it is crucial to identify individual learning needs for an effective learning to take place (iii) *learning approaches*: to achieve maximised learning, active (interactive) learning approach should be preferred over didactic (instructional) approach to learning and (iv) *learning support*: to ensure effectivity of the developmental activities, an ongoing evaluation must be carried out. Although, leadership learning can be enhanced by these processes (four dimensions), much leadership development in practice remains content-led with a knowledge-based curriculum (Bush et al., 2007). For example, in the USA majority of leadership development courses is lecture based which leaves little or no room for active learning (Bjork & Murphy, 2005).

## **2.8 CPD programmes and impact evaluation**

Although it is widely acknowledged that CPD is an essential element in developing schools or organisations, the impact evaluation of the CPD activities is rarely carried out in a systematic or focused manner (Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011). Another concern is that the impact evaluation of the CPD usually focuses on the details of a professional development activity rather than on the difference that developmental activity made in one's professional practice (Earley, & Porritt, 2014) and it rarely provides an insightful information that requires to improve the future CPD effectiveness (Guskey, 2000).

Arguably, the purpose of school headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD) programmes is to produce effective headteachers, hence the impact of professional development activities should be measured by employing appropriate tools (Bush, 2013; Guskey, 2002). Bush (2008) suggests that the professional development programmes need to be challenged by posing certain questions such as whether this specific programme produces better school leaders and whether certain approaches are more effective than others in obtaining positive learning outcomes? The scholars (Day, 2001; Day & O'Connor, 2003; Earley, & Porritt, 2014; Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011) recognised that there is a knowledge gap in the literature regarding how the CPD activities impact on the participants' performance. This is

due to the approaches employed for professional development impact evaluation (see section 2.4). There are two limitations recognised with impact evaluation approaches which are “self-reported evidence” and “short-term” (Bush et al., 2010). The self-reported evidence is related to asking only participants about their experiences rather than confirming from their colleagues about their changed behaviour which makes it a weak approach. On the other hand, short term evaluation is concerned with the evaluation immediately after the intervention, but it takes longer to have an impact of such programmes on leadership practices. Guskey (2000) identified three mistakes in the professional development evaluation processes which make them inadequate and ineffective. First, they focus on documentation rather than evaluation, for example, they are the lists which include brief descriptions of the topics, name of the CPD provider, number of the days, and hours involved. Second, they are too shallow and do not address meaningful indicators of success, for example, those responsible for planning CPD activities are often satisfied if CPD participants had an enjoyable experience and its effects on participants’ perceptions, attitudes beliefs, and professional practice is often not considered. Finally, they are too brief and extend over too short a time period, for example, participants are rushed to provide evidence on the effectiveness and if a quick and substantial improvement is not forthcoming, support for change is withdrawn and implementation terminates (Guskey, 2000).

Boylan, Coldwell, Maxwell and Jordan (2018) suggest that one of the effective tools to evaluate the impact of professional learning is the use of professional learning models. They recommend five models of professional learning which are powerful and have the potential to gauge the impact of professional development activities. These models include Guskey’s (2002) path model of teacher change, Desimone’s (2009) model of professional development, Clarke and Hollingsworth’s (2002) interconnected model of teacher professional growth, Opfer and Pedder’s (2011) complexity model, and Evans’ (2014) model of professional development. Nonetheless, it is argued that the complexities of professional learning involve seeking an answer to theoretical and methodological challenges. Hence, using these models together with other relevant constructs (knowledge) rather than as representation can address this methodological complexity which can support a more informed and effective selection of professional learning models (Boylan et al., 2018).

Notwithstanding, another cohort of scholars (Muijs et al., 2004) advocates Guskey’s (2000) model of evaluating professional development as it offers a way of thinking about gauging the



professional development at different levels, for example: (i) participants' reactions (ii) participants' learning from CPD (iii) organisational support and change (iv) participants' use of new knowledge and skills, and (v) student learning outcomes. According to Guskey (2000) evaluation is a systematic investigation of merit or worth of something and being systematic, distinguishes this process from informal evaluation in which participants engage consciously or unconsciously. He suggests that effective impact evaluation requires analysis of information at five critical levels. At Level 1, information is often gathered via questionnaires regarding participants' reaction to the CPD experience which include mainly three types of questions in relation to the content, process and context. The Level 2 focuses on collecting data on participants' learning and this information can involve anything from paper-and-pencil assessments to demonstrations. This information is relevant to the goals of the CPD programme. The CPD evaluation at Level 3 concerns with the organisational support and change. Guskey (2000) suggests that if there is a lack of an organisational support, any professional development effort can fail. For example, organisation policies can undermine implementation of CPD efforts, hence any gains made during CPD might be lost. The next level, Level 4 focuses on evaluating participants' use of new knowledge and skills. This information is gathered after a reasonable time following the completion of the CPD programme which gives participants a sufficient amount of time to practice newly learned skills. Finally, Level 5 addresses the impact of CPD on student learning outcome. This information can include cognitive, affective, and psychomotor indicators. In sum, impact evaluation of a CPD is a thoughtful, intentional and purposeful process that is carried out with clear reasons (Guskey, 2000).

Inspection evidence (Ofsted, 2010) suggests that many school leaders are looking for practical and simple ways to carry out impact evaluation of their professional development. Many of the school leaders are struggling to do impact evaluation and majority of their impact evaluation remains at Guskey's (2000) first level of participant's reaction, in other words it is about creating "happy sheets". Earley and Vivienne (2014) note that in the actual practice across the schools, it is not adequately reflected that what contributes to an effective CPD. For instance, the State of the Nation research found that majority of the teachers' professional development time is spent in workshops and seminars that do not have features associated with positive impact (Opfer, Pedder, McCormick & Storey, 2010). It was noted that most of the impact seemed to occur at the personal level of individual (Guskey's Level 1: participant's reaction of CPD) and there was a little indication of the professional development impacting on raising

standards or narrowing the achievement gap (Opfer et al., 2010 as cited in Earley, 2010). In conclusion, any CPD effort is considered effective if it makes a substantial difference to the participants' attitudes, thinking, and practice that has the potential to make a difference for their schools and student learning outcomes (Earley & Vivienne, 2014). Hence, the key question to ask during the impact evaluation should be, whether the CPD effort has made a difference?

## **2.9 Education policy reform and CPD**

The growing recognition of the importance of human capital for economic growth resulted in many nations exploring different ways of improving the productivity of their educational systems (West & Peterson, 2006). Further, the concerns of the quality and equity of education systems around the globe have put the policy makers under huge pressure and led to global education debates about performative or test-based accountability (Gurova & Camphuijsen, 2020). The culture of performative accountability (Perryman & Calvert, 2020) has become central to modernising education systems as well as to raising the performance of schools (Gurova & Camphuijsen, 2020). It is argued that performative accountability can improve efficiency, academic excellence, and equity by holding schools and school actors accountable for the achievement of externally defined standards, for example local, national and international standardized achievement tests (Hardy, Reyes, & Hamid, 2019). However, while performative accountability modalities have gained popularity worldwide (Verger, Parcerisa & Fontdevila, 2019), these modalities fail to satisfy the expectations of policy makers (Falabella, 2014). Thiel, Schweizer and Bellmann, (2017) and Berliner (2011) provided lists of the side effects of the performative accountability modalities including “teaching to the test”, “cheating”, “cream skimming”, “erosion of trust”, “deprofessionalisation”, “gaming strategies”, “curriculum narrowing”, and so on.

Day and Sachs (2004) state that the government concerned with the need to raising standards of achievements and improving their schools' positions in the world economic league tables began intervening actively in the schooling system over the last two decades. As a consequence, in many countries, majority of the teaching professionals' CPD takes place within the contexts of increasing governmental interventions for the purpose of “accountability” and “performativity” (Day & Sachs, 2004). The scholars (Ostinelli & Crescentini, 2021) note that CPD policies around the globe are aimed at producing functionary-minded (entrepreneurial) educators rather than experts or competent (traditional) professionals.

In other words, these political purposes (accountability and performativity) are embedded both in the curriculum (content) of CPD and the forms (models) of CPD. It can be argued that the new agenda in professional development is concerned with being compliant (Day & Sachs, 2004) or it is all about coping with the new Ofsted trends (Molway, 2019). This idea of meeting external requirements or following Ofsted trends has been linked to the culture of performative (test-based) accountability by Perryman and Calvert (2020). According to Ball (2003) performativity requires teaching professionals to prepare themselves to respond the targets, indicators and evaluations by putting their personal beliefs and commitments aside. It implies that professionals' CPD needs should be aligned with the Ofsted targets and their school improvement (SIP) plans (Sugrue & Mertkan, 2017). It is suggested that performativity in education might result in a sense of deprofessionalisation among educators as they can feel that they are performing to demonstrate their expertise rather than making a difference to students' lives (Perryman & Calvert, 2020). Keddie (2017) comments that entrepreneurial professionalism (performativity) sets itself against traditional professionalism (authentic) because the modern language of performativity is more business driven (incentives, economic efficiency, and value adding) as opposed to traditional professionalism (beliefs, values, and culture).

Timperley (2011) further argues that professional development (in a culture of performativity) is regarded as a mode of delivering information to influence individuals' practice and it is seen as merely participation. However, it is an internal process where individuals create knowledge by interacting with this information in such a way that it challenges their previous beliefs and assumptions to create new meanings. It is suggested that challenges and meaning making are crucial to overcome entrenched educational problems (Timperley, 2011). Hence, the educational professionals require transformative rather than additive change to their professional practice and for this to happen the CPD participants should be involved in a continuing process of enquiry, analysis, reflection, evaluation, and further action (Jones, 2015). Similarly, Gherardi (1999) claims that if the professional learning is to be effective and sustainable, it needs to be linked to the mysteries and perplexities faced by the professionals rather than to the problem solving or meeting external requirements (performativity). It can be argued that when professional learning is linked exclusively to the problem solving (Gherardi, 1999) or it is driven by the functional factors (government initiatives and institutional expectations) (Ball, 2003; Sambrook, 2002), it might lose its connection with the lives of the professionals and may result in an unnatural and ineffective learning (Gherardi, 1999).

## **2.10 Collaborative continuing professional development (CPD)**

Sugrue and Mertkan (2017) maintain that the high-stakes accountability game where highest performance schools are rewarded (earned autonomy and preferred resources) and low performing schools are put into special measures, created a climate of fear among practitioners. However, such conditions also inspired collaborative innovations, for example Collaborative CPD (Kennedy, 2011), Network of Practice (Brown & Duguid, 2000), Learning Communities (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000), Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998), and various forms of networking.

Kennedy (2011) suggests that the notion of collaborative CPD is becoming increasingly popular among educational professionals nowadays. It is claimed that a collaborative CPD (group learning) if it is undertaken over a period of time rather than a one-off session can be more effective compared to individual CPD (Cordingley, Bell, Thomason & Firth, 2005). A collaborative CPD can include various activities ranging from informal and unplanned learning with colleagues to structured and more formalised learning communities, communities of practice or communities of enquiry (Kennedy, 2011). From this perspective a collaborative CPD has the capacity to satisfy all three of Bell and Gilbert's (1996, p.15) dimensions of professional learning: (i) social: the social development as a part of an individual's professional learning (professional development) involves the renegotiation and reconstruction of what it means to be a professional (for example, school leader/headteacher). It includes the development of ways of working with other colleagues that enable social interactions essential for renegotiating and reconstructing the meanings, for example, what it means to be a school leader. In Wenger's (1998) words, it is about "mutual engagement" where members of a group interact with each other, learn together, discuss ideas, share their experiences in order to negotiate meanings (see section 3.3.2 for mutual engagement), (ii) personal: the personal development as a part of professional learning involves each individual in the process of constructing, evaluating and accepting or rejecting the new socially constructed knowledge about what it means to be a school leader for example.

In Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) words, it is about indulging an individual into an "internal search" that helps educators to understand their unknown territory (actual practice) to create alignment with their known territory (articulated beliefs) in order to build their professional integrity (see section 3.4.3 for internal search), (iii) professional or occupational: the professional development as a part of an individual's professional learning involves

professional into reflective practice where they reflect on their practice, for example why do they (for example being a school leader) employ different strategies/activities and what are assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions underlying those strategies/activities. In sum, although different forms of collaborative learning involve different features and conditions, socially situated learning is viewed as a common feature. In a collaborative form of CPD, value is placed on the learning stimulated by working with others rather than on the individual isolated activity. A comparative study of the impact of an individual and collaborative CPD has shown that collaborative CPD has much more impact on teaching and learning as compared to individual CPD and it also encouraged teacher commitment and ownership of CPD (Cordingley et al.,2005).

In addition to three dimensions of professional learning discussed above, Bell and Gilbert (1996, p. 93) also suggest three effective components for professional development namely (i) feedback: it helps the educators to identify issues with their existing practice as well as the change in their practice after implementing new learning through the CPD (ii) support: in professional learning different forms of support can include respect, encouragement, appropriate learning materials, sufficient time for reflection, planning, and to share ideas. One of the forms of support for professional learning which is often neglected argued Bill and Gilbert (1996) is the opportunity to be listened to and to release emotions. They propose that unproductive practice becomes productive when individuals are listened to attentively while sharing how their previous experiences and actions influence their current practice. They claim that the change process is sped up when individuals feel safe to release their emotions (Bill & Gilbert, 1996). A recent study by Patton and Parker (2017) indicated that teacher educators' feeling of self-efficacy was enhanced after they received emotional support from their community of practice (CoP) that consequently encouraged them to put more efforts to their learning and exploring new practices. Nevertheless, the only way to fuel the change process is that individuals (community members) develop their abilities and commitment to paying continuous attention to each other (Weissglass, 1994 as cited in Bill & Gilbert, 1996), (iii) reflection: it helps the educators to think about their actions (current practice) and the beliefs and values associated with those actions. "Reflection on action", "reflection in action", and "reflection as critical inquiry" help the educators to develop their ideas and beliefs about their practice (Bill & Gilbert, 1996, p.105). In sum, it can be suggested that leadership development is a multidimensional and multilevel phenomenon (see section 2.4). Hence, it is argued that

while designing CPD programmes, various dimensions of professional learning such as social, personal and professional/occupational as well as several effective components of professional development namely feedback, support, and reflection must be taken into consideration. In essence, a community of practice (CoP), network of practice (NoP) or a learning community (LC) can be an appropriate model for CPD to involve all the features mentioned above (see chapter 3: theoretical framework for further information on network of practice (NoP), community of practice (CoP) and learning community (LC)). The research evidence showed that communities of practice/learning communities are the important contributors to school reform (Little, 2002), hence the change agents start viewing them as a preferred strategy for school improvement (Mitchell & Sackney, 2001).

## **2.11 Chapter summary**

The studies reviewed in this chapter suggest that while school leadership is an important factor in improving the overall performance of the school (Bush, 2013), school leadership development requires more work to be done. The literature review reveals that there are variations among countries regarding school leadership development models and approaches (Bush, 2013). For example, from an international perspective, a study by OCED in 24 countries concluded that majority of countries provides only pre-service training for their headteachers and only eight countries provide a combination of pre-service, induction and in-service training and support to the headteachers (Schleicher, 2012). The literature suggests that multiple approaches followed by different jurisdictions at various stages of leadership development can be broadly categorised as pre-service, in-service and succession planning.

It was identified that majority of the countries had no arrangement for a mandatory or a systematic CPD for school leaders (Moorosi & Bush, 2011) and India and the United Kingdom (UK) are not different in this respect. Further, it was noted that majority of the professional development training was undertaken or provided for those school headteachers who were willing to learn more to improve their professional practice and the situation has not changed since then (Bush & Jackson, 2002). This literature suggests that little is known about the procedures which can develop school headteachers' professional competence effectively (Daniels et al., 2019), consequently there is lack of clear conceptualisation of the approaches or models to leadership development. The literature review revealed that the content/curriculum of CPD programmes tends to undermine or ignore school headteachers'

learning needs and priorities and they are not provided with the appropriate training and support by CPD facilitators (Bush & Glover, 2016; Gentilucci et al., 2013).

The literature also suggests that there is a gap in literature in relation to school headteachers' CPD needs and priorities as well as the professional development activities they have undertaken (Daniels et al., 2019). In addition to this, very little is known about how their CPD activities impact their performance being a school leader (Day & O'Connor, 2003; Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011). Nonetheless, researchers in future can investigate how various CPD activities and CPD processes, alone and in combination, contribute to better leadership development (Day, 2001). The review of literature showed that CPD is an under-theorised area (Kennedy, 2014; McCormick, 2010) and most of the important issues associated with CPD are not addressed by research studies (Guskey, 2009). Moreover, the literature suggests that the National Education Policy is a key factor in driving school leaders' CPD which results in culture of performative accountability (Perryman & Calvert, 2020) and it is accepted as an essential feature to raise the school performance (Gurova & Camphuijsen, 2020). Finally, this literature review explored the importance of collaborative CPD and communities of practice (CoPs) in school leaders' professional development.

In order to fill the gap in literature and to better understand the phenomenon under research, this study will examine the approaches employed for school leaders' continuing professional development (CPD), for example, this study will analyse what procedures (structured or unstructured) are in place for headteachers' CPD in two diverse contexts in terms of culture, location, technological development, academic standards and economic growth. It will also look into the CPD needs analysis processes, for example how English and Punjabi headteachers' CPD needs and priorities are addressed and how their professional needs are met. This study will analyse what evaluation methodologies are in use to measure the impact of headteachers' CPD in both contexts. Finally, this study will critically analyse how national policy environment of the given research context influences headteachers' CPD. Below is the table (table 3) that reviews various terms of continuing professional development (CPD) emerged throughout the literature.

Table 3: Different terms of CPD emerged throughout the literature

Different terms of CPD	Explanation
Pre-service training	Pre-service programmes are university-based programmes and formal training for the aspiring principals to prepare them for the challenges of their chosen career. For example, the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH). (see section 2.3.1 for further details)
In-service/INSET	In-service training also known as INSET is the training and support programmes for school leaders when they are in post. It involves a range of formal training and informal learning in the workplace. Formal learning includes workshops, training, lectures, and courses whereas informal learning includes coaching, mentoring, and peer networking. The idea behind in-service training is to provide cumulative learning at different stages of the headship based on the learning preferences and experiences of the headteachers. (see section 2.3.2 for further details)
Succession planning	Succession planning is relatively a new dimension added to the educational leadership development programmes in order to cater the shortage of headteachers' supply. Although succession planning is repetition of the entire process from pre-service leadership development to in-service leadership development, a viable succession planning procedure is a significant part of a holistic leadership development process. It is associated with developing assistant headteachers and other departmental chairs for the head's post. (see section 2.3.3 for further details)
Collaborative CPD/Networking	The collaborative CPD also known as networking is becoming increasingly popular form of CPD among headteachers these days. A collaborative CPD is undertaken over a period of time rather than a one-off session. It can include various activities ranging from informal and unplanned learning with colleagues to structured and more formalised learning communities, communities of practice or communities of enquiry. A collaborative CPD has the capacity to satisfy all three dimensions of professional learning namely social, personal and occupational. (see section 2.10 for further details)



## **Chapter 3: Theoretical framework**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides the rationale behind using a specific framework to locate and theorise the study. This study used a combination of four theoretical frameworks to examine the phenomenon under this study. These frameworks were: (i) Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (ii) Wenger's (1998) Communities of Practice Theory (iii) Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community and (iv) Sambrook's (2002) Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Work in Learning. These frameworks offer a comprehensive approach to understanding the primary headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD) in an appropriate manner.

The study used Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs) to illustrate how primary headteachers' informal collaborative groups or networks within this research context influence their continuing professional development (CPD). The primary headteachers' informal collaborative groups in this research study are somewhat identical to Brown and Duguid's (2000) NoPs. Majority of the English headteachers interviewed in this study revealed that they developed their professional skills on their own by means of Internet, websites, newsletters, forums and online networking. In addition to online sources, they also made use of physical face-to-face meetings with their local colleagues which they identified as an excellent source of knowledge and information in order to deal with problems and issues in their respective schools. On the other hand, Punjabi headteachers within this research context did not belong to any informal collaborative group or network similar to their English counterparts. Nevertheless, in order to enhance their professional skills, they did seek help from their informal contacts, for example, they connected with their community members, family, friends, staff and children's parents. A few of the Punjabi headteachers, however, also utilised research articles and websites for their professional skills development.

This study utilised Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of practice within a CoP in particular to complement Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs). These dimensions include mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998). This chapter argues that although, Brown and Duguid's (2000) notion of Networks of Practice has some benefits over traditional Communities of Practice, it lacks a coherent structure which is a key aspect of Wenger's (1998) CoPs. These three dimensions provide a

coherent structure of practice or a framework of what educators and institutions need to take into account to form Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998). A study of horizontal collaborations in different organisational setting claimed that it identified a range of structures, however none of them was as strong or coherent as a Community of Practice (Frenkel, Korczynski, Shire & Tam, 1999).

The third theoretical framework in this study was Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community which was used to analyse how three aspects of learning namely personal, interpersonal, and organisational facilitate the process of building the capacity of primary headteachers' collaborative groups similar to the Networks of Practice (NoPs). In addition, this study also employed Sambrook's (2002) three-dimensional model to examine the factors affecting headteachers' participation in the CPD activities.

The following section will explain the key components and define the technical terms of each model consists of. It will also justify the use of these four theoretical frameworks to better understand primary headteachers' professional development in both contexts of this study.

### **3.2 Conceptualising Networks of Practice (NoPs) in relation to CoPs**

The concept of the Networks of Practice (NoPs) was drawn from the notion of Communities of Practice (CoPs) (Brown & Duguid, 2001). Since the publication of Lave and Wenger's *Situated Learning* (1991), the notion of Communities of Practice has been widely accepted for understanding the movement of knowledge among practitioners of same trades. Nonetheless, Lave and Wenger's focus on small local communities made it hard to apply Communities of Practice for understanding larger global processes of the dissemination of technical knowledge (Brown & Duguid, 2001; Wasko & Faraj, 2005; Vaast & Walsham, 2009). Hence, Brown and Duguid (1991; 2001) introduced the concept of Networks of Practice by developing Lave and Wenger's CoPs into an organisational context which addressed the issue to some extent. They propose the existence of networks of local communities which can share or exchange knowledge by using electronically mediated means or digital documents. In other words, their approach of Networks of Practice creates a space for the role of electronic ways of working while still holding on to the importance of physical face to face participation in local Communities of Practice which is a key feature of CoP (Takhteyev, 2009). The Networks of Practice (NoPs) range from traditional Communities of Practice where learning takes place through face to face interactions to Networks of Practice where learning often occurs by means

of electronic or digital communication (Brown & Duguid, 2000; 2001; Teigland & Wasko, 2004).

Brown and Duguid recognised a CoP as a useful subset or part of a larger network which implies “communities within the network” (Brown & Duguid, 2001, p.143). In other words, they view organisations as hybrid groups of overlapping and interdependent communities (Brown & Duguid, 1998) rather than single Communities of Practice which represent another level in the complex level of knowledge creation. They argued that “intercommunal relationships allow the organisation to develop collective, coherent and synergistic organisational knowledge out of the potentially separate, independent contributions of individual [C]ommunities [of Practice]” (Brown & Duguid, 1998, p.97). To put it simply, cross-community organisation is crucial to overcome some of the problems Communities of Practice may create for themselves. For instance, isolated Communities of Practice may get stuck in ruts, resulting in, turning core competencies into core rigidities (Vaast & Walsham, 2009); and they may require external stimuli to move forward (Leonard Barton, 1995).

Although a Community of Practice is a powerful source of knowledge, it can be blinkered by the limitations of its own world view argued Brown and Duguid (1998; 2001; 2001a). For instance, a study of technological innovation revealed how even the most sophisticated workers (specialists) failed to identify quite damning evidence (Garud & Rappa, 1994 as cited in Brown & Duguid, 1998). Similarly, an ethnographic study of service technicians showed how a technical specialist (whose job combines trouble shooting consultant, supervisor, occasional instructor) baffled while confronting a machine that produced copious raw information in the form of error codes (Orr, 1996 as cited in Brown & Duguid, 1991; 2001). Nevertheless, it is not to suggest that contribution of individual CoPs is of less importance. Arguably, within an organisation perceived as a collective of communities wherein performing experiments are legitimate, separate or individual community perspectives might be amplified by exchanging ideas among communities. If these internal/individual communities (communities within an organisation) are provided with a certain degree of autonomy and independence from the dominant world view, they might help to speed up the innovation process in an organisation (Brown & Duguid, 1991).

Nonetheless, the idea of Communities of Practice has been received with much enthusiasm, it

needs to handle with care caution Brown and Duguid (2001). It is argued that “often too much attention is paid to the idea of a community, too little to the implications of practice” (Brown & Duguid, 2001, p.198). Practice, in fact, is central to understand the acquisition of one’s identity and knowledge at work (Brown & Duguid, 1991). Their approach of looking at an individual’s “learning” and “identity” through the prism of “practice” shifts the focus from production/delivery to consumption/participation. In other words, it shifts the focus from the structural or organisational perspective to the perspective of participation (Brown & Duguid, 2001). In their article “*Toward a unified view of working, learning and innovation*”, Brown and Duguid (1991) claimed to reassess the concepts of work, learning and innovation in the contexts of actual communities and actual practices. They concluded that these three ideas (work, learning and innovation) are interrelated and complementary. During their research on workplace practices, Brown and Duguid (1991) noted that the ways actually people work often differ from the ways organisations describe in their work manuals, training programmes, organisational charts and job descriptions. They identified discrepancies between an organisation’s formal descriptions of work in its training programmes and manuals and the actual work performed by its members. They explained how an organisation’s view of work overlooked and opposed the contribution of the service technicians’ (staff) in getting a job done. They also illustrated how an organisation’s reliance on espoused practice may blind its core to the actual valuable practice of the members. They added that for organisations to foster working, learning and innovating, this gap (between espoused and actual practice) must be addressed and closed because it is the actual practice of members in an organisation that determines an organisation’s success or failure (Brown & Duguid, 1991). Hence, in order to map a systemic innovation/success, analysis should be extended to embrace all firms in a knowledge economy not merely the classically innovative. This extension of analysis will call for a transformation of conventional ideas coordination and of the trade-off between exploration and exploitation (Brown & Duguid, 1991). This practice-focused analysis brings investigation of knowledge and identity in organisation closer to the point at which working life is lived, work is done and work identity is created consequently.

From Brown and Duguid’s (2001) perspective, one’s work identity is created more by actual participation in an organisation than mandated or dictated by its structure or culture respectively. In this respect, Lave and Wenger’s (1991) Communities of Practice developed by Brown and Duguid’s (1991) (known as Networks of Practice) offer a helpful level of analysis

for looking at work, learning, knowledge and work identity formation organisations. For Brown and Duguid (2001) CoPs appear to be useful organisational subset to examine organisational knowledge and work identity due to several reasons. They regard CoPs as the privileged sites for problem identification, learning skills and producing knowledge. It is argued that the most useful knowledge in an organisation is developed by those who directly benefit from a solution not by the specialist detached from a problem (Hippel, 1991 as cited in Brown & Duguid, 2001). The CoPs are also treated as the significant repositories that develop, maintain and reproduce knowledge. Further, the members of a community provide one another social “affordances” which scaffolds knowledge creation within a CoP. Finally, a CoP helps the community members to develop their ability to adapt continuously and respond proactively to the environmental changes. The members of a CoP are usually simultaneously members of that organisation and the members of a larger dispersed occupational group. Hence, while providing a source of locally produced knowledge, a CoP also creates an important link between organisational strategy and the changes emerge beyond the organisation (Brown & Duguid, 2001).

In summary, the Networks of Practice (NoPs) appear to add another dimension to the Communities of Practice (CoPs). The traditional CoPs cannot be separated from NoPs as they are the important and useful subsets of the NoPs (Brown & Duguid, 2000; Wasko, Faraz & Teigland, 2004). The CoPs are regarded as essential and emerging building blocks of the knowledge sharing process due to the increasing complexities of the organisations (Teigland & Wasko, 2004; Wasko et al., 2004), and in an effort to replicate traditional Communities of Practice electronically, a number of organisations globally are investing in Information Technologies to facilitate knowledge sharing notwithstanding time and space constraints (Teigland & Wasko, 2004). In doing so, modern organisations are extending the traditional situated learning model of Communities of Practice to broader computer mediated context of Networks of Practice (Vaast & Walsham, 2009).

Brown and Duguid (2000) suggest that in order to understand learning, within the work practice, and movement of knowledge, the understanding of Communities of Practice (CoPs) and Networks of Practice (NoPs) is valuable as these both are practice related social networks. A number of previous research studies identified that NoPs and CoPs have their own unique characteristics with a few overlapping attributes in relation to work practice (Takhteyev, 2009; Vaast & Walsham, 2009; Wasko et al, 2004). For instance, both the NoPs and CoPs view

learning as a social construction in contrast to the most conventional learning theories which tend to value abstract knowledge over the actual practice resulting in separating learning from working (Brown & Duguid, 1991). The NoPs create space for electronic ways of working and, in contrast to the CoPs, they provide an open access to the professionals regardless their field, educational background, work experience, and location. Further, NoPs are loose groups where members are free to join or leave any time (Brown & Duguid, 2000) by contrast the CoPs are close knit groups whose members are committed to improve their professional practice by arranging face to face meetings with the community members on regular basis (Wenger, 1998). The notion of CoP illuminates the importance of emergent mutual engagement in practice. In a CoP, mutual engagement typically refers to physical face to face interactions (Wenger, 1998). Similarly, emergent mutual engagement may also occur by means of digital communication such as mailing lists. The NoPs are similar to CoPs as they offer space where individuals working on similar problems and issues can share their perspectives about their professional practice (Pyrko, Dorfler & Eden, 2019; Vaast & Walsham, 2009). The majority of the NoPs uses electronic or digital communication to supplement their traditional activities in order to make them impactful (DeSanctis & Monge, 1991). The members of a NoP may not necessarily collocate or may never know or meet each other face to face, yet they share common foundation of work practice and they may interest in similar issues and hot topics (Vaast & Walsham, 2009). The members of a NoP are usually connected through a network of work-based connections such as professional associations or they exchange knowledge through conferences or publications such as specialised newsletters (Wasko & Faraz, 2005). The NoPs may not produce new knowledge, they have the capacity to share existing knowledge very effectively and coherently (Takhteyev, 2009). The literature revealed two tendencies of CoPs which may limit their learning potential (Vaast & Walsham, 2009). First, it appears that the members of a CoP are prone to power struggles which may impede their ability to change and may make the CoPs closed systems by restricting their epistemic horizon. Second, the traditional model of situated learning may not account for all processes of practice-based learning for there are many other environments in which people with few similarities engage in practices but do not necessarily collocate. Such environments (groups) cannot be labelled as CoPs as this would broaden the notion excessively (Vaast & Walsham, 2009). Nonetheless, these groups can be described under the notion of the Networks of Practice introduced by Brown and Duguid (2001).

It is argued that knowledge cannot be separated from the context in which it is constructed

(Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). It is suggested that negotiation, communication and coordination among members of a CoP is highly implicit and it is a part of their work practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). It appears that knowledge is produced in CoPs and it resides in CoPs (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The importance of situated learning is stressed through participation in a CoP that connects the process of learning to that of becoming a member in a system of relationships which defines the community of practitioners (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). However, the learning processes (practices) which may emerge in a NoP are not well understood yet argued Duguid (2005). These learning processes (that emerge in a NoP) cannot rigorously be characterised as “situated learning processes” (that bounds to specific communities/cultures) for the apprenticeship like processes of “legitimate peripheral participation” (restrictive boundaries) (Lave & Wenger, 1991) cannot emerge in large and loose entities like NoPs (Duguid, 2005).

Takhteyev (2009) in his study of software developers suggests the need to adapt CoP’s stress on the situated nature of knowledge and learning in line with Brown and Duguid (1991; 2001) and (Duguid, 2005) with the empirical fact that learning often takes place over distance with little personal contact or movement of people involved. He put forward an example of a Brazilian software developer who learned to apply programming techniques originally developed in California without taking part in any CoPs based in California. His social learning mostly involved local sharing knowledge originally acquired from Internet documents, sharing pointers to such documents, exchanging links or keywords that can be entered in Google or book titles. The frequent used formula for his skills development was “reading and doing” although access to other professionals was identified useful and time saving. Altogether, a variety of components such as human (access to live practitioner), non-human (computer) and institutional (basic education) could be seen in the development of a Brazilian software developer’s professional skills (Takhteyev, 2009).

### **3.2.1 Structure of Networks of Practice (NoPs)**

In order to make sense how structural properties of a network relate to the understanding of knowledge exchange, Wasko et al. (2004) propose a social network perspective of knowledge exchange. In contrast to other theories that focus on individual attributes such as age, gender, education, and occupation, social network perspectives examine how the relations among individuals impact interactions and outcomes. It is suggested that the social network dynamics (growth/development) rely on the macrostructural and microstructural properties of the

networks and understanding of these properties will help one to understand knowledge exchange and knowledge contribution in the networks (Wasko et al., 2004). While the macrostructural properties of a network involve the environmental conditions (external factors) in which a network is created and sustained such as network control, communication channel, network size, access, and participation, (see table 4 in the end of this section for the macrostructural properties of CoPs and NoPs), the microstructural properties represent the affective climate (internal factors) that involves “individuals” and “relations” between them developed within a network.

The term “relations” in microstructural properties referred to as the “ties” of a network (Wasko et al., 2004). The “ties” in a network usually referred to as “weak” or “strong”, nonetheless the definition of what consists of “weak” or “strong” ties may vary in a particular context (Marsden & Campbell, 1984). For example, the Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community proposed by Mitchell and Sackney (2000) indicates that, in a learning community, “strong ties” are those networks which develop between local educators who share similar educational backgrounds, professional beliefs, values, and practice. By contrast, “weak ties”, in a learning community, refer to those networks which emerge from the opposite conditions, for example educators having diverse educational backgrounds, beliefs and professional practices. Mitchell and Sackney, (2000) note that “strong ties” are essential for emotional support for educators as they provide safety, predictability, and stability; nevertheless, they limit the amount of new information and ideas. The “weak ties” on the other hand, may not provide similar conditions of safety or predictability for educators to share and try their new ideas; however, these ties have great potential for profound improvement as they provide educators with new ideas and experiments in professional practice (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000).

In the NoPs, however, the “ties” are suggested to be vary in content, direction, and relational strength (Garton, Haythornthwaite & Wellman, 1999; Wasko et al., 2004). The content of the ties involves the resources exchanged, for example, information, money, advice, and kinship. It also indicates the individuals to be included in a network and thus it limits the boundaries of the network. The direction of the ties indicates the overall pattern of the network, for example the giver and the receiver of the resources which create the structure of the network. The relational strength of ties concerns the amount of energy, emotional intensity, intimacy, commitment, and trust which describes the quality of the relations among individuals in a network indicating their concerns about other members’ learning needs and goals (Granovetter,



1985; Wasko et al., 2004). Nonetheless, the members of a NoP may maintain a tie based on one relation only, for instance, the members of the same organisation or they may maintain a multiplex tie based on several relations such as sharing information, providing financial support, and attending conferences together (Garton et al., 1999).

*Table 4: Macrostructural properties of CoPs and NoPs adapted from Wasko et al. (2004, p.499)*

Macrostructural properties	Communities of Practice (CoPs)	Networks of Practice (NoPs)
Network control	No formal control Voluntary	No formal control Voluntary
Communication channel	Face to face interaction (primary)	Text based, computer mediated, e.g. Listservs, Discussion Boards, Websites, face to face
Network size	Small	Small to Large
Access	Restricted, locally bounded, limited to colocation	Open, no limitations other than access to technology
Participation	Jointly determined	Individually determined

The table 4 above highlights macrostructural properties of two Networks of Practice namely Communities of Practice (CoPs) and Networks of Practice (NoPs). According to Brown and Duguid (1991; 2001) as mentioned earlier in this section, the Communities of Practice are also Networks of Practice as these (CoPs) are considered integral subsets or parts of the Networks of Practice. Takhteyev (2009) suggests that Brown and Duguid’s approach of Network of Practice creates a space for the role of electronic ways of working while still holding on to the importance of physical face to face participation in the local Communities of Practice which is a key feature of a CoP. It implies that Brown and Duguid (2001) extends Lave and Wenger’s (1991) traditional Communities of Practice to the modern electronic Communities of Practice known as Networks of Practice. The CoPs and NoPs share some common characteristics such as both CoPs and NoPs have no formal control as they are self-organised networks. The traditional model of CoPs uses face to face interaction as a primary mode of communication; however, electronic media is also used whenever required. The NoPs, on the other hand, often use a combination of digital media and face to face interactions. The third macrostructural property is network size. The size of a Network of Practice can range from small to large as it has open access. Its open access enables the development of large Networks of Practice made

up of hundreds to thousands of individuals. In contrast, Communities of Practice do not have open access as the membership of CoPs is restricted to specific professionals. In addition, the requirements of co-presence and turn taking limit the size of the CoPs. Finally, the participation in the Communities of Practice is jointly determined (Wenger, 1998). For instance, though an individual may have access to a local CoP, they still may be unable to be a member that CoP due to tightly-knit relationships among specific members within the CoP (Wenger, 1998). However, participation in NoPs is quite often individually determined. The individual can determine the type and level of activities to participate (Brown & Duguid, 2001). In conclusion, the discussion about the CoPs and NoPs above illuminates that these both concepts are complementary while these have their own distinct characteristics.

This chapter so far has conceptualised the Networks of Practice in relation to the Communities of Practice. It also highlighted the similar and distinct characteristics of these practice-based learning concepts. The following section will focus on Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of practice within a Community of Practice in particular.

### **3.3 Wenger's (1998) theory of CoP: three dimensions of practice**

Wenger (1998) argues that though Communities of Practice are immediately recognisable, their existence is evidenced by a range of indicators (Wenger, 1998). These indicators involve shared ways of engaging in doing things together, local lore, shared stories, jokes, humour, specific tools, and other artefacts (Fuller, 2007). Wenger (1998) categorised these indicators in terms of three dimensions of relations or practice as a source of coherence within a Community of Practice. In other words, these three dimensions provide a coherent structure of practice or a framework of what educators and institutions need to take into account to form Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998). These three dimensions of practice are fundamental to the development and sustainability of a Community of Practice (Kuh, 2016). Nevertheless, having access to these dimensions or structural elements only does not make a CoP competent, it is the appropriate use of these elements in order to achieve the shared goals of a CoP argued Lathlean and Le May (2002). To put it simply, these key dimensions need to be supported by identified leadership and appropriated membership which suit the needs of the work being done. It also requires a high level of networking (Brown & Duguid, 1991; 2001) between those within the community "strong ties" and those from outside and "weak ties" (Mitchell &

Sackney, 2000) who are important and essential to accomplish the activities successfully being performed in a CoP (Lathlean & Le May, 2002).

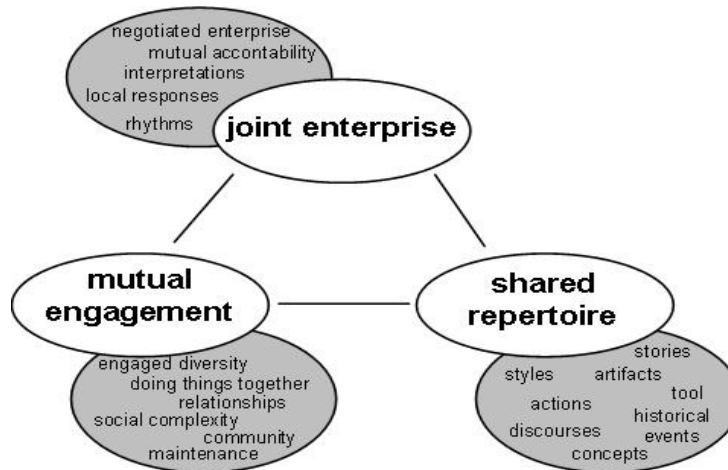


Figure 4: Dimensions of practice as the property of a community (Wenger, 1998, p.73)

The figure 4 above illustrates three dimensions of practice within a community namely mutual engagement, joint enterprise, and shared repertoire. It is crucial that all of the three dimensions are present in a parallel combination to convert a community into the Community of Practice (Wenger, 1998). The first dimension namely “mutual engagement” sets a Community of Practice apart from just an aggregate of people or any social network of people as it concerns with dense relations of mutual engagement among community members. The implicit idea in this dimension is that the transformation of mutual engagement requires coherent and consistent work (Kuh, 2016). The second dimension “joint enterprise” insists that members of the Community of Practice must have common domain of learning which gives it a purpose (Roberts, 2006). Finally, a shared repertoire denotes that members of a community develop a bank of resources or tools over time such as stories, tools and experiences in order to address reoccurring problems.

The above section described the three dimensions of practice within a community proposed by Wenger (1998) briefly. The following section will define Mitchell and Sackney’s (2000) concept of a Learning Community followed by an explanation of the main elements of their Capacity Building Model and its relation to this study.

### **3.4 Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) learning community: definition**

Mitchell and Sackney (2000) defined a learning community as “a group of people who take an active, reflective, collaborative, learning oriented and growth promoting approach towards the mysteries, problems, and perplexities of teaching and learning” (p.5). This definition reveals how learning is perceived by Mitchell and Sackney (2000) within the context of a learning community. They posit that a deficit model of learning positions an individual's knowledge gaps as problems whereas Capacity Building Model considers these knowledge gaps as opportunities to be further explored because this model is based on an assumption that new knowledge is built on the prior knowledge of a learner. This notion of learning in Capacity Building Model is consistent with Wenger's (1998) Communities of Practice approach.

#### **3.4.1 Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model**

In addition to Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs) and Wenger's (1998) Communities of Practice Theory, this study also makes use of Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model. There are several reasons why this study has adopted Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model. First and foremost, it specifically relates to professional learning of school educators and it is fundamentally concerned with human growth, development, cognition, affect, interactions, and actions (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). Second, this specific model provides a “curriculum/content” to build the capacities of the educators. For example, it explicates that an individual's capacity can be built at three levels. To put it in other words, this model suggests three domains of capacity building namely personal, interpersonal, and organisational. This model recommends specific activities to build capacity in each of these three domains. This model was originally used to build the capacity for learning among teachers. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) suggest that they found this model to be useful for building capacity for learning among teachers. This study used this model to understand an educator's professional practice both as a primary school headteacher and as a member of a Network of Practice (NoP).

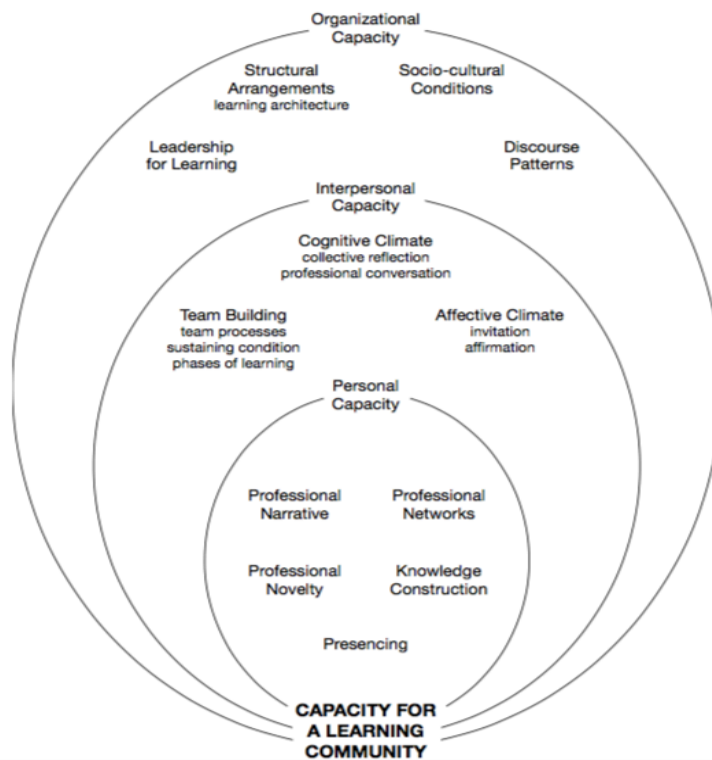


Figure 5: Key elements in building the capacity for a learning community (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000, p.124)

The figure 5 above represents Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) three interrelated dimensional model for building capacity for a learning community. These dimensions are named as personal capacity, interpersonal capacity, and organisational capacity. Each of these dimensions includes key elements which ensure that the educators' capacity is built at each level. Personal capacity building includes an educator's professional narrative, professional networks, professional novelty, and knowledge construction. According to this dimension (i.e., personal capacity) educators can develop their capacity by engaging in the processes of the internal search and the external search of knowledge as they can learn from reflection and feedback. The second dimension (interpersonal capacity) includes team building, cognitive climate, and affective climate. These elements provide the basis for a cordial relationship among team members and strong ties to provide a safe environment for learning. The third dimension (organisational capacity) includes shared leadership among the members of a community, socio cultural conditions to facilitate learning in a safe environment by providing flexible structural arrangements within an organisation for the collaborative processes/activities.

As the focus of this study is professional development of primary headteachers, the three domains of capacity building: *personal*, *interpersonal* and *organisational* appear to be very

important in this context. This is to suggest that headteachers' professional development activities must address personal, interpersonal and organisational aspects of learning. In the context of this study, *personal* capacity building implies engaging in critical reflection, analysis, and actions to develop personal skills and knowledge as an individual and *interpersonal* capacity building implies working collaboratively with supportive colleagues, who are also engaged in continuous development, in order to develop interpersonal skills. Interpersonal skills help school leaders in developing collegial foundations that support professional learning in their organisation. *Organisational* capacity building implies making sense of distributed leadership, learning architectures, socio-culture conditions, and collaborative processes in an organisation. It is also about clear communication of expectations, identifying and meeting learning and development needs, and creating a conducive environment to facilitate learning for everyone in the organisation.

In a nutshell, Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs) provides a lens which will be used to understand the collaborative groups/NoPs of primary school headteachers whereas Mitchell and Sackney's Capacity Building Model, in the context of this study, will work as a framework to analyse aspects of network including strengthening the capacity, maintaining sustainable improvement, and smooth functioning of a NoP. The following section will explain each component of Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) model in turn.

### **3.4.2 Personal domain of capacity building**

The personal domain of capacity building is about active and reflective construction of knowledge (Mitchell & Sackney 2000). An individual's personal capacity is made of values, beliefs, assumptions, and practical knowledge and by the professional networks and knowledge bases they connect with. Individuals' personal capacity building begins when they challenge the values, beliefs, assumptions, and practices they embrace. From the perspective of schools, educators deconstruct and reconstruct their professional narratives to improve student learning and their own professional practice (Mitchell & Sackney 2001). Their personal capacity building begins when they have a confrontation with their implicit and explicit knowledge structures. During this process of deconstruction educators make efforts to understand the personal narratives that shapes and constrains their professional practice and learning. This process is regarded as a necessary step as it helps the educators to identify what do they already know and what do they need to know. This kind of self-analysis empowers them to begin their

search for new knowledge and to reconstruct their professional narrative (Mitchell & Sackney 2000).

Mitchell and Sackney (2000) posit that deconstructing the foundation of one's personal capacity is a search for one's theory of practice (professional narrative) which involves two components namely internal and external search. In this study, in the context of a NoP, internal search and external search may contribute in setting aims and objectives and extending professional networks respectively. Both internal and external search will be discussed as follows.

### **3.4.3 Internal search**

An internal search is defined as a comprehensive description of an individual's professional knowledge, beliefs, values, assumptions, and practices (Mitchell & Sackney 2000). An internal search is significant as it helps educators to understand their unknown territory (actual practice) to create alignment with their known territory (articulated beliefs) in order to build their professional integrity. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) argue that if known and unknown territories are not aligned with each other, it can cause contradictions between an individual's actions and statements which may result in lack of integrity in professional practice.

As mentioned above internal search involves searching one's unknown and known territory of knowledge, it is however may not be an easy task for an individual to do. In order to articulate unknown and known territories of knowledge educators need to deal with what is in their hearts as well as in their minds respectively. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) suggested strategies to explore one's internal search as following:

#### ***Critical reflection***

One's unknown territory (actual practice or inarticulate beliefs) can be explored by critical reflection on practice strategy (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). Critical reflection on practice could help headteachers in both contexts of this research to explore their unknown territories. Headteachers may involve in a critical reflection by providing a simple description of their current practice followed by a deep analysis and evaluation of their practices and this could lead to a deconstruction of professional assumptions, values, beliefs, and practices. Headteachers could do critical reflection on their practice by engaging in various activities. For instance, they could write reflective accounts, they could participate in professional dialogue

with their colleagues and other educators or they could simply engage in reflective thinking. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) propose that if a critical reflection activity involves “personal honesty” and “professional curiosity”, it probably highlights differences between what was planned and what actually come to be known. To conclude, headteachers could use critical reflection activity as a powerful metacognitive tool to gain new insights and to build on their prior understanding. In the context of a NoP, headteachers could do critical reflection on their practice activity individually and then they may share experiences and ideas emerged from their reflective accounts with their colleagues. These reflective ideas could be further critically analysed collectively by all the members of a NoP in order to create a domain/aims and objectives of a NoP which may benefit all members of a NoP. Critical reflection activities both individual and collective in a NoP may feed their sense of identity and belongingness positively.

### ***Descriptive reflection***

Descriptive reflection is defined as the easiest and most common form of reflection. Critical reflection usually occurs when it is mandatory requirement for individuals to do during some events/training (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). Descriptive reflection is a brief outline of events that come to be known as the story unfolds. It probably begins by engaging in activities such as simply giving an account of what happened, who was involved, what was said by whom, where and how the events took place, and so on. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) argue that this narrative should also include conflicts, intentions, and emotions embedded in the story to be more analytic form of reflection. If one has to discover unknown territories of their knowledge, the reflection should describe how others reacted and responded to one’s actions. Writing these details provide a framework for critical analysis which is a key to deep understanding (Mitchell & Sackney 2000). In the context of a NoP headteachers could analyse and evaluate the impacts of their shared practice they had on the other members of a NoP. They may also use this strategy to feedback and feedforward to their colleagues.

### **3.4.4 External search**

External search is defined as a description of one’s professional networks (Mitchell & Sackney, 2001). An internal search reveals what is in an educator’s repertoire and an external research in contrast, indicates the extent to which an educator has access to new and different ideas (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). An individual’s ideas and behaviours are influenced to certain extent by the ties they establish with other people (Mitchell & Hyle 1999). In the context of a



NoP, external search could be used as a tool to measure the strength and effectiveness. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) propose two types of ties educators establish and these are “strong ties” and “weak ties”. They suggest that strong ties are those networks which develop between local educators who share similar educational backgrounds, professional beliefs, values, and practice. By contrast, weak ties are the networks which emerge from the opposite conditions such as educators having diverse educational backgrounds, beliefs, and professional practices. According to them strong ties are essential for emotional support for educators as they provide safety, predictability and stability, however strong ties limit the amount of new information and ideas. Weak ties on the other hand may not provide similar conditions of safety or predictability for educators to share and try new ideas. However, weak ties have great potential for profound improvement as they provide educators with new ideas and experiments in professional practice. In this study, in the context of a NoP, both strong and weak ties could contribute in improving headteachers’ professional practice. In this study, English headteachers formed NoPs with strong ties, they could also develop weak ties to make these NoPs strong and effective. In Punjab NoPs do not exist. Punjabi headteachers could form a NoP by developing strong ties in the beginning and expand it by strengthening weak ties in future.

### **3.4.5 Interpersonal domain of capacity building**

The interpersonal domain of capacity building shifts the focus from an individual to a group. It requires educators to possess adequate interpersonal skills to develop collegial foundations that support professional learning. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) argue that professional learning can lead to a radical improvement when educators work in collaboration with supportive colleagues in a learning community. However, a unique culture of collegial relations and professional risk taking needs to be in place for this to happen. Mitchell and Sackney (2011) point out that collaborative action is required if a learning community is to develop and it is best supported by a strong and effective team in an organisation. They suggest that an interpersonal environment in a learning community can support or hinder professional learning. An interpersonal environment is created when affective and cognitive conditions are combined together (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). Headteachers could create affective conditions in their respective NoPs by valuing ideas, opinions, and contributions of their colleagues even if they are in disagreement with others. The act of respecting and valuing each other’s contribution could create a sense of trust among members of a NoP. Moreover, affective conditions could also be created by inviting colleagues to participate in conversations and dialogues. This act

could build a caring relationship among members of a NoP which could give them a sense of belongingness and identity. Cognitive conditions are built on the affective conditions in a learning community (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). Cognitive conditions are based on social constructivist notion of learning which proposes the idea that learning is a process of negotiation among learners in a learning community. This idea of learning is consistent with Wenger's (1998) theory of CoP where he proposes learning as a process of negotiation and meaning making among community members. Mitchell and Sackney (2001) argue that learning is rooted in the culture in which an individual learns and it is deeply influenced by shared language and implicit understanding of community members. Headteachers in a NoP could generate cognitive conditions by engaging in activities such as conducting collective reflection and professional conversations where they could discuss their concerns and issues openly and seek advice from their colleagues to develop shared practice and professional values. (Mitchell & Sackney 2000; 2011).

#### **3.4.6 Organisational domain of capacity building**

The organisational domain of capacity building refers to designing an organisational structure which facilitate the unique requirements of learning communities. Supportive organisational culture for a learning community is not only about time, location space, and proximity but also about values, beliefs, vision, purpose, relationships, culture, and process. In other words, organisational structure should support connections, diversity, inclusion, empowerment, and dominance rather than separation, uniformity, and control. These conditions will create socio cultural conditions and collaborative processes along with the structural arrangement within an organisation (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). Organisational capacity appears to be a central feature of sustainable learning communities. Capra (2002) explains that sustainability is a systemic property which grows within a complex web of relationships, structures, and interactions. Mitchell and Sackney (2011) argue that when capacity is built only in the personal and interpersonal domains, a culture of profound improvement disappears immediately after the key people leave the school. It implies that culture needs to be embedded both in the deep and surface structures of the learning communities as it helps educators to sustain their efforts in one learning community and recreate a culture of profound improvement elsewhere. Mitchell and Sackney (2011) establish that surface structure involves physical arrangements of location, resources, time, space whereas deep structure consists of cognitive assumptions and attributes, values, belief systems, vision, purpose, relationships, culture, and process. Both the deep and surface structures need to be constructed to implement educational practices to

promote, improve, and support professional learning and teaching, by contrast when a specific set of deep and surface structures is absent in an organisation people remain isolated and learning becomes fragmented (Mitchell and Sackney 2000; 2011). From this perspective, structure formation of a NoP requires special considerations. In order to build organisational capacity, socio-cultural conditions, structural arrangements, and collaborative processes as suggested by Mitchell and Sackney (2000) need to be in place as in the absence of these elements in a NoP headteachers may remain isolated which may result in fragmented learning and poor professional practice.

#### **3.4.7 Limitations of Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model**

Like many other models of professional development, this model also involves limitations. Building capacity of learning communities requires a different kind of structural arrangements which promotes a learning culture in an organisation (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). In the context of a Network of Practice (NoP) within this study, a direct and consistent involvement of the headteachers is required in order to build a culture of learning (Mitchell & Sackney, 2006). However, primary headteachers' heavy workloads, work pressure, and other factors suggested as by Sambrook (2002) may pose obstacles to their participation in NoPs and make capacity building harder, but this model might still explain this phenomenon.

The previous section discussed Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model in detail including its relation to this study. The following section will provide an explanation on Sambrook's (2002) three-dimensional model and its purpose in this study.

#### **3.5 Sambrook's (2002) Model of Factors Influencing Learning in Work.**

Sambrook (2002) proposed a Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning in Work. This model was originally used to examine the factors influencing learning at work in general and factors influencing quality of computer-based learning in particular. This model suggests that individuals' learning in an organisation can be influenced by various factors such as organisational, functional, and individual levels. Sambrook (2002) argues that these factors must be identified in order to recognise what hinders or facilitates learning of individuals in an organisation. This model provides a systematic way to raise awareness of and to cope with factors influencing learning in work (Sambrook, 2002). It suggests that an individual's learning can be influenced at organisational, functional (HRD), and individual levels. For example, their learning can be influenced by the type of an organisation they work for, the culture of an

organisation they belong to, and the availability of resources for human resource development (HRD) in an organisation. It could also be influenced by the skills, attitudes, and motivation of managers and learners in an organisation (Sambrook, 2002). The following section will provide a brief explanation on organisational, functional, and individual factors and its relation to this study.

### **3.5.1 Organisational factors**

According to Sambrook's (2002) model organisational factors involve structure, culture, senior management support, organisation of work, work pressures, and managerial skills. In relation to this study, headteachers' participation in CPD activities could be influenced by the governing body (the Midlands) and senior management committee (Punjab). Together they could create an environment which is conducive to learning for everyone in the school. For example, making sure that the headteacher has sufficient time to join meetings with other members of a Network of Practice (NoP) and they have support to do new experiments in their schools. A supportive learning environment could give them a sense of belongingness and identity which may eventually motivate them to participate in CPD activities.

### **3.5.2 Functional factors**

Functional factors include HRD resources such as time, money, staff, expertise, new initiatives, and role clarity (Sambrook, 2002). In this study, lack of adequate resources, time, and funding could influence headteachers' participation in CPD activities. In addition to this, education reforms and rapid changes in education policy could also influence headteachers' CPD as they are forced to consider new policy initiatives in their respective schools as a priority. Consequently, it creates extra workloads which may cause confusion in role clarity among headteachers.

### **3.5.3 Individual factors**

Individual factors involve responsibility for learning, motivation to learn, time, and skills (Sambrook, 2002). Within the context of this study, headteachers' participation in CPD activities could be influenced by their own attitude towards professional development. For instance, in the current landscape of self-improving school system, CPD is not an obligatory requirement for headteachers. They are free to take decision regarding their CPD. It implies that a headteacher's values, beliefs, assumptions, and motivation could play an important role in their participation in CPD activities.

### **3.5.4 Limitations of Sambrook's (2002) model**

Sambrook's (2002) three-dimensional model provides human resource development practitioners and managers with an effective tool to identify: what factors influence individuals' learning and how their learning might be enhanced. However, implementing this model demands that school administrators are skilful and competent as these factors need to be acknowledged, understood and then addressed for enhanced professional practice of headteachers in their respective schools.

### **3.6 Chapter summary**

This chapter explains and justifies the theoretical framework for this research study. A combination of four theoretical frameworks had been adopted for the purpose of the study. These frameworks include Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs), Wenger's (1998) Communities of Practice (CoPs), Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model and Sambrook's (2002) model of factors influencing learning.

This chapter argues that although Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (NoP) has some benefits over traditional Communities of Practice such as open access, it requires a coherent structure. On the other hand, Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of practice within CoP provides a coherent structure of practice which involves three elements namely mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire; however, access to a CoP is restricted to its members only. Within the context of this study, the use of NoPs seemed to be appropriate to understand primary headteachers' professional development collaborative groups as they are identical. The concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs) was built on the Communities of Practice (CoPs) to develop understanding about learning into organisational contexts by Brown and Duguid (2000; 2001). Brown and Duguid's (2000) Networks of Practice represent a two-stage model, for example, it argues that one can be a practitioner by obtaining tacit knowledge in a local CoP where learning occurs through face to face interactions. Having become a member of a CoP and being an expert in tacit knowledge can help one to exchange codified (explicit) knowledge efficiently with fellow practitioners around the world. Their approach to NoPs creates a space for the role of electronic and digital communication (electronic ways of working) while still holding on to the importance of physical face to face participation in local Communities of Practice which is a key feature of a CoP (Takhteyev, 2009). Hence, while Brown and Duguid's (2000) NoP provides a theoretical lens to understand structures of headteachers' collaborative groups and informal connections,

Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of practice provide a special lens to examine the coherence of the structures of practice within these collaborative groups and informal connections within the context of this study.

In addition to, Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of NoPs and Wenger's (1998) CoPs, Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model was also used to enhance this theoretical framework as this model provides a "curriculum/content/domain" for a sustainable improvement of a NoP. The term "curriculum" implies three domains of capacity building, for instance, personal, interpersonal, and organisational. In order to make my point clearer, I will use Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of practice within a CoP as an example. As discussed earlier in this chapter that Wenger's three dimensions namely mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire provide a coherent structure of practice to form any form of network/community regardless its size, location, aims and objectives; however, it lacks in providing an appropriate curriculum to build capacities of its members. Hence, Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) capacity building model was adopted to fill this gap as it provides three levels of capacity building namely personal, interpersonal, and organisational involving appropriate activities at each level. Finally, this study utilises Sambrook's (2002) three-dimensional model of factors influencing learning. This model helped in identifying various factors at organisational, functional, and individual levels influencing primary headteachers' professional development in both contexts of this research.

To conclude, the literature review chapter established that there is a gap in relation to theorising primary headteachers' CPD practices. A combination of Brown and Duguid's (2000) NoPs, Wenger's (1998) CoPs, Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model along with Sambrook's (2002) model of factors influencing learning in work appear to be an appropriate way to theorise headteachers' CPD practices within the given contexts of this study.

## **Chapter 4: Research design and methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter deals with the strategies and techniques which have been employed to collect, record and analyse data. The aim of this research was to explore primary headteachers' professional development in the Midlands (England) and the State of Punjab (India). The key questions guiding this research were as follows:

- How is the professional development of primary headteachers in the Midlands and the State of Punjab organised?
- How are the professional development needs and priorities of primary headteachers identified?
- What impact do professional development activities undertaken by primary headteachers have on their approach to school leadership? How are these impacts measured and by whom?
- How does the (national) policy environment in India and England influence the professional development of primary headteachers?

This chapter begins with a discussion of the researcher's ontological and epistemological positions that informed the interpretive research paradigm and qualitative approach to examine primary headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD) in two different contexts. Next, this chapter discusses sample strategy and sample size used in this research followed by an account of experience while gaining access to the research participants. The chapter will also discuss data gathering tools and procedures including semi-structure interviews, focus groups, and observations. Further, this chapter will describe how pilot study enhanced the research design. This chapter will also discuss the process of thematic analysis for data analysis and its appropriateness for this study. The issues of ethical considerations associated with the research process and issues of trustworthiness such as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability will be covered in this chapter. The following section will discuss philosophical perspective underpinning this study.

## **4.2 Research paradigms and philosophical perspectives**

The social science methodology is divided into two paradigms namely qualitative and quantitative. The term paradigm is defined as “an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological approach and tools” (Kuhn, 1962, as cited in Flick, 2009, p.69). A paradigm is also viewed as a “basic system or worldview” which guides the investigator to choose research methods by considering their ontological and epistemological positions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). It implies that a paradigm is a set of assumptions about the world. The choice of a paradigm is informed by the factor how the researcher views his/her world. The core components of any research paradigm involve ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods. Hence, it is paramount for a researcher to understand and acknowledge the fundamental relationship between the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions that underpin his/her research and inform the choice of his/her research methods. Grix (2002) posits that a researcher must be clear about his/her ontological and epistemological positions that underpins their research as these help them to understand the interrelationship between the key research components of research including methodology and methods. It also helps the researchers to avoid confusion when they discuss theoretical debates and approaches to social phenomena. Finally, it enables them to identify others’ and defend their own positions in a piece of research. To put it simply, a researcher’s ontological position impacts the subsequent stages of research they undertake.

### **4.2.1 Ontological position**

An ontological position of a researcher answers to the question: what is the nature of social reality to be investigated? (Hay, 2002). Ontology is a system of beliefs that reflects an interpretation of individuals about what constitutes a fact (Gray, 2014). It implies that ontology deals with an individual’s notion of reality, i.e., whether a researcher needs to perceive social entities objective or subjective. Guba and Lincoln (1994) suggest that an individual who rejects the concept of the existence of objective reality assumes a relativist ontological position.

Strauss and Corbin’s relativist ontological position is implicit when they state that they do not believe in the existence of a “pre-existing reality ‘out there’”. To think otherwise is to take a positivistic position that...we reject...Our position is that truth is enacted.” (1994, p.279). They argue that ultimate reality cannot be discovered by employing a qualitative approach to research, but it can be interpreted in a way that it makes sense of the world. In Grix’s (2002)



views a researcher's ontological position involves the perspectives of "objectivism" and "constructivism". Objectivism is an ontological position of a researcher that holds the opinion that social phenomena and their meanings have existence but they are independent of social actors. Constructivism, on the other hand, is the ontological position of a researcher that considers that social phenomena and their meanings are not only the produce of social interactions, but they are also in a constant state of revision (Bryman, 2012). To put it simply, social reality is constructed when individuals engage with and interpret the objects already exist in the wider society, hence it becomes complex and everchanging (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Crotty, 1998; Glesne, 2016). From a constructivist or a relativist perspective I consider that reality is subjective and variable, which relies on an individual's distinct interpretations of a phenomenon (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Consequently, there is no single reality rather multiple versions of realities emerge from varied interpretations of individuals (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Glesne, 2016). For example, the phenomenon of CPD was perceived differently by the headteachers interviewed in this study. The reason of the difference among their opinions appeared to be due to their individual contexts and situations they belonged to.

This study highlighted variations among headteachers' perceptions of the CPD. Their opinions varied due to their personal values, beliefs, experiences, age, and contexts. For example, some of the Punjabi headteachers were in favour of a mandatory CPD for their personal and professional development whereas others considered it as a less important aspect. The headteachers who favoured a mandatory CPD were those who lacked expertise, adequate funding, and sufficient staff. They faced a number of problems in performing their duties on daily basis, i.e., maintaining various types of school registers, using digital applications such as E-content, testing-tool and E-Punjab Portal. On the other hand, the headteachers who were not in favour of a mandatory CPD were the headteachers who had extensive experience and ICT staff in their schools to assist them. For example, these headteachers usually recruited a voluntary IT staff who assisted them to maintain school registers and use digital applications. Also, these headteachers appeared to have access to various sources of funding such as NRIs, community members or NGOs. Hence, although CPD is considered essential for all professionals regardless of their field of work (perceived reality), its (CPD) importance relies on an individual's own perception (subjective reality).

#### **4.2.2 Epistemological position**

An epistemological position of a researcher answers to the question: what is or should be

regarded as acceptable knowledge? (Bryman, 2012). Epistemology in essence is concerned with a theory of knowledge with respect to its methods, validation, and possible ways of gaining knowledge of social reality (Grix, 2002). It implies that the focus of a researcher's epistemological position is to develop new models and theories that are better than or complementary to existing models and theories. Grix (2002) suggests that knowledge and the ways of discovering knowledge are not fixed rather they are dynamic in nature. Hence, while reflecting on theories and concepts in general, one also needs to reflect on the underlying assumptions and the contexts they were originated from. For example, in the context of this study, can the Communities of Practice (CoPs) Theory appropriately explain the phenomenon of professional development. Bryman (2012) suggests that epistemological positions of a researcher include the aspects of "positivism" and "interpretivism". A positivist researcher assumes that social reality can be known by applying natural science methods. In contrast, an interpretivist researcher believes that people and their institutions are different from natural sciences and therefore the social scientist requires a strategy that respects the difference between people and the objects of natural sciences (Bryman, 2012). In other words, an interpretivist/a social scientist requires a method that helps him/her to grasp the subjective meaning of social actions (Grix, 2002). My epistemological position reveals that knowledge is constructed via meaningful interactions among social actors or people and social world requires a different strategy that respects and reflects the distinctiveness of human beings against science objects (Bryman, 2012).

#### **4.2.3 Interpretive paradigm**

Mills, Bonner and Francis (2006) argue that a researcher must choose a research paradigm that is congruent with his/her beliefs about the nature of social reality as it will assist the researcher to make his/her research design stronger. The choice of a research paradigm in all research studies is determined by the researcher's ontological position or assumptions (Grix, 2002). Hitchcock and Hughes (1995 as cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007) propose that "ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological assumptions; these, in turn, give rise to methodological considerations; and these, in turn, give rise to issues of instrumentation and data collection" (p.5). The researcher believes that there is not one single social reality rather multiple realities exist in the world and they are shaped by context (*ontological assumption*). The researcher assumes that social reality is not objective rather it is subjective (*epistemological assumptions*), therefore it cannot be discovered by using objective measurements such as structured questionnaires and interviews which do not provide freedom

to the participants to express their views freely. The researcher holds the notion that truth is not static rather it evolves and changes with time and it is context specific, therefore it needs to be explored by interacting with people by employing flexible methods of research such as semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observations (*methodological considerations*). The researcher wanted the opportunity to connect with the research participants to see the world from their own perspectives in their natural setting/context. Gray (2014) suggests that the choice of paradigm will also be influenced by the ways a researcher considers using of a theory. If the researcher wants to start his/her research with a theoretical model, a deductive approach to data analysis will be employed. On the other hand, if he/she allows the theoretical model to emerge from the data, they will implement an inductive approach to data analysis. This research is not about testing an existing theory rather it will allow the theoretical framework to emerge from the 'real' data collected. Therefore, this research adopted an inductive approach to data analysis.

Based on the ontological and epistemological positions I locate my research within an interpretive paradigm. The interpretive paradigm is also known by different names such as humanistic, constructivist, naturalistic, anti-positivist, and alternative paradigm of research. Some of the researchers name it as a qualitative approach to educational research (Hussain, Elyas, Nasseef, 2013). The ontological position of an interpretivist is relativism that considers reality as subjective and different from person to person (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). An interpretivist believes that knowledge is personal, unique, complex, and multi-layered therefore meaning cannot be discovered rather it is constructed through interaction between consciousness and the world. It indicates that different people may have different interpretations and meanings of the same phenomenon (Crotty, 1998); however, truth can be found by co-constructors (Pring, 2000). It implies that knowledge can be constructed and refined through interaction between the researcher and the participant (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Further, knowledge cannot be separated from the social context wherein it is constructed, and a social context can only be understood by an individual's perspectives who participates in it (Cohen et al., 2007).

An interpretivist does not question ideologies rather they accept them as the indispensable feature of knowledge construction (Scotland, 2012). It implies that an interpretivist researcher aims to highlight these hidden social forces and structures. Further, an interpretivist acknowledges that knowledge is value bound as a researcher declares his/her values and beliefs

when they choose a phenomenon of research, design a strategy to investigate that phenomenon, and make decision to analyse and interpret and present their data. An interpretivist researcher assumes that there are no facts but interpretations (Bhattacharya, 2008), hence they believe in exploring individuals' perceptions and perspectives, sharing their meanings and developing understanding about the phenomenon under investigation (Bryman, 2012; Grix, 2010). An interpretivist builds up a rich and thick textual description of participants' experiences of the phenomenon under investigation. The thick descriptions of participants' experiences allow the readers to gain deeper insights into the phenomenon. Hence, an interpretivist illuminates the general through the particular (Ernest, 1994). Like other research paradigms an interpretive research also involves drawbacks. It has been criticised for being too subjective and the knowledge produced is usually fragmented and lacks uniformity which results in limited transferability of findings from this research to other contexts (Ernest, 1994). However, Berliner (2002) in contrast, suggests that the aim of objectivity specifically in educational research is unrealistic as there is no great scope for investigative depth, interpretive adequacy, and participatory accountability. The following section will discuss the appropriateness of qualitative approach in relation to this study by defining and highlighting characteristics of this approach.

### **4.3 Qualitative research approach**

There are six types of qualitative research identified common in social sciences and applied field of practice and these involve qualitative study, qualitative case study, narrative analysis, ethnography, grounded theory, and phenomenology (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The most common form of qualitative study is qualitative study and the focus this form of qualitative study is to understand how people make sense of their experiences. Although the other forms of qualitative study mentioned above share the same characteristics, each of these also has an added dimension (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Creswell (2013) suggests that the choice of a research approach of any study is determined by the nature of research questions to provide a comprehensive interpretation to the phenomenon under investigation. For this piece of research, a qualitative study approach was employed. The first and foremost reason to adopt this approach was the purpose of the study. This study intends *not* to know *how many* (numbers) CPD training the primary headteachers have annually rather it aims to know *how* do (words) this CPD training is arranged and *how* (explanations) are their professional development needs and priorities are identified? While defining qualitative

research approach Braun and Clarke (2013) and Bryman (2012) propose that it is a strategy that stresses on words rather than quantification or numbers during data gathering and data analysis processes. The following section will highlight the characteristics of qualitative approach underpinning this study.

### 4.3.1 Key characteristics of a qualitative approach

It is important to understand the key characteristics of qualitative approach (Creswell, 2014) and their appropriateness for the research design for this study. Although there are inconsistencies in the definitions of qualitative research provided by different writers, there is certainly some overlap among characteristics of qualitative approach. Following (see table 5) are identified ten key characteristics of qualitative approach from the perspectives of Creswell, 2014; Hammersley, 2013; Hatch 2002; Marshall and Rossman, 2011 and Merriam and Tisdell, 2016:

Table 5: Characteristics of qualitative research adapted from Creswell (2014, pp.185-186)

<b>Key characteristics</b>	<b>Definitions</b>
<i>Natural setting</i>	Qualitative researchers physically go to the people, setting, site or institution to collect data where participants experience issues or problems under study.
<i>Researcher as primary instrument</i>	Qualitative researchers collect data themselves via examining documents, observing behaviours, and interviewing participants.
<i>Multiple sources of data</i>	Qualitative researchers collect multiple forms of data such as interviews, observations, documents, and audio-visual information. It involves an unstructured approach as the aim is to invite the participant to talk at length about the issue or matter under study.
<i>Inductive data analysis</i>	Qualitative researchers build their patterns, categories, and themes by the bottom up by organising data into increasingly more abstract units of information.
<i>Participants' meaning</i>	The overall purpose of a qualitative researcher is to understand how people make sense out of their lives. Thus, in the entire research process the researcher keeps focus on learning the meaning participants hold about the issue under study.
<i>Emergent design</i>	The research process is not fixed rather emergent. It implies that all or some of the phases of process may change or shift after the researcher enters the field to begin gathering data.
<i>Theoretical lens</i>	Qualitative researchers often use theoretical frameworks to provide a particular perspective or lens in order to explain or examine a phenomenon under investigation.
<i>Thick description</i>	The final product of a qualitative inquiry is richly descriptive as it pays attention to contextual details and makes use of words, pictures, and quotes from participants' interviews in order to convey what the researcher has learned about research phenomenon and to support the findings of the study.
<i>Subjectivity/reflexivity</i>	There is acceptance of the fact that data and inferences from them are always shaped by the social and personal characteristics of the

	researcher as it is impossible to eliminate them. The researcher reflects about how their role shaped the interpretations and meanings.
<i>Holistic account</i>	Qualitative researchers try to develop a complex picture of the issue under study by reporting multiple perspectives and by identifying various factors involved.

The following section will explain in turn how the above table of key characteristics of qualitative approach adopted from Creswell (2014) relates to this study. The table 5 identified ten key characteristics of a qualitative research approach involved as following:

1. **Natural setting:** in this research study the data was collected by the researcher by going to the primary state schools in the both contexts of the research. During this study headteachers were interviewed face to face, focus groups and direct observations were conducted by going to the sites. Thus, the research took place in a natural setting.
2. **Researcher as primary instrument:** Data was collected by the researcher herself by interacting with research participants of this study.
3. **Multiple sources of data:** during this research, data was collected in the form semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observations.
4. **Inductive data analysis:** Data was analysed by implementing Braun and Clarke's (2013) thematic analysis technique involving six phases. I familiarised myself with data by reading transcriptions several times and by noting initial ideas then I assigned codes throughout the entire data set. After that the codes were converted into potential themes followed by a theme reviewing activity. Finally, themes were labelled and clearly defined which eventually helped in discussing findings of the study.
5. **Participants' meaning:** during the entire research process such as while collecting and analysing data the main focus was to investigate the phenomenon of primary headteachers' CPD from the research participants' perspectives and not the researcher's. This is referred as the *emic* or insider's perspective in contrast to the *etic* or outsider's view.
6. **Emergent design:** this research didn't go exactly as initially planned. For instance, originally this study planned to investigate primary headteachers' CPD in the UK and India by conducting semi-structured interviews. However, the design was changed later due to time constraints and limited accessibility to the research participants. The focus was shifted to the Midlands and the State of Punjab only and data was also collected via direct observations and focus groups in the state of Punjab.

7. **Theoretical lens:** a combination of four theoretical frameworks: Brown and Duguid's (2000) Networks of Practice, Wenger's (1998) Communities of Practice, Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) model of capacity building and Sambrook's (2002) model of factors influencing learning in work was used to theorize primary headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD).
8. **Thick description:** while conducting research and interpreting headteachers' professional development, attention was paid to the contexts of the schools, words, pictures, and quotes from headteachers' interviews were used to support research findings of this study.
9. **Subjectivity/reflexivity:** the researchers' ontological and epistemological positions declare that reality is subjective and knowledge is constructed via meaningful interactions among social actors. In this study, the research phenomenon was investigated via interacting with primary school headteachers. A section included in this chapter (see section 4.10) reflects how the researcher's role shaped the interpretations and meanings about research phenomenon of headteachers' CPD.
10. **Holistic account:** the researcher tried to develop a complex picture of the issue under study by reporting multiple perspectives of the headteachers about their CPD and by drawing on various factors identified influencing their participation in CPD.

Qualitative researchers are interested in finding out the meaning of a research phenomenon for everyone involved in the study. This interest drives them to go the actual contexts in order to interact with people to understand how individuals interpret their experiences and construct their world and what meaning they ascribe to their experiences (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). A qualitative researcher asks the question: "*what is the meaning of what is happening?*" (Williamson & Whittaker 2017). For instance, in this study, adopting qualitative research may come up with findings like 40% of the headteachers consider involving in a research project is better option for their CPD than mentoring and online training because it is highly academic and so on. Qualitative research offers explanations, meanings and descriptions as it has roots in the interpretivist paradigm. It challenges the natural scientific model of positivist by arguing that it is an inappropriate approach to study social phenomena as individuals' opinions are not taken into account. Interpretivism argues that natural reality and social reality are two different concepts as natural science looks for consistencies in data to deduce laws whereas social science is interested in studying the actions of the individuals from their perspectives and due to this fact different types of methods must be employed (Gray, 2014). A researcher who

believes in a subjective reality would use *emic* approach which means searching from inside rather than *etic* approach which means searching for reality from outside. The researcher would want to get into the field and interact with the individuals to know what reality means to them and how do they make sense of the world they reside. For a qualitative researcher, interacting with the research participants is must to discover the truth. The qualitative research emphasises an inductive approach to the relationship between a theory and research, therefore emphasis is placed on theory generation not on testing an existing theory (Bryman 2012). The sample size is typically small in a qualitative research as access to the participants and analysing data can be expensive and time consuming. Due to this fact, the findings may not be applicable to the wider population rather they are context bound. The next section will explain sampling strategy, sample size and research participants' profile and researcher's experience of gaining access to the research participants.

#### **4.4 Sampling strategy**

Probability and nonprobability are considered the two main types of sampling. Probability sampling is selected by the researchers who want to generalise the results of their study from the sample to the population whereas nonprobability sampling allows the researchers to solve the qualitative problems such as discovering meanings and their implications to the situations (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). It is clear from the above statement that nonprobability sampling is suitable and justifiable for a qualitative study. Thus, for the purpose of this study nonprobability (purposeful sampling) sampling was selected. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016) the most common form of nonprobability sampling is purposeful sampling. Patton (2015) argues that the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in its emphasis on in-depth understanding of information rich cases. It implies that by using purposeful sampling researchers can learn great deal about issues under study. Types of purposeful sampling includes typical, unique, maximum variations, convenience, and snowballing also known as chain sampling (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In this study, the research participants were recruited by using two types of purposeful sampling and these are convenience and snowball sampling. Convenience sampling is referred to a sample selected based on time, money, location, and accessibility to sites and respondents whereas snowball sampling involves locating key participants who fit the purpose of the study. First key participant can be asked to refer to the second participant and second participant can be asked to refer to the third and in this way the chain of participants becomes longer. As Patton (2015) suggests "by asking a



number of people who else to talk with, the snowball gets bigger and bigger as you accumulate new information-rich cases” (p.298).

#### **4.4.1 Sample size**

Kumar (2011) argues that the main aim of qualitative enquiries is to explore the central phenomena in depth not to generalise to a population. Therefore, sample size and sampling strategy do not play a significant role in the selection of a sample in a qualitative inquiry but diversity. Sometimes, just a single participant is studied in depth in a qualitative inquiry and it is known as case study. It is important for a qualitative researcher to remind himself/herself constantly that qualitative research is about the quality of data not about the quantity of data. The sample must be appropriate to the research question and aims of the study. Patton (2002) maintained that “there are no rules for sample size in qualitative research” (p.244). A qualitative researcher intentionally selects individuals and sites which suit the best for his/her research purposes. “Type of research” and the “usage of data collected” are the main factors which determine the size of sample in a research study (Dawson 2007). A qualitative research study requires relatively a small sample size as compared to a quantitative research study. A sample size of between 15 and 30 individual interviews is considered common for a research which aims to identify patterns across data (Gough & Conner 2006; Terry & Braun 2011). The main purpose of this study was to explore primary headteachers’ professional development in the Midlands and the state of Punjab. Primary headteachers were considered to be the best resource to accomplish the main purpose of this qualitative research. Further, this research study aimed to identify patterns/themes across data. Twenty-eight participants were included in the overall sample to achieve the aim of this research study. These participants are categorised as primary school headteachers (8 from the Midlands and 14 from Punjab) and centre headteachers (3 from Punjab) and CPD training team members (3 from Punjab). In relation to sample size in a qualitative study Edwards and Holland’s (2013) concept of saturation is an ideal guide for the number of interviews to be conducted specifically where a researcher is employing an interpretive/grounded approach to research. Saturation typically refers to the point when additional data fails to generate new information (Sandelowski 1995 as cited in Braun & Clarke 2013). During this research, data was gathered until the researcher reached the level of data saturation.

The majority of the headteacher participants was female specifically in the state of Punjab. The researcher was looking for male headteachers in consideration with equality and in search of

different perspectives for research study. It is worth mentioning here that the researcher had requested almost all the female headteachers to recommend male headteachers for research interviews. They found it really difficult as majority of the headteachers they knew was female. The researcher had to travel far (i.e., 1-2 hours by car) in search of male headteachers. After making many efforts, only five male headteachers were accessed located in remote areas. However, this was not the case in the Midlands as both male and female participants were similar in number.

Although, there was not equal proportion of numbers of female and male headteachers from Punjab, the gender appeared not to have a significant impact on their perspectives in relation to their CPD. However, the study identified that the female headteachers were not very comfortable in raising funds for their respective schools from different sources. For example, one of the female headteachers during focus group 2 commented that it was hard to raise funding for Punjabi female headteachers in particular because it was not considered respectful in Punjabi culture (see section 7.5). The table 6 below provides the research participants' profile with respect of position, gender, experience, context, ethnicity and location.

*Table 6: Research participant profile*

<b><i>Position</i></b>	<b><i>Gender</i></b>	<b><i>Teaching experience</i></b>	<b><i>Headteacher experience</i></b>	<b><i>Size of school</i></b>	<b><i>Ethnicity</i></b>	<b><i>Location</i></b>
Primary HT 1	Female	30 years	3 years	699 pupils	White British	Midlands
Primary HT 2	Male	14 years	1.9 year	310 pupils	White British	Midlands
Primary HT 3	Male	10 years	1 year	215 pupils	White British	Midlands
Primary HT 4	Female	15 years	2 years	241 pupils	Asian	Midlands
Primary HT 5	Male	7 years	4 years	290 pupils	White British	Midlands
Primary HT 6	Male	8 years	3 years	205 pupils	Asian	Midlands
Primary HT 7	Female	13 years	10 years	575 pupils	White British	Midlands

Primary HT 8	Female	19 years	12 years	695 pupils	White British	Midlands
Primary HT 9	Female	18 years	1.6 year	200 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 10	Female	18 years	2 years	285 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 11	Female	18 years	2.2 year	240 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 12	Female	16 years	1 year	203 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 13	Female	15 years	2 years	320 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 14	Male	14 years	2 years	340 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 15	Female	30 years	2 years	272 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 16	Female	15 years	1 year	134 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 17	Male	11 years	9 years	562 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 18	Female	15 years	2 years	191 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 19	Female	22 years	2 years	1,874 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 20	Male	25 years	7 years	318 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 21	Male	20 years	10 years	204 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Primary HT 22	Male	11 years	2 years	74 pupils	Asian	Punjab
Position	Gender	Headteacher experience	Centre headteacher experience	Number of schools	Ethnicity	Location
Centre Head Teacher 1	Female	7 years	3.5 year	9	Asian	Punjab

Centre Head Teacher 2	Female	8 years	1 year	11	Asian	Punjab
Centre Head Teacher 3	Female	7 years	4 years	18	Asian	Punjab
Position	Gender	Teaching experience	Trainer experience	Number of schools	Ethnicity	Location
CPD Team Member 1	Male	8 years	10 years	100	Asian	Punjab
CPD Team Member 2	Male	8 years	8 years	10	Asian	Punjab
CPD Team Member 3	Male	7 years	6 years	9	Asian	Punjab

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, twenty-eight participants in total were recruited (shown in table 6) for this study to answer the key research questions. These participants were placed into three categories. The first category belonged to the primary school headteachers. They were the key participants both in the Midlands and the state of Punjab as this research mainly focuses on primary headteachers' professional development. Total twenty-two primary school headteachers (eight from the Midlands and fourteen from the state of Punjab) were interviewed. They proved to be the best source of information regarding their own professional development. The centre headteachers (CHTs) come under second category. Three CHTs were invited to organise a focus group due to their importance and involvement in training primary headteachers. In the state of Punjab, a CHT controls about 9-18 schools or above. Some of the CHTs look after primary schools only and some of them have a mix of primary and upper primary schools. The role of a CHT is to make sure that the official paperwork of schools is complete and up to date. They observe teaching and learning, and they also have to provide training to the staff (both assistant teachers and headteachers). The third and final category belonged to the CPD training team members. Three CPD team members were invited to conduct a focus group interview. These CPD team members were trained at the state level via DIETS (District Institute of Education and Training). After they completed their training, they were assigned to deliver CPD training to the primary headteachers and assistant teachers at the District level. They were considered good source of additional information to answer key research questions. To sum up, all the research participants recruited in this study were

important. They all were connected to each other and proved a good source of information to answer the key research questions of this study. However, gaining access to research participants in this study was not an easy task. The following section will provide a detailed account of my experience in relation to gaining access to the research participants.

#### **4.4.2 Gaining access to the research participants**

The aim of describing this whole scenario is to highlight the difficulties a researcher being an outsider and interested in educational research particularly in public sector may come across. Being an “outsider” meant gaining access to the research participants was very difficult and challenging in the beginning in both countries (England and India). The data collection planning began in January 2018 in England; however, the researcher did not gain access to the research participants until May 2018. An invitation letter including research summary was sent to many of the primary school headteachers via email, but not a single reply was received. Many phone calls were made in order to contact primary school headteachers but in vain. Most of the times phone calls were attended by the admin staff and the common replies received were: *“headteacher is in a meeting at the moment, your message will be conveyed to the headteacher and we will call you back soon”*. However, none of them called back ever. Sometimes, I wondered whether the message was conveyed to the headteachers. Finally, a “gatekeeper” (Angrosino, 2012) was approached by a third party who referred four primary headteachers, situated in Dudley, who agreed to meet me for the purpose of a research interview. These four HTs were sent invitation letter including research summary via email. All the HTs responded and gave their approval to participate in this research study. Finally, formal meetings were arranged with the headteachers and interviews were conducted at their convenience between May and June 2018.

After interviewing these four headteachers I travelled to India on 23<sup>rd</sup> of June 2018 in order to collect data from the state of Punjab; however, access to the research participants was not gained until August 6<sup>th</sup>. I visited in person to many of the primary schools to book appointment with the headteachers but in vain. Private school HTs were very busy and state school HTs were not willing to participate without having permission from the system. One of the primary headteachers suggested me to approach the Primary District Education Officer (D.E.O.) and gain written permission in order to have access to the research participants from the state schools. Following this suggestion, the I prepared a file which included an application referring to the primary D.E.O. (see Appendix 1), research summary (see Appendix 2), an invitation

letter for HTs (see Appendix 3), a copy of my identity proof (Passport) and visa documents (Biometric Residence Permit).

After preparing the file, I approached one of my friends who had access to visit any officer in the court due to his position and profession. The file was submitted to the Senior Secondary District Education Officer (D.E.O.) on 30<sup>th</sup> of July by my friend as primary D.E.O was not available in the office at that moment. Nonetheless, the Senior Secondary D.E.O. also has the authority to sign such applications on behalf of the Primary D.E.O. The Senior Secondary D.E.O. received the file and asked my friend to come back after 4-5 days as she was having a busy schedule during that week. She promised that she would call back after she had gone through the file. But no response was received for two weeks. My friend called back the officer to know updates regarding application approval. The officer replied that she would like to meet the applicant (the researcher) in person. The very next day I visited the office of the senior secondary D.E.O. but the officer was not available. Each time I visited, different excuses were given by the security person. On 4<sup>th</sup> of August I again visited the office to see the officer with a duplicate copy of the file assuming that the original file might have got lost. I found a security person sitting in front of the office of the Senior Secondary D.E.O. When the security guard was asked about the officer, he replied that the officer had left for a meeting and he asked the reason of my visit. I replied that I came to collect my file from the officer which was already submitted to the officer. He said that “*nobody can submit any file directly to the officer*”. I said that the file had been already submitted. He asked, “*who did it?*”. I called my friend who submitted the file and made the security person to speak to the person over phone. After speaking to the person, the security person said that the officer had left for a meeting and would be back in the evening only. After that the security person disappeared. “These security guards need a specific fee to take any file to the officers” stated an anonymous present at the situation. I got frustrated at this point and started wandering in the building hoping to find someone who could help me. Eventually, I came across the office of the Primary Dept. District Education Officer (D.E.O). The officer was busy in a meeting. I decided to wait until the officer finish the meeting. After the officer finished the meeting I knocked at his door. The officer permitted me to come in and asked me to have seat with a gesture as he was busy over a phone call at that moment. After finishing the call, the officer asked the reason of my visit to his office. I introduced myself and explained about my PhD research project and data collection. I also hander over the duplicate copy of the original file which was previously submitted to the Senior Secondary District Education Officer. The officer looked into the file asked few questions

regarding my research. This meeting lasted about 15-20 minutes. During this meeting (on 4<sup>th</sup> August 2018) the officer permitted me to attend CPD training for three days (6<sup>th</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> August 2018) with some instructions to be followed. It was only during those CPD training, I was able to gain access to some of the research participants. Finally, fourteen primary headteachers in total were interviewed in the state of Punjab from two districts namely Ludhiana and Fatehgarh Sahib between August and September 2018.

I came back to the UK on 1<sup>st</sup> September 2018 and started looking for research participants in Leicester. I sent invitation letter including research summary to many of the primary headteachers in Leicester via email. However, I did not receive any reply. Finally, I sent an email to the Leicester City Council on 6<sup>th</sup> March 2019 requesting for a help for recruiting research participants. After two days on 8<sup>th</sup> March, I received a reply email form the City Council stating that, my email was forwarded to the education department and they would respond my enquiry directly in due course. In addition, to that another referee helped me to publish my request in *Heads' Newsletter* published on 11<sup>th</sup> March 2019 (see Appendix 4) which accelerated the process and resulted in a quicker response. Hence, the final bit of the data was collected between March and May 2019.

In summary, although I had to work hard to gain access to the research participants, it did not breach any research ethics. For example, it was ensured that their participation remains volunteer and they are not coerced into participation. The aims and objectives of the research study were clearly explained to all the research participants and they had given the opportunity to ask any question they might have about the research. They were made aware, while signing consent form, that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any point without providing any explanation. They were given clear information about the purpose of data recording, storage and usage. I realised that providing clear information about research aims and objectives and answering their queries regarding this study made the research participants comfortable in expressing their viewpoints.

#### **4.5 Data collection methods**

This study made use of three different methods of data collection such as semi-structured interviews, observations, and focus groups in order to address the four research questions of this study. It is argued that each method of data collection suffers from inherent biases and the use of multiple methods helps in providing cross validation of research findings (Webb,

Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest, 1966). Nonetheless, each method used in this research made a unique contribution to understand the research phenomenon under investigation (Sieber, 1973). For example, semi-structured interviews helped me to cover all important topics within a limited period of time (45-60 minutes). The semi-structured interviews provided flexibility to the interviewee to express their own perspectives openly without losing the focus. It allowed me to have more control in terms of time management and collecting relevant information. Similarly, observing live headteachers' training sessions provided me with a first-hand experience of their CPD activities. Finally, the use of focus groups with research participants was helpful in gaining collective and multiple perspectives about the phenomenon under investigation (Gibbs, 2012). Focus groups were relatively quick and easy method of data collection as they allowed me to collect a large amount of data at one time. However, there were a few challenges in organising focus groups. First, bringing all the participants together was a challenging task as it required agreement of multiple people to gather them at same place and same time for the discussion of a common topic (Braun & Clarke, 2013). I overcame this challenge by being flexible in terms of time, date and venue, and coordinating with each participants' timetable. For example, the CPD team members were agreed to participate in a focus group after 30 minutes break right after they finished their training session. Hence, I rescheduled my other appointments in order to conduct this specific focus group. Another challenge I faced while conducting focus groups was keeping the conversation on track. I politely interrupted the participants whenever I realised discussion going off the track. The following section will provide justification and detailed discussion of the specific data collection methods implemented for this study.

#### **4.5.1 In-depth qualitative interviews**

In-depth qualitative interview is one of the key naturalistic methods. Rubin and Rubin (2012) propose four basic categories of qualitative interviews namely focus groups, internet interviews, casual conversations and in-passing clarifications, and semi-structured and unstructured interviews. Each of these qualitative interviews shares three characteristics as follows:

- (i) The researcher looks for rich data and detailed information. There are no yes/no or agree/disagree questions rather the researcher is interested in examples of experiences, narratives, and stories.



- (ii) The interviewee doesn't have to choose from fixed categories rather he/she is given open-ended questions. They can respond the way they want and free to raise new issues if any.
- (iii) The interviewer doesn't have to stick to a specific set of questions. He/she is allowed to change the order of the questions, skip questions or change wording if they don't make sense at the time. They can form new follow up questions to gain new insights. They can even pose a separate set of questions to the different interviewees.

Interviews are a widely used tool for data collection in qualitative research studies. There are several types of interviews such as structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009, pp. 147-157) identified six forms of interviews: computer-assisted, focus group, factual, conceptual, narrative, and discursive. However, two main types of interview: unstructured and semi-structured, are commonly used in qualitative research approach. They are considered the core forms of in-depth qualitative interviews. The focal point of difference between these two types of interviews is the degree of control the interviewer maintains over the interview. Semi-structured interview requires pre-planning of specific questions and follow up questions whereas unstructured interview allows the researcher to go with general topic in mind however specific questions can be asked as the interview proceeds on the basis of responses of the interviewee. While planning a semi-structured interview, the researcher often prepares some specific question (interview guide) along with some follow up questions in advance. It helps the interviewer to be focused and accomplish his/her task in time. On the other hand, for an unstructured interview the researcher keeps general topic in mind and asks specific questions as the interview proceeds. There is a great risk of losing focus and not accomplishing the task in time.

The researcher decided to conduct semi-structured interviews for this study due to two reasons. First of all, the researcher's aim was to cover all the specific topics within a limited time (45-60 minutes). Secondly, the researcher's concern was to provide flexibility to the interviewees to express their own perspectives openly without losing the focus. Wellington (2015) suggests that semi-structured interview provides the interviewer flexibility to decide the range and order of the questions within a framework as required. This research tool helped the discussion to be focused as it allowed the researcher to have more control in terms of time management and collecting relevant information. Twenty-two primary school headteachers were interviewed

from two different countries (England and India) to discover and understand meanings to gain deeper insights of the phenomenon (headteachers' CPD) under this study.

### ***Procedures***

**Stage 1:** an invitation letter, research summary, and consent form (see Appendix 3, 2 & 5) were produced on the University of Huddersfield letterhead. An interview protocol/interview guide was also developed (see Appendix 6) to ensure that all the topics which needed to be addressed are covered. It was ensured that interview questions align with research questions (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). This interview protocol listed primary areas of exploration for each session.

**Stage 2:** school guides were browsed to find list of primary schools and contact details in the Midlands. Random schools were selected and scanned copies of invitation letter and research summary were sent to the primary schools headteachers via email. At this stage personal contacts (colleagues & friends) were also utilised to get access to the research participants. In the context of Punjab, appointments for research interview with primary headteachers were made by visiting their respective schools in person and copies of research invitation letters and research summary were also handed over to the headteachers.

**Stage 3:** formal meetings were arranged with those who were willing to participate in the research project at their convenience. Prior to the interview, the aims and objectives were explained briefly and translated into Punjabi where required. In addition, a Punjabi version of interview guide (see Appendix 7) was also produced for their convenience. The participants were given the opportunity to ask any question if they had. All the research participants were given the informed consent form to complete before the interview took place to obtain their consent.

**Stage 4:** the interviews were conducted. All the interviews were recorded by using either a dictaphone with the participants' permission or by taking written notes where the research participant was not comfortable with audio recording. The researcher ensured that each interview is reviewed before conducting the next interview. Reviewing interview notes helped the researcher in identifying the areas which were approached but left incomplete and it was also helpful in highlighting and topics yet to be covered. In addition, post interview feedback

from the interviewee was sought in order to identify if there was anything overlooked by the researcher.

**Stage 5:** interview transcripts and interview summaries were given to the participants to confirm accuracy of their responses during interview.

#### **4.5.2 Observations**

In this study, in the context of Punjab, observation was used as a research tool to capture information regarding primary headteachers' CPD training. The purpose of the observations was to collect data relevant to research questions specifically about what content, pedagogical approaches, and impact evaluation tools were used to deliver primary headteachers' CPD (see Appendix 8). Observation is regarded as one of the key tools for collecting data in qualitative research (Creswell, 2013) and it has been widely used for data collection in educational research (Angrosino, 2012). An observation takes place in the setting where a phenomenon under investigation naturally occurs and thus the data collected during the observation provides the researcher with a first-hand experience of a phenomenon under study. In addition, the observational data can provide a holistic interpretation of a phenomenon under study if it combined with data collected via other research methods such as interviews and document analysis (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In order to use observation as a research tool a researcher need to decide his/her stance as an observer. There are four possible stances/positions a researcher can assume as an observer while collecting data and these are complete participant, participant as observer, observer as participant and complete observer (Creswell, 2013; Gold, 1958). In this study the researcher's stance was an observer as participant. According to Gold (1958) when a researcher assumes his/her stance as "observer as participant" or "nonparticipant" (Creswell, 2013), the researchers' observer activities are known to the group they are observing. Assuming "observer as participant" stance may help the researchers to gather a wide range of information by accessing many people in the group, but the level of information revealed is controlled by the group of people under observation (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). However, researchers with this stance can observe and interact with people which help them to establish insider's identity without participating in the activities of the group. As the researcher is not required to be an active member of the group under investigation their role is referred as a "peripheral membership role" (Adler & Adler, 1998).

After seeking permission from the Dept. District Education Officer, I visited the venue where

the primary headteachers (HTs) and assistant teachers (ATs) training was taking place. It was 3 days training (6<sup>th</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> August 2018) from 08:00-14:00 each day (18 hours in total). There were two Block Master Trainers (BMT) who were assigned to deliver CPD training to approximately 40 candidates. I reached the venue in time. The session began at sharp eight however not all the candidates arrived on time. Being an outsider on the very first day I decided to sit at the back. Everyone entering the hall was staring at me but was hesitant to ask any questions. They all seemed to be conscious and curious to know the purpose of my presence in the training hall.

During the tea break I had an opportunity to introduce myself and to articulate my intention of being there. The disclosure of my identity made the environment comfortable for everyone present in the hall. Hence, interacting with group members enabled me to establish an insider's identity as described by Adler and Adler (1998). The research summary and invitation letter were given to all the headteachers present in the hall during tea break. The contact details were also exchanged during break so that further meeting could be arranged with those who were interested and ready to participate voluntarily. I observed three days formal training and jotted down notes (see Appendix 8). The researcher also participated in few activities during this training. While participating in group activities there was a shift in researcher's stance as it moved to the "participant as observer" from "observer as participant/nonparticipant". This helped me to collect rich data such as knowing their perceptions, perspectives and attitude towards CPD. Creswell (2013) suggests that a good qualitative researcher may change their role during observation activity as it could help them to collect rich data. These 3 days observation provided me with the opportunity to collect live, valid, and authentic data from a natural social setting (Angrosino, 2012; Cohen et al., 2011).

#### **4.6 Focus groups**

The researchers sometimes use the term focus groups and group interviews synonymously to refer to an organised discussion with a group of individuals having common interest, characteristics or backgrounds. A focus group is a way to gain collective and multiple perspectives on a specific research topic (Gibbs, 2012). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) suggest that a focus group is not aimed to reach a general agreement or a solution to the specific issue being discussed; however, it aims to bring forward new perspectives and viewpoints of the subjects about the issue. In this study in the context of Punjab, two focus groups were organised

to collect detailed information regarding primary headteachers' CPD training. The interview schedules were designed for both the focus groups (see Appendix 9 & 10).

**Focus group 1:** three members (male) were recruited by the researcher for this focus group. The aim of this focus group was to explore CPD training team's own training, experiences and their perspectives on primary headteachers' CPD. This team is responsible to deliver CPD for primary headteachers (HTs) and assistant teachers (ATs). This team is made up of three members. Two Block Master Trainers (BMTs) and one Cluster Master Trainer (CMT). The BMT has 6 clusters under his/her jurisdiction. A cluster is made up of around 10 schools. Every cluster has a CMT. The BMT and CMT act as trainers, inspection officers, and facilitators for the school headteachers, assistant teachers, and the learners.

**Focus group 2:** this focus group was organised to explore the role and responsibilities of centre head teacher (CHT) to the headteachers of schools they control. The researcher's intention was also to know their perspectives regarding their own CPD training. This focus group was made up of three (female) centre head teachers (CHTs). Each CHT controls about 9-20 schools including primary and upper primary. In this group, the number of schools under CHT 1, CHT 2 and CHT 3 was 9, 11 and 18 respectively. The role of the CHT is to look after the official paperwork of these schools, observe teaching and learning, provide training to the headteachers and assistant teachers, and writing reports. These CHTs have to report to the Block Primary Education Officer (BPEO). Also, in addition to their CHT responsibilities, they have to play the role of a HT in their own schools.

### *Procedures*

**Stage 1:** the researcher invited the research participants for both focus groups in person during an event. The aims and objectives of the research study were introduced verbally in brief. A copy of research summary was handed over to each member of the CPD training team and the contact details were exchanged.

**Stage 2:** a follow up call was made to each member of the team to know whether they are willing to participate in the research project. After seeking their approval, a formal meeting was scheduled at their convenience. The time and venue for the meeting were mutually agreed.

**Stage 3:** prior to the interview, the participants were given the opportunity to ask any question

or clarify any doubts if they had. All the research participants were given the informed consent form to complete before the interview took place to obtain their consent. Ground rules were set and the agenda for the discussion was introduced by the researcher.

**Stage 4:** the interview was conducted. The researcher ensured that each important point is recorded by making notes and these notes are reviewed as soon as possible after the interview finished. Post interview feedback from the interviewee was sought to identify their experience of the interview and to find out whether something was overlooked by the researcher during conversation. A summary of the interview was given to the participants to confirm accuracy of their responses. A small thank you gift was given to each member of the focus groups as an incentive. Following is an overview of a pilot study in this study.

#### **4.7 Pilot study: interview questions**

Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) defined the term “pilot study” as a mini version of a full-scale research study or a trail run in preparation to complete a study. A pilot study can also be used to pre-test research tools to measure their effectiveness. The researcher should make sure there is sufficient time between pilot testing and the actual study. A pilot study saves time, money, and energy. For instance, if a research study requires two hundred questionnaires to be completed by the research participants, about ten questionnaires can be get completed during a pilot study to check the efficacy of the research equipment and further modification can be done for better results. The main purpose of a pilot study is considered to try out the research methods and relevant procedures. However, finding from a pilot study can also play a crucial role in improving the research tools for the betterment of a major study. By considering the benefits mentioned above, a pilot study was planned and conducted for this research study to pre-test the efficiency of interview questions. Three headteachers were interviewed by phone calls in January 2018 from the state of Punjab. I was not able to interview them in person as I was in England at that time. These headteachers were not selected from the state schools but private schools as gaining access to state schools was a difficult task. These headteachers were introduced by one of my friends in Punjab. Initially the headteachers were contacted by making a phone call to book an appointment for a research interview at their convenience. The purpose of the interview and the aims and objectives of research were made clear and a date for interview was agreed mutually. These headteachers were contacted via phone calls on agreed date and the interviews were conducted. Their responses were recorded by making notes which further reflected on immediately after the interviews finished. Each interview lasted for around

60 minutes. After the interview finished, the researcher requested participants to provide feedback about their experiences of the interview. The pilot interviews were transcribed and analysed by implementing thematic analysis.

Post interview feedback from the participants and analysis of their responses helped to develop and refine interview protocol for better results. In light of the findings from the pilot study, the interview questions were revised, eliminated and added. This was required because some of the questions were leading which did not give enough room for the research participants to share their perspectives and some questions were eliminated because they were generating repeated responses. Some of the new questions were added to elicit rich information. Following are few examples of questions:

- **Do national education policy initiatives affect your CPD?** This question was amended to: **Could you tell me in what ways national education policy influence your CPD?**
- **How are the topics for CPD activities decided?** This question was added to elicit specific information.
- **What other, if any, topics or areas of focus would you benefit from?** This question was added to elicit more information.

Blessing and Chakrabarti (2009) emphasised the importance of doing a pilot study by suggesting that the researchers should not underestimate the importance of good research methods and data collection procedures as it ensures their successful applicability in the context which they are going to be employed. Pilot testing is the best way to check the effectiveness and efficiency of the research equipment and other research relevant procedures. Mackey and Gass (2009) recommend the researchers to include a pilot study in research their strategy as it may reveal subtle flaws in the design or implementation of the study that may not be apparent from the research plan itself. To sum up, the pilot study helped me to enhance my research design before I actually got into the field to collect data. In addition to developing and refining interview protocol, it enabled me how to deal with data such as transcribing, translating, initial coding, and potential themes which ultimately helped me while conducting my research project.

#### **4.8 Ethical considerations**

Liamputong (2007) defined the term ethics as “a set of moral principles that aims to prevent researchers from harming those they research” (p.23). Ethics of a social research concern protecting all the research participants from any physical, emotional and psychological harm (Cohen et al., 2007; Silverman, 2013). In a social research ethics are about creating a respectful, win-win relationship which is comfortable for the participants to share candid information so that valid results are obtained (Matthews & Ross, 2010). As social science is fundamental to a democratic society, the researchers need to respect the privacy, autonomy, diversity, values, and dignity of all the individuals, groups, institutions, and communities involve in a research (BERA, 2018). As this study involved humans and their institutions, it was pivotal for the researcher to respect their individual identities, practices, and the institutions they belonged to (Silverman, 2013). Ethical issues enter every phase of research. It is not only about maintaining anonymity or gaining consent from the research participants but about informing every aspect of a research study, from the initial design to the actual implementation of the proposal and publishing the final report (Atkins & Wallace, 2012). An ethical approach was adopted throughout this research study and will continue after the thesis is completed. During the whole process of data collection and planning of this research study, the ethical principles of research were taken into account. It was ensured that the organisations and people involved in this research study were in no way harmed. Each participant was made aware of the research aims, objectives, and purpose of the research. Invitation letters and research summary were sent to all the participants and sufficient time was provided to make decisions. On the interview day before the interview began, the participants were given the opportunity to ask any questions regarding the research project and relevant procedures.

Informed consent of all respondents was sought, and their participation remained volunteer (Winter & Giddings, 2001). There were situations, in the context of Punjab, when the researcher had to translate the informed consent form (from English into Punjabi) on the participants’ request for their convenience. The researcher made sure that each research participant understood the informed consent form before they signed it. All the interviews in the state of Punjab were conducted into Punjabi language as the research participants were not comfortable to communicate in English. The research participants from both contexts were given the opportunity to review the transcripts and summaries of the interview to check for accuracy of their responses. Birt, Scott, Cavers, Campbell and Walter (2016) describe this process as “respondent validation”. Confidentiality of information and anonymity of



participants' identity are considered the norms of research (BERA, 2018). Therefore, I ensured and guaranteed all the research participants that the information disclosed by them would remain anonymous and confidential and would be used only for research purposes. The researcher also made her position clear as an “outsider” to all the research participants. Clarification about the researcher’s position created a comfortable environment during data collection procedures. The issues of trustworthiness in relation to this study will be discussed in the next section.

#### 4.9 Trustworthiness

The notion of trustworthiness in an interpretive qualitative research refers to validity and reliability which involves conducting research in an ethical manner (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Validity and reliability are the concerns which one can approach by paying a careful attention to how a particular study is conceptualised, and how the data is collected, analysed, interpreted, and finally presented (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). The qualitative researchers convince the readers of their trustworthiness by providing thick descriptions of events and actions to show how their conclusions make sense (Firestone, 1987). It is argued that qualitative research is based on assumptions about reality whereas a quantitative research which is based on well-developed standards accepted by a scientific community. In other words, a qualitative research seeks to understand meaning of a situation whereas a quantitative research discovers facts and test hypothesis. As these both approaches have different criteria for investigation, the criteria for testing trustworthiness should be different. It is argued that the concerns of validity and reliability should be considered from a perspective which is in harmony with the philosophical assumptions underlying the research paradigm (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In keeping with above discussion Lincoln and Guba (1985) construct four criteria to ensure trustworthiness in a qualitative research which were substitutes for the criteria for testing trustworthiness in a quantitative research. The four criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) are widely adopted in a qualitative research and these are as follows:

	<b>Qualitative research</b>	<b>Quantitative research</b>
1.	Credibility	Internal validity
2.	Transferability	External validity
3.	Dependability	Reliability
4.	Confirmability	Objectivity

In order to ensure trustworthiness of this study it was checked against criteria suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985). The following section will discuss these four criteria in turn in relation to present study.

### **Credibility**

Credibility is a question about truth-value (Miles et al., 2014). It is about answering a question, for example, are the findings credible, given the data presented? (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The credibility of a qualitative research can be increased by using a number of strategies such as triangulation. Denzin (1978) proposed four types of triangulation which include the use of multiple methods, multiple sources of data, multiple investigators or multiple theories to support emerging findings. In this study, multiple methods of data collection were used. For instance, data was collected by interviews, focus groups, and observations. Another common strategy for ensuring credibility is “member checks” also known as “respondent validation” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In this study, credibility was also increased by using “respondent validation”. For example, interview transcriptions were sent to the research participants in order to ensure accuracy of their responses during interview. In addition to triangulation and respondent validation, credibility was achieved by providing “thick description” (Miles et al., 2014) of the phenomenon under study.

### **Transferability**

The notion of transferability concerns applying research findings of one study to the other context. It involves the question of generalisability (Miles et al., 2014). While explaining the notion of transferability Lincoln and Guba (1985) maintain that the original investigator cannot know the contexts or situations where his/her research findings’ transferability can be sought but the individuals who want to apply findings of one research to other contexts can know and do this. Hence, a qualitative researcher needs to provide a thick description of events and actions to make transferability possible. As this study is interpretative in nature, the findings will include thick description of the phenomenon under study.

### **Dependability**

Dependability refers to replication of a study. It is about an issue of “whether the process of a study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods” (Miles et al., 2014, p.312). Thus, it concerns with researchers’ responsibility to ensure that their research findings can be repeated with the same cohort of people. It is argued that as human behaviour

is not static hence dependability in a qualitative research can be problematic (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). However, it might be achieved by using “audit trail” method which advocates keeping a detailed record of the process of research and decisions made by the researcher about a particular study method (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Further, dependability of a research can also be ensured by using triangulation and researcher’s position (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In order to ensure the dependability of this study triangulation, audit trail and the researcher’s position were used which would help the future researchers to repeat the process if not to yield the same results.

### **Confirmability**

The notion of confirmability concerns with the aspect neutrality (Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Miles et al., 2014) making sure that the data and interpretations of findings are grounded in data. In other words, it is about making sure that research findings are not a product of an investigator’s imagination. Confirmability can be ensured by using “audit trail” method as suggested by (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This can be done by providing a detailed account of events during research, i.e., decisions made by the researchers about data collection and interpreting meanings and making clear their biases if any. Confirmability can be ensured by acknowledging values, beliefs, perspectives, strengths as well as weaknesses. It is about being self-aware and reflexive about own role and position as a researcher (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). In this study confirmability was ensured by providing reflective notes throughout the text wherever appropriate and by using audit trail method.

### **4.10 Researcher’s position**

A qualitative researcher has to be self-aware and reflexive about own role in the entire process of a research which includes collecting, analysing and interpreting data (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Qualitative researchers as they involve with human beings and spend lot of time to gain deeper insights into their worlds, they should explicitly identify their biases, values, beliefs, and personal backgrounds which may influence the entire research process and shape their interpretations (Creswell, 2014). Regarding my position as a researcher, I was unknown to all the research participants and I did not have any shared experience with them which defined me as an outsider researcher. Being an outsider researcher involves both advantages and disadvantages. For example, gaining access to all the research participants was a challenging task initially in both contexts. I had to rely on “gatekeepers” to gain access to the research participants. However, being an outsider ensured minimum bias to this study.

As Creswell (2014) suggests that qualitative researchers should share their past experiences with the research problem as this could help the readers to understand the connection between the researcher and the study. Adding to this, I do not have any experience of how it feels being a headteacher of a school. However, I do have nine years of experience being a tutor in a school for five years and a language academy for four years in the context of Punjab and I also have an experience of being a tutor in two academies in England. When it comes the research problem of this study which is primary school headteachers' professional development, I never heard anyone in Punjab in my school including headteacher talking about CPD. I joined a school as a teacher around 19 years ago. During this research I realised that there was great change in the state schools of Punjab such as Pre-Nurseries have been established and English (subject) made compulsory in all schools. Some of the schools offer English medium as a means of instruction. Many schools turned into smart schools. A smart school, within the given context of this study is a technology-based teaching-learning school that prepares students for the information age. For example, in a smart school, teachers make use of multimedia tools such as slides, posters, audio visual recordings to provide an enhanced learning experience to the students. Nonetheless, using online materials and LCDs to teach students in the state primary schools of Punjab in particular was just a dream before.

Although, there is an improvement in the way teachers teach students due to formal seminars which focuses on pedagogy, professional development particularly for school headteachers is relatively an ignored area. I feel that the headteachers should have opportunities and access to an organised CPD as majority of the headteachers is struggling to cope with new landscape of self-improving school system.

As producing authentic valid and reliable knowledge in an ethical manner is the main focus of all research, the role of a researcher cannot be underestimated. It is argued that the trustworthiness of a qualitative research relies on the credibility of the researcher (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Although, a researcher can adhere to some guidelines in order to deal with ethical issues; however, the load of producing a valid and reliable study is solely on the researcher. Hence, each researcher must understand their philosophical perspectives underpinning their research and they must be open and honest about their values, beliefs, perceptions, and assumptions in connection with the real-world situations. Regarding my position as a researcher who was committed to CPD, I chose to be open towards their beliefs and values in relation to their CPD. I ensured that the participants had enough time to express

their perspectives without being forced to talk about certain points. I listened to their viewpoints attentively and explained to them that their experiences and perspectives were valuable to me as a researcher. Furthermore, I also ensured to clarify the information I received from the participants even when it was pragmatically understood. For instance, during the interviews the at certain points research participants made use of an expression “as you know”. It implies that they relied on my conceptual knowledge to make sense of their expressions. However, I always asked them to clarify what they exactly meant to say that by asking them: “what do you mean by that?” or stating clearly what they meant by that. Hence, I tried to be objective by ensuring that my values and beliefs did not influence their responses.

#### **4.11 Qualitative data and thematic analysis**

Qualitative data collection and data analysis is a process which is both recursive and dynamic in nature (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Qualitative data analysis process becomes quite intensive when all the data is collected. It has been described as a process of organising, categorising and interpreting verbal and visual data, synthesising information, identifying patterns, and relationships to gain deeper insights of the phenomenon under investigation (Flick, 2014). It is also about theorising relationships among various categories present in qualitative data and how and why these relationships appear as they do (Given, 2008). It is non-numerical in nature and the most common forms of qualitative data are generated through in-depth interviews, focus groups, and textual field notes/observations (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012). As a qualitative researcher is interested in people’s thoughts, behaviours, emotions, and the environmental conditions in which people reside and make sense of their world, thematic analysis appears to be an appropriate tool to achieve this aim. Thematic analysis enables the researchers to use a wide variety of information in a systematic manner which increases researchers’ accuracy and sensitivity that help them to understand and interpret situations under study (Boyatzis, 1998). It is a technique to identify, analyse, and report patterns or themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). For instance, finding repeated patterns of meaning from interviews, focus groups, and observations. To put it differently it is about “searching across a data set” (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Although thematic analysis method is extensively used in qualitative research, there is no clear agreement on what thematic analysis is and how it is done (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Boyatzis, 1998; Tuckett, 2005). It is argued (Attride-Stirling, 2001) that if the readers are not able to identify how researchers analysed data and what assumptions informed their analysis, it would make difficult to evaluate and synthesise their research with relevant studies which may consequently hinder other researchers to conduct research in the

same area in future. Therefore, as recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006) clarity on process and practice of method is crucial.

For this piece of research thematic analysis technique was used. In keeping with Braun and Clarke's advice, thematic analysis was done by adhering to the guiding set of principles suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). They outlined six phases of thematic analysis which include (i) familiarizing yourself with your data (ii) generating initial codes (iii) searching for themes (iv) reviewing themes (v) defining and naming themes (vi) producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.87).

**Phase 1:** during this phase, all the data was transcribed collected by employing different tools of research, e.g. observations, semi-structured interviews, and focus groups. In this study, data was collected from two different contexts having different language of communication. For instance, interviews were conducted by using English and Punjabi languages in the Midlands and in the state of Punjab respectively. Data collected from the English context was transcribed directly from audio recordings and field notes. The interview transcripts were sent to the research participants via email for checking accuracy of their responses. However, data collected from Punjab was transcribed in two stages. At first, interview transcripts were prepared in Punjabi and verified with the participants for the accuracy of their responses. I transcribed the whole of the recorded interviews as my purpose was to turn the whole spoken into text version to gain deeper insight and create meanings of the phenomenon under study. The process of transcription started during data collection.

The second stage of transcription involves translating Punjabi transcripts into English. Initially, I translated all the Punjabi interviews into English. I was confident to do it myself because my Punjabi is my native language and I also have four years of experience working in an academy of foreign language as an ESOL and IELTS tutor. I was also a member of team in the academy and my responsibilities involved translating and interpreting Punjabi dialogues and other reading materials into English and vice-versa and our team's work was verified by an English specialist team of the academy. However, the process of translation was not an easy task given the complexity of the pragmatic knowledge of the social use of words. For instance, the research participants in Punjab used the word “ਜ਼ਰੂਰੀ” [necessary] with different meanings in different situations. For example, the participants used a sentence, “attending formal training

is necessary for headteachers”. They used the word “ਜ਼ਰੂਰੀ” [necessary] to explain the obligatory nature of the formal training rather than the word “ਲਾਜ਼ਮੀ” [mandatory]. In another example of a sentence, “leadership and management training is necessary for headteachers”, the participants used the word “ਜ਼ਰੂਰੀ” [necessary] to highlight the importance of leadership and management training which justifies the correct meaning of the use of word. Nevertheless, given the context of Punjabi language the use of word “necessary” is appropriate in both sentences. Hence, it was vitally important to identify the original meaning of the words during the process of translation. I decided to adopt the literal translation of the meaning. I translated meaning from Punjabi into the appropriate meaning in English to achieve equivalence as much as possible in meanings in order to convey the message clearly. In addition, for the credibility of translation I cross checked my translation with a trustworthy friend who is specialist in English-Punjabi translation. This process was done conversely, i.e., English to Punjabi and Punjabi to English. In order to maintain confidentiality, it was ensured that the names of the research participants, name of their respective schools and any other clues which could reveal their identity were eliminated from the transcripts before handing over to my friend.

After the transcripts were ready, I read them thoroughly several times in order to familiarise myself with data and to grasp and write initial ideas reflections. Although the process of transcription was exhaustive and time consuming, it proved an excellent way to the researcher familiarise herself with data particularly the act of checking the transcripts against the audio recordings and field notes was very helpful (Riessman, 1993). Bird (2005) argued that the phase of transcribing and reading data several times in order to achieve initial familiarity with data should be seen as a “key phase” within interpretive paradigm because an interpretivist creates meanings rather than discovering facts (Lapadat & Lindsay, 1999).

**Phase 2:** during this phase of data analysis I did initial coding manually across the entire data collected throughout research (see Appendix 11). My aim was to identify anything and everything of interest relevant to my research questions which is referred as a “complete coding” by Braun and Clarke (2013). They defined code as a word or phrase that captures the essence of a specific chunk of data. After initial coding done all date extracts were combined according to themes in relation to each research question (see Appendix 12). This was done by

creating separate word files by coping and pasting extracts from individual interviews. Thus, during the process of coding I organised my data into meaningful groups (Tuckett, 2005).

**Phase 3:** this phase began with a long list of codes I identified across the data set during second phase. This process involved sorting the codes into potential themes. In other words, at this point I started analysing how different codes could be combined to form an overarching theme. I started thinking about how different patterns relate to each other. To put it Braun and Clarke's (2006) words, it was engaging in a process of thinking about the relationships between different codes, between different themes and between different levels of themes. This was done by developing visual thematic maps on a paper (see Appendix 13). During this process, some of the initial codes formed main themes, some codes discarded, some of the interesting codes emerged unexpectedly which were grouped together to further analyse. At the end of this phase the researcher had a collection of main themes and sub-themes including relevant extracts of data

**Phase 4:** once the initial thematic map was developed the process of reviewing and refining themes began. During this phase, I came across that some themes were not themes at all as there was no enough data to support them. I merged some of the themes as they were conveying almost same idea. Some of the themes were broken down into separate themes in keeping with Patton's (2002) dual criteria of judging categories known as internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity. For example, in this study, while data analysing a theme was identified "various factors affect headteachers' CPD". This theme was broken down into three separate themes such as (i) *individual factors and headteachers' CPD* (ii) *functional element in schools and headteachers' CPD* (iii) and *organisational culture and headteachers' CPD* by using Sambrook's (2002) holistic model of factors influencing work in learning as a theoretical lens. Patton's dual criteria for judging categories suggests that while data within themes cohere together in a logical manner that creates meaning, there is a clear and identifiable distinction between themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). At this stage, the researcher discarded some themes from the analysis and some new themes were identified. This was also done by developing a visual thematic map on paper. At the end of this phase, a researcher had a developed thematic map that showed a coherent pattern of abstract themes telling an overall story about the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

**Phase 5:** during this phase of data analysis the themes were further reviewed and refined until



it became clear that what aspect of data each theme captured. The abstract themes were clearly defined, for example what does a theme mean in the context of this study. The final thematic map was developed the end of this phase displaying themes and sub-themes. At this point I gained a sense of how to fit these themes and sub-themes together to tell an interesting story in accordance with the research questions. A detailed analysis was conducted for each individual theme followed by writing memos which tied the themes to the research questions and to the literature relevant to the research focus.

**Phase 6:** this is the last phase of the process of thematic analysis advocated by Braun and Clarke (2006). At this point I had a set of worked out themes and written memos. The researcher’s task was to write a concise, coherent, non-repetitive and an interesting narrative the data tells with sufficient evidence and examples supporting my themes. This is evident in the following finding chapters: chapter five, six and seven. Following is a table of themes and sub themes drawn from data to tell their story.

*Table 7: List of themes and sub-themes*

<p>RQ1: How is the professional development of primary headteachers in the Midlands (UK) and the State of Punjab (India) organised?</p> <p>RQ2: How are the professional development needs and priorities of primary headteachers identified?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Existing approaches to headteachers’ CPD in English and Punjabi contexts</li> <li>• Need analysis and support for English headteachers’ CPD</li> <li>• Need analysis and support for Punjabi headteachers’ CPD</li> <li>• Headteachers’ varied perceptions of CPD practice</li> <li>• Different forms of headteachers’ CPD <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Networking and peer learning – preferred forms of CPD</li> <li>○ Online learning – convenient form of CPD</li> <li>○ Learning by doing – common form of CPD</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<p>RQ3: What impact do professional development activities undertaken by primary headteachers have on their approach to school leadership? How are these impacts measured and by whom?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Headteachers’ CPD and impact evaluation</li> <li>• Inefficacy of impact measurement tools</li> <li>• Headteachers’ perceptions of CPD providers’ practices</li> </ul>

- Structured CPD and its impact

RQ4: How does the (national) policy environment in India and the UK influence the professional development of primary headteachers?

- Education policy: a key to lead headteachers' CPD in the context of the Midlands
- Education policy: a key to shape headteachers' formal CPD in the context of Punjab
- National Education Policy: an enhancing factor in professional learning
- National Education Policy: an inhibiting factor in professional learning.

#### 4.12 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the research design and methodological approaches employed in this study. The choice of research design and methodology has also been justified by discussing researcher's philosophical assumptions. The barriers in accessing research participants being an outsider researcher and the steps taken to resolve these issues have been described. Justification of selecting research methods namely observations, semi-structured interviews, and focus groups has been provided. In addition, sampling strategy, sample size, and data analysis process, and its appropriateness for this research have been discussed. The issues of ethical considerations and trustworthiness have been discussed in relation to this research.

This study adopted interpretive paradigm and qualitative approach to make sense of the phenomenon of headteachers' CPD in two diverse contexts in terms of culture, location, technological development, economic growth and academic standards. The total number of research participants recruited was twenty-eight which involved twenty-two primary school headteachers, three centre head teachers and three CPD team members. The participants were recruited by using purposive sampling. The data was gathered both by interviews, focus groups, and observations. In the Midlands, the data was collected by using English as a means of communication; however, Punjabi was used as a means of communication in Punjab for the participants' convenience. The data collected in Punjab was transcribed in Punjabi and then translated into English by the researcher.

For data analysis, thematic analysis technique was applied adhering to set guidelines and six phases advocated by Braun and Clarke (2006) which involved familiarising with data, initial coding, searching themes, reviewing themes, defining themes, and writing report. Further, the ethical issues involving participants' consent, diversity, confidentiality, and anonymity were

discussed. Finally, trustworthiness of this study against Lincoln and Guba's (1985) four criteria namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability were also discussed.

## **Chapter 5: Contemporary CPD practices among primary headteachers in English and Punjabi contexts.**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses findings relevant to the first and second research questions of this study: (i) how is the professional development of primary headteachers in England and India organised? (ii) how are the professional development needs and priorities of primary headteachers identified? This chapter is divided into two sections. The section one will discuss the existing primary headteachers' CPD (continuing professional development) approaches and needs analysis processes in both contexts of this study followed by the headteachers' perceptions of CPD practices. The section two will focus on different forms of CPD used by headteachers in the given contexts of this study to enhance their professional competence followed by a chapter summary in the end.

The overriding aim of this chapter is to contribute to our knowledge of the current CPD approaches and need analysis processes employed for the state primary school headteachers' CPD in the English and Punjabi contexts. This chapter argues that primary headteachers' CPD in both contexts lacks a systematic approach. The chapter also analyses how individual factors such as headteachers' motivation and attitude towards learning influenced their CPD (Sambrook, 2002). The CPD seemed to be optional for English headteachers, nevertheless all the English headteachers interviewed in this study attended CPD activities whenever they regarded it important and necessary. In contrast, Punjabi headteachers were required to attend a mandatory three days formal training/CPD organised under the state project namely *Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab* on annual basis. Nonetheless, as confirmed by majority of the Punjabi headteachers interviewed in this study, this training appeared to be inadequate as it did not meet their professional development needs.

This chapter highlights variations among headteachers perceptions of CPD. Some of the English headteachers appeared to be in favour of a structured CPD whereas others were happy with a piecemeal approach to CPD. In the case of Punjab, only a few headteachers were in favour of attending mandatory CPD training as they considered it beneficial; however, the majority of headteachers was reluctant to attend three days mandatory training as they believed their experience to be more significant to run their schools as compared to that training. A couple of Punjabi headteachers raised their concern regarding a lack of CPD in leadership and

management development. They considered it to be essential for their job role. This chapter also illuminates the role and importance of different forms of CPD used by the primary headteachers to enhance their professional competence in the both contexts. These forms of CPD involved networking and peer learning, online learning, and experiential learning.

The research findings relevant to the first and second research questions (RQ1, RQ2) are categorised into five main themes: (i) Existing approaches to headteachers' CPD in English and Punjabi contexts (ii) Need analysis and support for English headteachers' CPD (iii) Need analysis and support for Punjabi headteachers' CPD (iv) Headteachers' varied perceptions of CPD practice, and (v) Different forms of headteachers' CPD. The first four themes will be discussed in section one and theme five including three sub-themes will be discussed in section two.

## **Section one**

### **5.2 Existing approaches to headteachers' CPD in English and Punjabi contexts**

The research findings of this study revealed that primary headteachers' CPD lacked a systematic approach in both contexts. A systematic approach to CPD involves engaging in a reflective practice right from the initial planning stage to the impact stage (Scales, Pickering & Senior, 2011). Engaging in a reflective practice can reveal inconsistencies between the planned and the actual outcome of a CPD activity which enables the individuals to reconstruct their professional narratives which results in enhanced professional practice (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). It appeared that some of the English headteachers were involved in reflective practice which informed their CPD activities and priorities whereas a majority of the Punjabi headteachers did not mention anything in particular about their reflective practice. It was identified that there were no procedures in place for an organised CPD for the English primary headteachers. They, in general, seemed to take ownership of their professional development and plan their CPD activities accordingly. When asked about the frequency of their participation in CPD activities and current CPD arrangements, the following responses were received from the headteachers of the Midlands and the State of Punjab respectively. During an interview, a headteacher commented:

*Once a fortnight. Sometimes I attend so many online training. This week I had three times training and last week I had four times training. There is no limit to attend CPD*

*activities. A headteacher can do as much as they want...There is no one to ask me to go for training. As an experienced leader and headteacher I will decide my own training. I will look for what is in offer and decide to go for it...There is no requirement for CPD. It also depends on the budget...*

Headteacher 1, Midlands, female

This example (above) indicates that the headteacher had no obligatory requirements to do CPD. It seemed that she led on her CPD. She commented that “*A headteacher can do [any number of CPD]as much as they want...There is no one to ask me to go for training*”. It appeared that the headteacher was not answerable to anyone regarding her CPD and it might be acceptable if she did not attend any CPD activity. The findings revealed that almost all of the English headteachers employed a piecemeal approach to their CPD and this headteacher was no different in this case. She explained that she attended a number of CPD courses; however, no clue to the purpose of her CPD was provided. Another issue of concern in relation to her CPD raised by the headteacher was inadequate funding. It appeared that her decision making regarding her CPD relied on the budget of her school.

The HT2 (below) from the Midlands during the interview indicated the availability of different kind of leadership programmes such as the NPQs (National Professional Qualifications) for his staff. He appeared to be passionate about his own CPD and he also took his staffs’ professional development seriously. It appeared that there were no any other organised CPD opportunities available for primary headteachers except the NPQH. However, the headteacher indicated the existence of Networks of Practice (NoP) (Brown & Duguid, 2001) where local headteachers worked in collaboration to improve their schools and find further support in order to enhance their professional practice.

*There are different kind of leadership programmes you can go for and what I am doing at the moment I am sending lot of my staff some are deputies who are doing senior leader NPQs and some are doing middle leaders’ qualification and I already have done my NPQH. Beyond that there is not anything really organised in terms of CPD for us to participate in. Quite often we meet as a group of local headteachers, who can really do input in writing School Development Plan, writing self-evaluation forms, action plans and things like that and then we go and find people who can work with us as a group to provide that support...*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The data extract from an interview (below) from HT6 from the Midlands indicated that this headteacher led on his CPD as he himself decided what CPD activity he would need to go for. Although, as his statement suggested, this headteacher rarely participated in CPD activities, he made his staffs' continuing professional development his priority. In pursuit of this, he sometimes had to compromise with his own CPD. This headteacher's decision of sending his staff rather than going himself for training probably had been either influenced by his core values and beliefs or due to his workload or school budget. His statement showed that he valued developing his team's skills and competences. Values are the principles that govern individuals lives and shape the decisions they make. Peoples' values, beliefs, and attitudes are developed throughout the course of their lives and they are embedded in their personalities. A headteacher's core values and beliefs play an important role in leading and shaping organisational culture. Being a role model and leader for their staff, headteachers need to demonstrate what they value not only by articulating words but through their actions. It would be interesting to explore why topics like 'Health and Safety' and 'Curriculum' are dull for headteachers and what made other topics such as 'Becoming Your School's Resident Inspector' and 'New Inspection Framework' interesting for headteachers. It might be relevant to the delivery of the content, the way the content is delivered can make it boring or interesting during a CPD programme.

*You know I am very very keen for my staff to go out for training...and sometimes we neglect ourselves. I do once a year try to make sure that I go to either some one of big conferences, big unions or I try to go on some decent Ofsted training. For example, last year prior to our inspection I went to a course, Become Your Schools' Resident Inspector. So once a year I will try to go on something that catches my eye...headteachers are always sent things constantly via emails from I don't know some really dull things to Health and Safety, to some more things about Curriculum...we got New Inspection Framework coming in September...it's only yesterday I saw something in London in June about the new Inspection Framework. So, I am probably gonna go on something like that.*

Headteacher 6, Midlands, male

Following are the responses recorded during interviews with the primary headteachers (HT2, HT7, HT6, HT12) in the context of Punjab. The research findings revealed that Punjab was different to the Midlands in that Punjab offered a structured CPD. However, it was not what was needed by the headteachers as it did not focus on leadership and management skills. This

finding is consistent with the finding from Moorosi and Bush's (2011) study which showed that the content of the professional development programmes is not appropriate to meet the challenges faced by school leaders in various contextual settings. This is evident in the following statements recorded from the headteachers from the Punjab. It appeared in the comments made by (HT2) (below) that there were no leadership development programmes, webinars or online trainings available for the state primary school headteachers in the state of Punjab. The HT7 and HT6 (below) also mentioned about "Edusat" meetings which were arranged once a month in a state secondary school by State Secretary School Education to provide updates. However, it appeared that headteachers were rarely invited for these meetings as HT7 (below) commented "*The HTs are invited only if there is any particular issue relevant to their schools. I haven't attended any Edusat meeting so far*" and these were considered meetings not training as HT6 (below) in an interview stated "*But these are meetings not training*". The aim of these Edusat meetings appeared to provide latest information or updates on policy initiatives.

*We all [my staff and myself] have the provision to attend one annual training [mandatory training] which lasts for 2-3 days. It is organised by Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab. It is a Punjab State Government Initiative to enhance learning in the state primary schools. But these seminars are more about learning and sharing new teaching techniques in the classrooms and receiving information about the new initiatives in education...There are no professional development opportunities available for the primary headteachers. To be honest, I don't know any organisation or company here which provide training for the headteachers on school administration and leadership.*

Headteacher 2, Punjab, female

*I attend CPD training once a year...The main focus of this training is to develop our teaching practice. For example, we learn how to use TLMs to deliver our lessons, how to make our classes interactive to benefit students. Sometimes HTs are invited for Edusat meetings with the State Secretary School Education to provide updates. These meetings are arranged in a state secondary school every month. All high authority officials attend these meetings. The HTs are invited only if there is any particular issue relevant to their schools. I haven't attended any Edusat meeting so far.*

Headteacher 7, Punjab, female



*There is one mandatory 3 days training annually under Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab project. But sometimes there are Edusat meetings with the State Secretary School Education. These meetings are arranged in a state secondary school. All high authority officials attend these meetings. But these are meetings not training.*

Headteacher 6, Punjab, male

*I go for 3 days mandatory training.... It is not sufficient for a HT's role in the modern era of advanced technology. This training is good for learning new teaching techniques. I can learn how to teach my students by using creative TLMs (Teaching Learning Materials), but I don't learn how to run my school being a headteacher. I don't have any training relevant to my job role.*

Headteacher 12, Punjab, male

The findings (below) from Focus Group 1 were similar to the findings recorded from headteachers interviews (above). The study revealed that 3 days training provided under *Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab* project was not aimed at HT's job role. However, it was more beneficial for classroom teaching practice (Moorosi & Bush, 2011). The findings suggested that primary headteachers were given additional responsibilities and extra workload without being supported by the system. This could cause headteachers' frustration which might affect their wellbeing adversely. Consequently, they would be left with no option except quitting their job before they actually reach their retirement as one of the centre headteachers during focus group (below) commented "*Things were forced on me. The system needs result. It put me under huge pressure. I was very much stressed. I even cried. At some point, I was thinking about leaving this job.*" It seemed that the headteacher was in dire need of professional development specific to her job role. As it is widely recognised that quality of school leaders matters and high-quality leadership is directly linked to enhanced learning outcomes (Leithwood et al., 2006), their development "should not be left to chance" (Bush, 2013, p.463). If the system wants outstanding results, school headteachers' voice must be heard, valued and they must be provided with an organised supportive system because headship is a specialist profession and it requires specific preparation (Bush, 2008; Hallinger, 2003; Huber, 2004; Lumby et al., 2008; Watson, 2003).

*The training is not relevant to a HTs role. They are more about learning new pedagogical techniques and creating TLMs [Teaching Learning Materials] to make teaching interesting and interactive...Being a CHT [Centre Headteacher] we are*

*responsible to lead other schools as well, but we are not given any training on school leadership and management. There must be specific training relevant to a specific position. Let me tell you about my own experience. When I was assigned as a CHT, I was expected to do my job from the first day onwards without even knowing about my responsibilities [what I needed to do]. I was not given any training or induction. I came to know about my job role fully after 2 months only. I learned on my own. Things were forced on me. The system needs result. It put me under huge pressure. I was very much stressed. I even cried. At some point, I was thinking about leaving this job. But my husband and my daughters consoled me and encouraged me to not to give up.*

Focus group 2, CHT2, Punjab, female

### **5.3 Need analysis and support for English headteachers' CPD**

Although it is widely recognised that school leadership is a key to successful schools, there seemed to be the absence of systematic procedures to identify and meeting their continuing professional development needs in both contexts of this study. When headteachers from the Midlands were asked: how their professional development needs and priorities were identified, they made use of different terms to reply such as “governing body”, “panel of governors”, “School Improvement Partner (SIP)”, “School Development Plan (SDP)”, “Appraisals”, “self-evaluation”, “Performance Management”, “with colleague headteachers”. It was identified that the headteachers had developed their own strategies to meet their CPD needs. For example, during interviews with headteachers, it was identified that some of the headteachers attended frequent online training and others had CPD training only if they felt it was needed. Similarly, some of the headteachers had continuous collaborative activities with their other colleague to enhance their practice while others arranged meetings with local heads whenever they had similar issues of concerns. The following responses recorded from the headteachers (HT1, HT2, HT3, HT7) in the Midlands in relation to their professional development needs analysis.

The HT1 (below) in an interview stated that her CPD needs were identified through self-evaluation and discussions with her school improvement partner (SIP). This headteacher appeared to be happy with the guidance and support provided by the SIP. According to Swaffield (2015) School Improvement Partners also known as “critical friends” were introduced to maintained schools in England by the last Labour government which aimed at a smooth communication among central government department, local authorities, and schools

and their main role was to challenge and support the headteachers in relation to their school's performance and objectives for sustainable improvement.

*From self-evaluation and guided by School Improvement Partners. The School Improvement Partners help me to reflect on my action plan. School Improvement Partners enable to empower and improve my school. My School Improvement Partner visits my school to evaluate my school and she discusses on specific agendas of the school.*

Headteacher 1, Midlands, female

The HT1 continued explaining (below) how her identified needs were met. It appeared that once her needs were identified, she employed a personal approach to meet her CPD needs as she commented during interview “*As an experienced leader and headteacher I will decide my own training*”. It appeared that she led her CPD activities. In order to do so she built networks with other headteachers having similar concerns or interests. She hired consultants and education specialist and attended conferences and online training.

*In the form of collaborative work with headteachers from other schools with same interest. School hires consultants and education specialist and I personally go for conferences and presentations. I can choose any company to go for online training. There are many available.*

Headteacher 1, Midlands, female

The HT2 (below) explained the needs analysis process. It appeared that the headteacher's CPD targets were set through a mutual consent in a group of local headteachers. This idea of working in collaboration in order to enhance professional practice is similar to Brown and Duguid's (2001) Network of Practice (NoP) , Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Learning Communities (LC) and Wenger's (1998) Communities of Practice (CoP).

*Quite often we meet as a group of local headteachers, who can really do input on writing School Development Plan, writing self-evaluation forms, action plans and things like that and then we go and find people who can work with us as a group to provide that support.*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The HT2 (below) added when he was asked how his identified CPD needs were met. The headteacher indicated how huge cuts of financial resources hindered his CPD practice and also

how these financial concerns resulted in employing the Cascade Model of CPD in his school. According to Kennedy (2014), employing the Cascade Model to CPD involves individual teachers attending CPD activities and disseminating similar training to other colleagues. Kennedy (2014) suggests that this model is applied, when there is a lack of resources. The research findings of this study are in line with the findings of Kennedy (2014). It is argued that this model gives priority to skills and knowledge over attitudes and values and it also neglects the varied learning contexts (Kennedy, 2014).

*In the past it was very much to go to the courses or buying someone in to give training to the house staff, but it is less now. When I came here in 2011, I used to manage training budget and I had four to six thousand pounds a year. But now the training budget is thousand pound a year which is very less now and when a course costs £200, one thousand pounds don't go far. What we do now, for example, Safeguarding, one of my leads will go to the training and disseminate back the same training to the rest of the staff.*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The HT3 (below) during the interview explained that how his CPD priorities and needs were set by her school's performance appraisal system. The terms "appraisal" was renamed as "performance management" in September 2000 by the Department of Education in their guidance to schools in England (Eddy-Spicer, Bubb, Earley, Crawford & James, 2019). Generally, performance management (PM) involves financial, human resource and, strategic management of a school. Headteacher Performance Management (HTPM) as the term itself suggests is particularly associated with school headteachers. According to Davis et al. (2011 as cited in Eddy-Spicer et al., 2019), the HTPM comprises two dimensions namely headteacher's professional development and accountability for headteacher's performance. It appeared that headteacher's CPD targets were set by the school governors along with external advisor (EA) on the basis of school development needs.

*We have someone in management who would see my appraisal every year. There is a panel of three governors and school improvement person. The school improvement advisor we buy into will come and support the governing body to make their decisions and they would discuss CPD opportunities and discuss priorities what school needs and what I need to do...*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The HT3 (below) continued sharing his concerns about school performance management responsible for assessing and supporting headteacher's professional development needs. It appeared that the HTPM failed to meet headteacher's professional development needs as the headteacher commented "*That [needs analysis] is the part of performance management. But whether these training are provided to meet those gaps...*". This finding is similar to the finding of Eddy-Spicer et al, (2019) suggests that identifying and supporting headteachers' personal and professional development goals were the challenging tasks for the governing body. It seemed that the headteacher had no appropriate guidance on bridging gaps in his professional practice. It might be due to the lack of appropriate CPD training opportunities for headteachers or lack of expertise of governors in HTPM. However, networking appeared to be one of the CPD approaches headteachers could opt for if nothing else worked.

*We look which things I am doing very well, what I need to develop, and we identify that way. That [needs analysis] is the part of performance management. But whether these training are provided to meet those gaps, it is always, sort of, you always do not necessary know where and who to go to, where you get training on this aspect or that aspect. It's just through local links make that happen really...This is discussing with other heads like, how are you gonna do that, how I am gonna do that things like that...*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

In contrast to HT3 (above) the HT7 (below) shared a different perspective about her performance management. It appeared that the HTPM at her school had the competence or expertise to identify and support headteacher's professional development goals. The headteacher during interview commented:

*Through performance management, so we have a robust system of performance management throughout the school and mine is assessed and reviewed by the governors. So, I identify the objectives for the forthcoming year and I have three objectives and I identified them to meet the changing needs of the school and sometimes those are the external expectations.*

Headteacher 7, Midlands, female

The HT7 (below) continued explaining how her CPD needs were met. It appeared that this headteacher had access to both the internal and external CPD opportunities. This headteacher shared different perspectives from her colleagues above.

*We have internal CPD, for instance we have INSET meetings so that's weekly and as I've said sometimes, we have members of staff who lead it or we have people from external agencies who come in to deliver that. Recently I've undertaken a qualification called the NPQEL which is the National Professional Qualification for Executive Leaders and I was able to Skype my coaching sessions... We also have advisors in [come to school] and consultants. We also go out for trainings, so we source excellent and appropriate external training, so staff attend training courses or conferences or workshops. It's a mixture of them all.*

Headteacher 7, Midlands, female

It appeared that her (HT7) (above) school had an effective HTPM that established a climate of trust by engaging in constructive dialogue with the headteacher on regular basis. Eddy-Spicer et al. (2019) suggest that an effective HTMP (headteacher performance management) cannot be found under an ineffective governing body, and vice versa. Nash (2014) argues that school improvement is one of the key responsibilities of school governors in any school and they should ensure that headteachers' skills and attributes are developed on a continuous basis in order to achieve a sustainable school improvement (Woods et al., 2009).

#### **5.4 Need analysis and support for Punjabi headteachers' CPD**

The study revealed that Punjabi headteachers did not have appraisal system in place similar to their counterparts in the English context. However, they had the opportunity to attend a three days formal CPD organised under a state government initiative (see section 5.2) and the objectives of this formal training were set on the basis of education policy initiatives (see section 7.3). The research findings of this study revealed the existence of School Management Committees (SMCs) in state primary schools of Punjab. The purpose of these SMCs was identified quite similar to the governing body (GB) in the English schools except headteacher's performance management. The headteachers (HT7 & HT8) during interviews explained about the formation and purpose of the SMCs in state schools as below:

*School Management Committee (SMC) is formed by different stakeholders. It consists of 13 members (7 parents, 2 assistant teachers, 1 headteacher, 1 councillor, 1 education expert and 1 donor). We have 1 or 2 meetings yearly. If there is any problem in the school, School Management Committee resolves that problem. For example, in my school I felt that we need a submersible pump. But I needed funding and permission to do so. I raised this issue in SMC and they all discussed and agreed. They passed the*

*issue and signed the papers. Then they applied for grant for our school. I myself cannot ask for grant, I need everyone's approval in SMC...The main purpose of the SMC is to resolve the problems in the school. If I want to make any changes or do something new in my school, I need their approval.*

Headteacher 7, Punjab, female

*We have SMC audits/meetings. They are usually organised to receive school grants for maintenance. If my school needs any funding for maintenance, I make request to the SMC to consider the issue. If all the members agree and sign the application, the proposal is forwarded to the system.*

Headteacher 8, Punjab, female

The School Management Committees (SMCs) were formed in all primary and secondary state schools under the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 (RTE). This Act (RTE) mandates that 75% members of a SMC should be parents and the remaining 25% members should be from the Local Authority, school staff, and educationalists. Further, this Act recommend that 50% of the SMC members should be women (Dwivedi & Naithani, 2015). This study showed that a School Management Committee (SMC) is consisted of 12-15 volunteer members. The members included parents, a schoolteacher, a council member and the headteacher. However, the headteacher had no right to vote during committee meetings. The parents were selected on the basis of their children's academic performance in the school. A SMC in Punjabi schools does almost everything that a school governing body (GB) does in an English school except identifying and meeting professional needs of the schoolteachers and the headteachers. On being asked if the SMC played any role in headteachers' professional development, the headteacher commented as "*No, they [SMCs] do not have to do anything with staff's training and CPD*" (HT7). It is noticeable that in the state of Punjab, a number of initiatives have been introduced recently for the state school improvements such as Pre-primary sections in state primary schools, English medium of instructions, digital applications for education, online learning and e-content. However, headteachers' professional development is not considered seriously. It appeared from this research that majority of headteachers was incompetent to implement these initiatives in their respective schools in Punjab. Some of the headteachers were found lacking knowledge and skills and others did not have adequate resources.

### 5.5 Headteachers' varied perceptions of CPD practice

The research findings of this study revealed variations among headteachers' perceptions of CPD practices. Some of the headteachers seemed to be in favour of an organised CPD while others were happy without CPD or with a piecemeal or quick fix approach to CPD in order to solve specific problems at a particular point in the schools. During interviews while explaining their perspectives about CPD practice, the headteachers from both contexts replied as following:

The HT2 (below) from the Midlands seemed to be in favour of an obligatory CPD. He gave an example of his wife who was obliged to do many hours of CPD in order to survive in her job as a veterinary nurse. He appeared to highlight the importance of an organised and obligatory CPD for school headteachers. He regarded the absence of a systematic approach to CPD for school headteachers as a failure of English education system. The headteacher commented during the interview:

*My wife is a veterinary nurse and she has to do so many hours [CPD] per year and if they don't do that many hours essentially, they would be taken off the register of veterinary nurses. In teaching there is nothing like that. There is no requirement of doing CPD at all at any point. The way things change the way education policy changes seems very strange that we're teaching people, we're teaching children but there is no requirement first to be taught anything, that's all...*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

He (HT2) continued sharing his personal perspective regarding CPD practice among headteachers and he also valued a structured CPD by giving example of the NPQH.

*I think for a headteacher there should be an expectation that certain amount of CPD is completed each year...Since doing my NPQH programme, there is no requirement to do anything. One of the reasons I did my NPQH qualification was, I didn't feel I was getting any quality CPD...*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship), a structured qualification, was highly appreciated in this study by some of the English headteachers and regarded as a quality CPD (see section 6.5). It is worth noting that the NPQH was introduced in 1997 in England



and it became mandatory for new heads in 2009 and reverted to optional status in 2012 (Bush, 2013). This HT suggested that school headteachers should be obliged to do a certain amount of CPD each year.

An another English headteacher (HT3) (below) seemed to be in favour of a structured CPD. He also gave an example of the NPQH.

*I think they [government] are saying it [NPQH] is optional and it's not great because it is higher level of learning and thinking and why wouldn't anybody want to that, I think may be the assignments at the end are the best bit, if you are doing things at that level you have already proved your competency... I know there are some headteachers who would say I never did the NPQH, you know, I don't see the point...*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The HT5 (below) seemed to be unhappy with national policy as it expected his school do some sort of training or to receive accreditation without considering their financial condition. It appeared that the headteacher was willing to improve his professional practice and he was aware of various professional development activities. However, he seemed to be unable to have access to such CPD opportunities due to organisational and functional factors (Sambrook, 2002) such as his school context, inadequate funding, and the unexpected and rapid changes in the education policy context.

*In terms of CPD, I do think that it is unfair that national policy dictates that headteachers in schools must have followed some training or receive accreditation but yet we have to pay for it, so there are training providers out there who are charging lots of money for CPD which we have to do and there is no central funding for courses which we are expected to do...I would love to get into research, I would love to do my Masters, I would love to spend time away from school to look into how I can develop education. But it's very much what happening in schools, what external influences coming into school that's what I need training on.*

Headteacher 5, Midlands, male

The following are the responses recorded from the interviews with Punjabi headteachers in relation to their perspectives of CPD practice. The HT13 (below) shared his views on the mandatory CPD organised under the state government. The headteacher explained that the

mandatory training was not what he expected as it did not include the topics on school leadership and management. The headteacher made reference to his structured professional qualification namely ETT which he found somewhat relevant to his job role as it provided with him with some theoretical knowledge of school management. The headteacher appeared to be in favour of an organised CPD relevant to school leadership and management. He also raised his concerns regarding ICT training for school headteachers. He argued that most of the headteachers may not be interested in extra training such as leadership and management due to their workloads. However, they could be motivated to invest extra hours for CPD if they are relieved for few days.

*As I mentioned earlier this [mandatory] training is not relevant to a HT's role. During my ETT [Elementary Teacher Training] diploma I studied few chapters on School Management and they were useful. There must be an organised training which is practical and relevant to School Management and Leadership. I know not all the HTs would like to attend extra training because of their work loads. But the system should relieve them for few days to motivate them to go for some extra training. In addition to School Management and Leadership, training on using E-content, E-Punjab portal, school apps and registers would be beneficial for the HTs. It will help them to do their job efficiently in time without depending on others.* Headteacher 13, Punjab, male

The HT11 (below) shared a different view from the HT13 (above). It appeared that she was not in favour of this mandatory training because she was not able to implement it into her school due to inadequate resources and funding. Her priority seemed to be the smooth running of her school and not her professional learning. It appeared that the contextual factors of schools were not considered by the officials while planning the mandatory training for headteachers in Punjab as the headteacher commented as “*Whatever we are suggested to do in this training, that is possible only if I have resources, funding, enough time and good number of students in my school*” (HT11). Guskey (2009, p.229) argues that “the most powerful content [curriculum] will make no difference if shared in a context underprepared to receive it and use it”. It implies that the most effective CPD activities might not be fruitful if contextual factors are not taken into consideration. This headteacher seemed to be dedicated towards students’ improvement and probably was reluctant to attend mandatory training due to her workload. One can argue that school headteachers can be motivated to participate in CPD activities

maximum if they are provided with adequate funding and resources to run their schools smoothly.

*I don't have time to go for this 3 days training as well. I don't think it is worth to attend these seminars. Whatever we are suggested to do in this training, that is possible only if I have resources, funding, enough time and good number of students in my school. When we are given training to use some kind of TLMS, we must be provided with the material the next day. But the system takes too much time (around 15-20 days) to send that material to our schools. By the time we forget, how to use that material. Many of my students don't have books... I arrange books for my students from old students so that they do no lag behind. I feel there is no need of this mandatory training for the headteachers...Isn't it a waste of time? HTs must be exempt of attending this training because they have a lot to do.*

Headteacher 11, Punjab, female

This chapter so far has discussed the current approaches and needs analysis processes implemented for the continuing professional development (CPD) of primary headteachers in the given contexts of this study. This chapter also shed light on headteachers' perceptions of CPD practices, for example whether they preferred an organised CPD or they were happy with their quick fix approaches. The following section will discuss the various forms of CPD headteachers used to develop their professional competence.

## **Section two**

### **5.6 Different forms of headteachers' CPD**

The research findings of this study identified different forms of CPD the headteachers used to enhance their professional competence in order to run their schools smoothly. Although headteachers lacked a systematic approach to their CPD as discussed earlier in this chapter (see section 5.2), they did their best to improve their professional practice by using different means whenever needed. For example, in addition to on-the-job-training, English headteachers built networks (Brown & Duguid, 2001) with other local school headteachers to obtain support and they also made use of Internet and e-learning. Punjabi headteachers, on the other hand neither built professional networks nor had access to e-learning opportunities. They, however, tended to seek informal help from their family and friends. This study suggested that the majority of the headteachers in both contexts learned from their experience more than anything else.

Following were the different forms of CPD identified used by the headteachers to develop their professional skills.

### **5.6.1 Networking and peer learning – preferred forms of CPD**

This research found that all the primary headteachers in the Midlands interviewed in this study regarded networking and peer-learning as the most preferred forms of CPD among others. They interacted with their colleague headteachers from other local schools because they value their experiences. They shared good practice, knowledge, and issues of concern with their peers. This research finding is consistent with Woods, Woods and Cowie's (2009) survey of Scottish primary and secondary headteachers' views and perceptions of CPD provision and their ongoing needs and priorities. Woods et al. (2009) suggest that both the new and established headteachers place a high value on the interaction with their colleague headteachers because this is one of the best ways of enhancing their professional development in their headship role. During interviews when headteachers were asked about their strategies and modes of CPD delivery, the following responses were received:

*I like the conversations. I like when senior headteachers share their experiences and I can bring my own ideas, I prefer that approach. I can learn about Finance and Safeguarding online because they are processes, I can follow. But anything that is more does require discussions and deeper thinking like how to approach a particular situation. It can be learnt by talking to people who got those experiences and taking that forward. I think online forums are quite interesting but again often you need to search find people who are dedicated.*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The HT3 (above) mentioned how conversing with colleague headteachers could help in enhancing one's professional practice and critical thinking skills. Peer-learning can be very useful in developing high order thinking skills if structured systematically. This idea of building networks and sharing good practice with colleagues in order to enhance own professional practice is related to the notion of Networks of Practice, Learning Communities or Communities of Practice (Brown & Duguid, 2000, Mitchell & Sackney, 2000; Wenger, 1998). For example, majority of the English headteachers interviewed in this study revealed that they developed their professional skills on their own by means of Internet, websites, newsletters, forums and online networking (Brown & Duguid, 2000). In addition to online sources, they also made use of physical face-to-face meetings with their peers (local

colleagues) which they identified as an excellent source of knowledge and information (Brown Duguid, 2000; Wenger, 1998). On the other hand, Punjabi headteachers within this research context did not belong to any informal collaborative group or network; however, whenever required they sought help from their peers, community members, their family, friends, and staff. Hence, networking and peer learning was highly appreciated in both context by headteachers interviewed within this study.

The HT8 from the Midlands highly valued collaborative learning while reflecting on her NPQH qualification during the interview.

*I did my NPQH between 2005 and 2007 and I was very much pleased with this training, but the government made this qualification optional now. The most interesting and valuable part of that training [NPQH] was network meetings. I would say that it was the best kind of professional development I got at that programme. There were lot of conversations among heads, deputy heads and other professionals. We had good professional dialogue with people on topics like...what were they doing in their Local Authority? What does it look like?..."*

Headteacher 8, Midlands, female

Networking appeared to be considered one of the most interesting and valuable elements of the NPQH in the above example. The headteacher regarded it as the best kind of professional development. Networks provided the headteacher with the opportunities to engage in professional dialogue with her peers. Networking and peer-learning can be linked with social aspect of human learning which Eun (2019) suggests is inevitable in human learning and cognitive development. Similarly, Borko (2004) argued that professional development must include cognitive and social aspects of learning to be effective. The scholars Lave and Wenger (1991) defined cognitive and social aspects of learning as change in teachers' beliefs or knowledge and professional learning through participation respectively. It can be argued that networking should be recognised as a fundamental element in a professional development programme. For networks to be effective, there should be balance of "strong and weak ties" (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000) (see chapter 3: theoretical framework for further explanation on strong and weak ties).

This research revealed that no such development or collaborative groups exist in the state of Punjab. However, it was identified that, the Punjabi headteachers sought help informally from

their family, friends, staff, and their community members rather than from professional contact. Following are the remarks made by HT13 during the interview from the state of Punjab:

*This training [3 days mandatory seminars] are good for learning new teaching techniques. I have been in teaching field around 30 years and I know how to teach my students...But I really need to learn how to run my school being a headteacher with limited resources. I don't have any training relevant to my job role... I have to maintain 4-5 types of registers such as accounts, mid-day meal, grants and funding etc. But no management training is available for headteachers to do their jobs competently. When I get stuck with any specific task, I call my family members, friends and, other community members to assist me. Sometimes, I have to visit their place to learn a particular task. I also ask help from my staff... I know many of the HTs struggle to cope with. For example, now we have to do a lot of paperwork but many of us are incompetent to do that...*

Headteacher 13, Punjab, male

The HT13 from the state of Punjab (above) explained how 3 days mandatory training organised under *Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab* initiative was of less value to the primary headteacher's job role. He mentioned that this training was beneficial for enhancing his teaching skills only. However, in addition to teaching students, he was expected to do tasks relevant to office administration, management and leadership. For instance, the headteacher needed to maintain certain types of registers in his schools, therefore he required specific skills. It is argued that headship is a specialist occupation hence it requires specific professional training (Bush, 2010). It appeared that this mandatory training did not really serve the purpose for the headteacher. The headteacher seemed to be in a pathetic situation for he had left with no option except finding own ways to sort his problems.

### **5.6.2 Online learning – convenient form of CPD**

Online learning appears to be a convenient form of learning among 21<sup>st</sup> century professionals. This research identified that all the English headteachers interviewed during this study did lots of online courses to enhance their professional knowledge and skills. However, Punjabi headteachers did not have the privilege to attend online training similar to English headteachers. The research findings suggested that no online training on leadership and management existed for state primary headteachers within the given context of Punjab in this study. According to research findings English headteachers' online CPD training involved

short courses, webinars, conferences, leadership briefings and forums. In addition, they did lots of online reading such as official research reports, policy documents, research papers, and Headteacher Update (the only magazine for all UK primary headteachers). During an interview, while explaining about her CPD activities the HT4 commented:

*I do lots of online training. I do online research specific to my area and sign up short courses and webinars. Most of these online training is free of cost or I just pay a little amount of money. They are easily accessible, there are different time slots you can choose from. I receive lots of advertisement emails from different education providers that offer a variety of online courses I can choose from. Sometimes, my colleagues suggest me web links for relevant trainings.*

Headteacher 4, Midlands, female

In today's modern world online learning is gaining considerable attention and becoming popular among professionals due to its convenience and flexibility. Online courses were comparatively low or free of cost than traditional courses as suggested by the headteacher (above). This study found that online learning allowed the headteacher to plan her learning around her other work priorities by providing her flexible schedules. The headteacher considered online learning beneficial due to the range of courses she could choose from specific to her personal and professional needs. For instance, if a headteacher with tight schedule wants to learn Finance Management, he/she can sign up for a short or extensive course and choose from various time slots suits his/her schedule and needs. Online learning saves headteachers' time, money, energy, and it could help them to reduce stress and maintain work-life balance. The comments made by HT3 (below) from the Midlands highlighted both benefits and limitations of online learning:

*I am not a big fan of online training, I like the conversations. I like when senior headteachers share their experiences and I can bring my own ideas, I prefer that approach. I can learn about Finance and Safeguarding online because they are processes, I can follow. But anything that is more does require discussions and deeper thinking like how to approach a particular situation. It can be learnt by talking to people who got those experiences and taking that forward. I think online forums are quite interesting but again often you need to search find people who are dedicated.*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The extract (above) revealed that online learning was beneficial for gaining theoretical knowledge. It appeared to be the best option when the headteacher wanted to learn how a particular procedure worked such as Finance and Safeguarding as suggested by the headteacher. However, having face-to-face conversations with senior professionals and colleagues added more value as having professional dialogue with colleagues about how they dealt with a particular situation in their respective schools gave them deeper insights into their perceptions. Professional dialogues and informal conversations with colleagues about real issues could bring authenticity to learning. Online forums could be beneficial if one is sure about the quality and credibility of the information discussed. It can be suggested that CPD facilitators should employ a blended learning approach whereby educators could learn via e-learning and traditional face-to-face teaching.

### **5.6.3 Learning by doing – common form of CPD**

This research identified a model that prevails in both contexts of this research. The headteachers from both contexts acknowledged the importance of learning from experiences. This approach of learning is consistent with the key concepts in education known as “learning by doing” a concept coined by John Dewey in 1938 in his philosophy of education (Bot, Gossiaux, Rauch &Tabiou, 2005) and “*experiential learning*” a well-established approach in Adult Education (Kolb, 2015). The basic idea behind these concepts is that in a learning process “knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb, 2015, p.67). In other words, new knowledge is generated when people engage in reflective practice. Reflective practice, in general, is understood as the process of learning where an individual practitioner learns through and from experience towards gaining new insights of self and/or practice. The HT6 from the Midlands explained how learning might takes place while doing a job. He compared a structured course namely NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) with on-the-job-training. The headteacher during interview commented:

*NPQH is a useful starting platform I think for heads going into headship. I think the way they sell themselves for aspirational heads and they want you to do for eighteen months, you can't learn more than actually learning on the job...and actually networking opportunities between heads and me speaking to heads that's invaluable...as I've said that some ways I've learned more actually just speaking to heads about tricky situations saying how you dealt with this, how you dealt with that, that's very very important.*

Headteacher 6, Midlands, male



He (HT6) (above) emphasised that a structured qualification (NPQH) for headship might be useful to enter the profession; however, on-the-job-training is vital to sustain in the position. During the interview, he commented that *“I can just actually pick up the phone and say we got this issue what’s your thoughts on it and actually, that’s really useful and that’s not something really you’re gonna teach on your course”*. The extract (above) indicated that formal qualification like the NPQH cannot prepare effective headteachers because context-specific preparation is not possible during these structured courses. However, their skills development is possible that help them to deal with complex and difficult situations in any context. As this headteacher stated whenever he got stuck in any tricky situation, he connected with his colleagues to seek their advice as they got experience by dealing with a similar situation. He further explained that having conversations and sharing practice with other headteachers were important and invaluable. The headteacher might have gained new insights from his colleagues’ advice to deal with a similar situation in a different way or even more efficiently. From this headteacher’s perspective, it can be suggested that a CPD framework should promote reflective practice among educators as people can learn not only from own experiences but also from others’ experiences. The educators can be engaged in the professional dialogue whereby they can share their experiences. However, effective results cannot be obtained without being a systematic approach in place.

Below is a statement made by a headteacher (HT2) from the state of Punjab. She described how learning experience helped her in developing her professional skills:

*I manage everything in my school myself. I do all my office work and lead my staff in everything. I have been in teaching profession for around 20 years and I learned everything. Most of the times I learn things by doing again and again and I learn from my mistakes. If I get stuck, for example, using computer and apps I ask my staff, family or friends to help me to do the job... I find quite interesting to learn new skills myself by practicing again and again until I learn. I learn from my mistakes. but sometimes it is very frustrating to learn without appropriate support.* Headteacher 2, Punjab, female

It is worth noting that state primary school headteachers in the state of Punjab had no opportunities of building their leadership and management skills. No online training, webinars, conferences, forums or development groups were available for Punjabi headteachers. However, they had the provision to attend an annual training of 2-3 days, but as mentioned earlier this

training focused on improving pedagogical skills and they were of less value to a headteacher's job role. This research found that majority of the headteachers did not have an initial degree (Bachelor's degree). However, they all had 18-20 years of teaching experience which was an essential requirement to be a headteacher in a state primary school. Majority of the headteachers interviewed in Punjab claimed that the experience gained through long term service in teaching profession helped them to run their school smoothly. This HT2 from Punjab confirmed that she mastered new skills by repeating her practice and she learned from her mistakes. It implies that learning took place when she engaged herself in reflective practice. She stated that she enjoyed practicing, but this was not the case always. Her statement also indicated that she learned while engaging in conversation with members from her community, so in this way she also learned from others' experiences.

From the above discussion it can be argued that "Experiential Learning" (Kolb, 2015) whereby people learn by doing can be enhanced if structured systematically. For instance, in a NoP (Network of Practice) the educators can deconstruct their professional narratives. Mitchell and Sackney (2000; 2001) suggest that one's professional narrative (personal capacity) is shaped by two components that is "identity" and "expertise". Mitchell and Sackney (2000) described that deconstructing one's professional narrative is a search for one's "theory of practice" and the process of deconstruction requires both internal (professional identity) and external (professional expertise) search. According to Mitchell and Sackney (2000) educators' "professional identity" relies on their tacit practical knowledge and their "professional expertise" relies on the networks they connect with for their explicit/theoretical knowledge. The internal and external search highlights what is in an educator's professional repertoire and indicates the degree to which an educator has access to new or different professional ideas respectively (Mitchell & Sackney 2001). This deconstruction of "identity" and "expertise" will lead to reconstruction of an educator's professional narrative (Mitchell & Sackney 2000). In other words, the process of deconstruction engages educators in reflective practice which leads to build their personal capacity/development.

## **5.7 Chapter summary**

This chapter discussed five main themes including three sub-themes relevant to the first and second research questions (RQ1, RQ2) of this study. The key research finding explored in this chapter revealed that primary headteachers' continuing professional development lacked a systematic approach. In other words, headteachers' CPD lacked a "thoughtful planning"

(Guskey, 2002) as it was not grounded in inquiry or reflection (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995) rather adhocism appeared to be a common practice. A systematic approach to CPD employs a reflective practice right from the initial planning stage to impact stage (Scales et al., 2011). It is argued that engaging in reflective practice can reveal inconsistencies between the planned and the actual outcome of a CPD activity which enables the individuals to reconstruct their professional narratives which results in enhanced professional practice (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). It appeared that some of the English headteachers interviewed during this study were involved in reflective practice which informed their CPD activities while others implemented a quick fix approach to find immediate solutions to solve problems. On the other side, within the second context of this study, a majority of the Punjabi headteachers did not mention anything in particular about their reflective practice. However, it does not imply that they never engage in reflection. Some of the headteachers from Punjab explained that they learn from their mistakes, for example when they got stuck with a particular task, they did it again and again until they got it right. They learned things by repeating the process which involved reflection on action (Kolb, 2015). This study revealed that although there was not equal proportion of numbers of female and male headteachers in the context of Punjab, the gender did not seem to have a significant impact on their perspectives in respect of CPD. However, the study identified issues related to raising funds. For example, one of the female headteachers during focus group 2 commented that it was hard to raise funds for Punjabi female headteachers in particular because it was not considered respectful in Punjabi culture (see section 7.5).

This study found variations in headteachers' perceptions of their CPD. It was found that not all the headteachers interviewed in this study were in favour of an organised CPD because they were under huge pressure due to their workloads. In addition, lack of time, resources, school context and inadequate school funding seemed to be among key factors influencing their attitudes towards their CPD. In particular, inadequate funding was one of the key issues of concern for primary schools in the English context and this was enough to demotivate the headteachers to plan their CPD. In Punjab, in addition to lack of resources and inadequate funding, unavailability of CPD courses in leadership and development appeared to be the key factor influencing their attitude towards CPD. In other words, school leadership development is relatively a new phenomenon in the state of Punjab.

The research findings revealed that Punjabi headteachers never had training on Leadership and

Management. Nevertheless, during their ETT (Elementary Teacher Training) diploma they studied one chapter on school management which helped them to develop their basic theoretical knowledge. This study also found that the senior management teams responsible for headteachers' professional development in schools, for example governing bodies (GBs) in English schools and school management committees (SMCs) in Punjabi schools also influence headteachers' CPD. This study revealed that effective governing body had a positive influence on headteachers' CPD and a governing body lacking expertise and skills was not able to provide appropriate guidance to headteachers in relation to their CPD. It is argued that a radical shift in school governing bodies' capacity, knowledge, and attitude is required if they are to exercise effective leadership and to meet obligatory requirements (Eddy-Spicer et al., 2019). Further, this study suggested that various forms of professional learning such as networking and peer-learning, online courses, on-the-job training played an important role in developing headteachers' competence. Within the given context of this study, combining these forms of CPD may help in designing a systematic approach to professional learning of the headteachers.

## **Chapter 6: Primary headteachers' CPD and impact evaluation**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses findings relevant to the third research question of this study: what impact do professional development activities undertaken by headteachers have on their approach to school leadership? How are these impacts measured and by whom? While impact evaluation is considered to be an important aspect of professional development (Guskey, 2009; Muijs, Day, Harris & Lindsay, 2004; Sabah, Fayez, Alshamrani & Mansour, 2014), it is often neglected within schools (Bubb & Earley, 2007). Impact evaluation is regarded as a problematic process (Bolam & McMahon, 2004; Rhodes et al., 2004), hence it is rarely carried out by implementing a systematic approach (Muijs & Lindsay, 2008). The researchers (Bolam & McMahon, 2004) identified that most of the evaluation studies rely on educators' perceptions and there is a paucity of research which makes reference to impact on school educators' behaviour or learning outcomes (Wayne, Yoon, Zhu, Cronen & Garet, 2008). There continues to be an urgent need for evaluation that focused on the CPD outcomes and impact on educators' professional practice (Bolam & McMahon, 2004). The impact of the CPD activities on educators' professional practice needs to be evaluated in order to provide evidence-based recommendations for further improvement (Makopoulou, 2018). The findings in this chapter agree with Bolam and McMohan (2004) and Makopoulou (2018) as it proposes that if primary headteachers' CPD practice has to be enhanced, an impact evaluation methodology needs to be embedded in CPD planning.

This chapter argues that school headteachers in both contexts (UK and India) lack a systematic approach to evaluate the impact of their continuing professional development (CPD) activities. A systematic approach implies a focused, thoughtful, and intentional process (Guskey, 2002). It appeared from this study that headteachers lack appropriate expertise or adequate tools to carry out evaluation of their CPD. Majority of the headteachers in this study relied on their perceptions (Bolam & McMahon, 2004), subjective impressions, anecdotes or simple measuring tools (Earley & Porritt, 2014; Ofsted, 2010 ) while discussing the impact of their CPD on their approach to school leadership. This does not imply that subjective impressions and anecdotes do not illuminate evidence, but they cannot be substitute for evidence (Duke, 2008 as cited in Guskey, 2009). In order to accumulate valid and trustworthy evidence of the effectiveness of the headteachers' CPD, a meaningful and scientifically defensible approach needs to be in place (Guskey, 2009). It implies that the starting point in planning any CPD

activity must be a serious discussion about “negotiating specific goals” (aims and objectives) to form a “joint enterprise” (action plan) (Wenger, 1998). The CPD goals could be negotiated by engaging in “internal” and “external search” (reflection) (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000) (see chapter 3: theoretical framework for Wenger’s ‘joint enterprise’ and Mitchell & Sackney’s ‘internal search’ and ‘external search’).

This chapter also argues that the haphazard planning of English headteachers’ CPD activities may contribute to hinder the process of impact evaluation. In other words, as this study suggests, English headteachers often implemented a fragmented/piecemeal approach to plan their CPD activity to meet National Policy objectives or School Development Plan needs which consequently leaves them with less time to incorporate a careful consideration for the planning process. According to Guskey (2009) a thoughtful planning for professional development is crucial as it enables the school leaders to clarify goals as well as to decide the forms of evidence that best reflect their achievement (impact) in relation to their CPD activities. Arguably, the school leaders who are forced to implement multiple education reforms simultaneously often rush through their CPD planning process hoping to find new ideas for immediate improvements in their respective schools (Guskey, 2009).

The chapter discusses how the CPD providers’/facilitators’ inadequacy might influence learning outcomes and impact evaluation of headteachers’ professional development. It appears from the findings that the CPD facilitators in both contexts of this study did not consider the contextual and processual factors (Sambrook 2002; 2005) while planning the CPD activities or courses for headteachers. In relation to the third research question (RQ3) of this study, while contextual factors involve headteacher’s personal professional development needs, contexts of their schools, processual factors are concerned with the content and delivery method of CPD. It was identified that CPD facilitators did not leave sufficient time for reflection and they did not have a rigorous process of impact evaluation in place. It appeared that the CPD providers lacked a thoughtful planning for professional learning (Guskey, 2009).

This chapter argues that if the CPD providers/facilitators have to enhance their practice, they need to analyse both the “curriculum” (content of CPD) (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000) and the approaches they use to deliver headteachers’ professional development (Makopoulou, 2018). The CPD facilitators require a particular set of skills to support, nurture and, challenge professional learning, hence an analysis of their own practice will enable them to identify their

development needs and the specific support they require to implement these skills effectively (Makopoulou, 2018). Poekert (2011) seemed to support this idea by arguing that having a closer look at CPD providers' "pedagogy of facilitation" offers insights into the challenges and dilemmas encountered during the CPD events which could provide a guidance on the design and delivery of future CPD for maximum impact.

This chapter categorises the findings from this study into four main themes: (i) Headteachers' CPD and impact evaluation (ii) Inefficacy of impact measurement tools (iii) Headteachers' perceptions of CPD providers' practices (iv) Structured CPD and its impact.

## **6.2 Headteachers' CPD and impact evaluation**

It appeared from the findings that the impact of CPD activities undertaken by the primary headteachers in both contexts was low and minimal. The reason for this seemed to be the lack of appropriate evaluation methodology. In other words, the headteachers lacked skills and effective tools to measure the impact of their CPD activities. Guskey (2002) suggests that impact evaluation do not have to be complicated, however it needs a thoughtful planning. A thoughtful planning involves the ability to ask good questions about CPD activity and basic understanding to find valid answers which could be used to make responsible decisions about professional development processes and effects (Guskey, 2002). This theme aims to understand primary headteachers' CPD assessment practice in reference to Guskey's (2002) model of CPD evaluation. Guskey's (2002) model of impact evaluation is considered a comprehensive framework as it enables multilayered assessment of the CPD activities (Bolam & McMahon, 2004) and it is particularly developed for the CPD in schools (Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011). According to Guskey (2002) an effective CPD evaluation requires consideration of five critical levels of information which are: Level 1: participants' reactions, Level 2: participants' learning, Level 3: organisational support and change, Level 4: participants' use of new knowledge and skills and Level 5: student learning outcome (see section 2.8).

When English headteachers were asked about the impact of their CPD activities on their approach to leadership, following responses were recorded during interviews:

*It helps me to improve my personal and professional skills as a school leader. It helps me to keep up to date with national agendas, curriculum development and Ofsted.*

Headteacher 1, Midlands, female

HT1 (above) while explaining the impact of her CPD activities referred to level 2 and 1 of Guskey's model of CPD evaluation. Guskey's level 2 focuses on collecting data on participant's learning and level 1 involves participant's reaction to CPD experience. She explained that her CPD helped her in both improving her skills as a school leader and updating her knowledge on specific topics (level 2). However, her explanation lacked specifying "indicators" (Guskey, 2002) such as how her personal and professional skills were improved and what evidence could validate it. It appeared that her CPD activities were not thoughtfully planned (Guskey, 2009) by adhering to contemporary models of professional learning as suggested by Boylan et al. (2018) (see section 2.8).

When HT2 (below) asked about the CPD impact he had on his approach to school leadership, he referred to research studies about the impact of one day training. It appeared that one day training had low and minimal impact on school headteacher as that learning cannot be implemented in his school effectively. However, headteacher did not indicate what exactly hindered or minimised the implementation of his new professional learning and the impact of CPD into his school respectively.

*What the research shows, the impact of such training (having a day away from school) back in school is very low very minimal to be honest. Because you spend a whole day and you bring just a couple of things that you might think doing in your school. You might do one of those of things in your school and tend to carry on the same practice.*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The HT2 (below) continued explaining the impact of CPD activities by giving an example of his staff. He explained how observing teachers from other schools impacted one of his staff's professional practice positively. He seemed to refer to level 1 and 2 of Guskey's model while explaining impact of his staff's CPD on her professional practice. He commented "*staff observed the other staff...(level1), and tried same thing in her classroom and it really worked positively (level 2)*". It appeared from the both examples from HT2 (above and below) that professional learning through networking/Networks of Practice (Brown & Duguid, 2000) has more impact on school educators as compared to one day formal training.

*The staff go to other schools and observe teaching others, they come very positively. The immediate impact can be seen on their practice. For example, one of my staffs went*



*to other school and observed the other staff there and tried the same thing in her classroom and it really worked positively. That is a kind of impact you wouldn't necessarily see someone going for a course and coming back to their school.*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The HT3 (below) explained his impact evaluation strategy. It appeared that this headteacher was a self-motivated and self-directed learner who engaged in an ongoing reflection on his CPD activities in order to enhance his professional practice to benefit everyone in his school.

*I am quite a direct person, I will come back [from CPD training] and make it happen [put new learning into practice]. If I think these things can work for our school I come and write an action plan and share with my deputy and my other senior leaders. I am quite open to learning new things and try them into my school. These types of training which are purposeful have an impact on my role as a headteacher and on the quality of education of the children.*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The HT3 (below) continued explaining how his CPD activities impact his professional practice. This headteacher appeared to refer to almost all the levels (1-5) of Guskey's CPD evaluation. For instance, he explained (below) how he felt about the CPD event such as "*I think it is a waste of time*" (level 1: participant's reaction). He also mentioned (above) that "*I come and write an action plan and share with my deputy and my other senior leaders*" (level 2: participant's learning & level 3: organisational support and change). The headteacher (below) further explained how his analysis of conversations and discussions enhanced his knowledge and skills which ultimately helps him to implement his CPD learning into practice to improve the quality of education of children in his school (level 4: participants' use of new knowledge and skills & level 5: student learning outcome). The HT3 (below) explained how the context of his school influenced the impact of his CPD activities. In other words, his school had a unique context in terms of culture, size, location, human resources, and financial sources, hence what worked in other schools might not have worked in his school.

*Sometimes, I go for training which cannot work in our school and doesn't link to priorities of our school, then I think it is a waste of my time and I don't think they are necessarily impactful, so it depends. The purposeful and useful training do impact where you are able to have conversations and discussions. You know, every school is*

*different and if you go and see a training, it is never 100% that I can do the same in my school and what other head is doing and put that in place in my school. It just doesn't work so it's having have that analysis of the conversations and ideas taking away, looking at it differently and thinking about it and analysing and coming with ideas how then we put in place in our school have necessarily an impact.*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The HT4 (below) discussed how involving in networking/communities of practice (CoP) (Wenger, 1998) impacted his professional practice as a school leader. He seemed to refer to level 1 which involves participant's reaction about the CPD experience and level 2 of Guskey's model which focuses on measuring the knowledge and skills that a participant gained during CPD activities. For example, the headteacher explained that his knowledge and professional skills were improved while engaging in professional conversations with his colleagues concerning real issues in their schools (level 2). He regarded this CPD activity very good, helpful, and effective (level 1).

*I arrange my CPD activities and these activities help me to improve my knowledge, understanding and professional practice as a headteacher. I would say networking is very very good. We learn from each other. We share effective practice and we have professional conversations. For instance, if we are facing issue in our school and we know someone has dealt with it efficiently...so that sharing of knowledge and good practice is very helpful.*

Headteacher 4, Midlands, female

The HT6 (below) explained how attending a CPD course namely Becoming Your School's Resident Inspector impacted his approach to school leadership. It appeared that the headteacher engaged in "internal search" (Mitchell & Sackeny, 2000) to plan his CPD activity. From an educator's perspective, the term "internal search" involves reflecting on own professional practice to identify what specific aspects of learning needs to be renewed (Mitchell & Sackeny, 2000). As HT6 (below) commented "*I will pick something that is really going to help me...*" Also, he appeared to refer to level 2 and 5 of Guskey's model of evaluation while explaining the impact of CPD activity had on his professional learning. As he commented that his understanding about new Ofsted Inspection Framework was enhanced as a result of a CPD course (level 2: participant's learning) which ultimately helped him to retain good status of his school during Ofsted inspection (level 5: student learning outcome).

*I will pick something that is really going to help me so going for course for example being on School's Resident Inspector was really really helpful as it gave me good understanding of how an inspector works, what they're gonna be looking at it's going to about progress, progress in the lesson and obviously then the impact was on we had on our inspection in November and we got very strong inspection result. We retained our good status...we remained good school and our Ofsted inspection reads very very positively. It reads almost as an outstanding report, so yeah it has certain impacts.*

Headteacher 6, Midlands, male

The following are the responses recorded during the interviews with the Punjabi headteachers (HT1, HT4, HT5, HT10, HT11& HT13) while explaining the impact of their formal CPD activities on their approach to school leadership.

On being asked about the impact the formal CPD had on her approach to school leadership, HT1 (below) seemed to refer to level 2 of Guskey's model. However, she did make use of indicators or attributes to show attainment of her specific learning through CPD activities as advocated by Guskey (2002). The headteacher commented:

*My school has good results. We are running nursery very well in our school although we have limited resources. This is what the system expects from a headteacher.*

Headteacher 1, Punjab, female

The HT4 & HT5 (below) appeared to refer to level 1 and 2 of Guskey's model. They both explained about their learning experience and knowledge they gained during CPD activities.

*In one way I would say that it helps me to improve my school result as my staff and I learned innovative ways of teaching our students during these trainings. I learn from my other colleagues as well when they share their ideas and show their prepared TLMs.*

Headteacher 4, Punjab, female

*This training is not much relevant to a headteacher's role. It does help me to improve my teaching skills which also is a part of my job role. But it is not impactful for a headteacher's role.*

Headteacher 5, Punjab, female

The HT10 appeared to refer to level 1 and 3 of Guskey's model. She explained what she found useful in CPD training (level 1) and also realised that implementation of this learning was not possible in her school as her school lacked sufficient resources and money to support her in leading change (level 3).

*I do not think that they [three days seminar] are impactful. Yes, this training can be impactful if we are able to implement it in our schools. But it is not possible as we are lacking resources, time, funding and sufficient training. Practically they are not very useful.*

Headteacher 10, Punjab, female

The HT11 & HT13 referred to level 1 while explaining the impact of their CPD on their professional practice. They explained that this training was not impactful in relation to their role as a school headteacher.

*To be honest, the current mandatory training is not impactful for a headteacher's job role. However, it is good for new teachers.*

Headteacher 11, Punjab, female

*It is a good question. I really need to think about the impact of this training on me as a headteacher. This training is not relevant to my job role as a headteacher of a primary school.*

Headteacher 13, Punjab, male

### **6.3 Inefficacy of impact measurement tools**

CPD impact measurement tools refer to the various methods employed by the primary headteachers to measure the impact of their CPD activities on their professional practice within this study. A measurement tool must show the attainment of specific learning (Guskey, 2002). In other words, the CPD impact evaluation requires use of some indicators or attributes to elucidate the degree and quality of professional learning. When headteachers were asked how they measured the impact of their CPD activity on their approach to school leadership, majority of the headteachers of this study relied on their perceptions, subjective impressions, anecdotes or simple measuring tools (Bolam & McMahon, 2004; Earley & Porritt, 2014; Ofsted, 2010) and few headteachers made use of indicators or attributes to show their attainment of specific learning outcomes. Following are the responses recorded from HT1, HT3, HT5 & HT7 from the Midlands:

*My school has an **effective leadership team**, my school continues to be good with **good results and good behaviour of staff and children** (original emphasis).*

Headteacher 1, Midlands, female

*We obviously have the **data analysis for the children**, we constantly assess the actions of the senior leadership team against them [pupil data]. We also have the **Ofsted framework** to assess the impact of the leadership team, but I think it is always hard to drill it down that what actually this specific training or course that impact. **I think as long as the impact is happening overall and things are going as your class is coming up and that a kind of feeling that things are improving so that's a sign so that's how we measure through the quality assurance and School Improvement Partners through the pupils' data**, through and if the quality of the teaching is improving in the school, if the engagement of children is improving, parental engagement is improving those sorts of aspects will help how we measure. It's a cumulative approach to measure (original emphasis).*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

*A part of the training I think you need to do, to meet your Safeguarding requirements, you need to ensure that **you are prepared for Ofsted and once those boxes are ticked, that's it, that is the impact that to tick those boxes**. So for example, I am the official school safety officer, so it's all to do with Health and Safety, so I need to revisit my training every two years because we have to audit it every two years and one of the questions is, **has the designated safety officer undergone training?...tick...yes...so that's one way of measuring impact**. I get the result from the audit and it shows that yes I have done it and with good for another two years. Second is pupil data and [questions] is the progress of the children continuing? **Are children continuing to attain at a level which is expected? And if so then...tick...and anything else is on paper honestly. Is the data showing what I want to show progress...and are boxes being ticked...yes..(laughed)** (original emphasis).*

Headteacher 5, Midlands, male

***Performance Management** meetings with the governors annually and then I draw it against, so **I've got a grid and I provide the evidence against the National Standards** so that's robust programme and our objectives set, have I met the objectives follow the last year. So for instance, reading was an issue two years ago so we put a lot in and reading has improved so that shows that the training I had and the leadership I'm*

*giving has had a positive impact on them, and governors scrutinise my evidence and also staff questionnaires. So sometimes if I've been on training, I then train them and I get evaluations back from them* (original emphasis). Headteacher 7, Midlands, female

The data extracts above revealed that the impact of CPD activities was measured by employing simple measurement tools such as providing evidence against National Standards of Excellence for Headteachers (HT7), ticking boxes against Ofsted framework during inspections (HT5), analysing pupil data (HT3, HT5), monitoring staff and students' performance (HT3). The HT1 seemed to rely on her perceptions or subjective impressions to measure the impact of her CPD activities. She explained that she had an effective leadership team in her school, but she did not explain what she meant by an "effective leadership team". She further added that her school had "*good results and good behaviour of staff and children*" without explaining explicitly what she meant by *good result* and *good behaviour*. From a methodological perspective, this is "poor source of data" (Guskey, 2002) which might be unreliable and inconsistent. It appeared from this study that headteachers are required to have a record of their CPD activities in order to tick boxes during school inspections and the quality and impact of those activities may not matter.

Following are the responses recorded from the research participants from the context of Punjab. During the interviews and focus groups, it was identified that the impact of Punjabi headteachers' CPD activities was measured by inspection teams. The data from HT2 & HT9 (below) revealed that the inspection officers paid surprise visits to observe whether primary headteachers and other teachers performing in line with education system's requirements. The measurement tools used by inspection officers were writing reports about the headteachers' performance in school.

*Inspection team come to observe whether we are putting our learning into practice in our schools. For example, during seminars we are trained how to teach students by using creative and interactive methods and we are expected to teach students by using those teaching techniques. **If we are doing what is expected by the system, we are given a positive report** and if we are doing something else, we will be in trouble. It is all about following education policy trends* (original emphasis). Headteacher 2, Punjab, female  
*We have District level inspections by DEO/ BMT/ CMT and their teams. The **inspection team can interview the student to check whether the teacher is employing creative***

*methods of teaching as recommended and whether student can understand what their teachers teach in the class* (original emphasis). Headteacher 9, Punjab, male

The data extract (below) from a focus group with CPD team members confirmed the information revealed by HT2 & HT9 (above) in relation to measuring the impact of their CPD activities. During Focus Group 1, one of the members (CPD team member 1) commented:

*When training sessions are finished, we (my colleagues and I) have the responsibility to check whether the staff is putting the learned knowledge during training into practice in their own classrooms. We receive instructions from the State Secretary School Education Mr Krishan Kumar. We go for inspections in state primary schools. Most of the times we pay surprised visit to the schools. We write reports and send to the officials in the Department of Education* (original emphasis).

Focus group 1, Punjab, male

#### **6.4 Headteachers' perceptions of CPD providers' practices**

This theme deals with primary headteachers' perceptions of the CPD providers' practice or facilitators in both contexts of the study. It appeared from the research that there were inconsistencies in the practice of the CPD providers in the English context of this study. Some of the CPD providers seemed to possess expertise to support headteachers' professional learning while others lacked appropriate competence and skills. The inconsistencies in practice among CPD providers may affect impact evaluation of CPD activities. For example, during the interviews, when asked about the quality of the CPD providers/facilitators research participants from the Midlands (HT5, HT6, HT2, HT7) replied as following:

*[quality of CPD facilitators] very very mixed, very very hidden, sometimes they can be really accurate to the point, meaningful, and worthwhile and on another occasion you can think what a waste of time that has been, it really didn't relate to what I was expecting. So, some...most of them are very good and some of them can be a waste of time.* Headteacher 5, Midlands, male

The above example of HT5 indicates that the quality of CPD providers was inconsistent. This is evident from the various attributes he made use of to exhibit the quality CPD providers such as "accurate", "to the point", "meaningful", "worthwhile", "waste of time" and "didn't relate

to what I was expecting”. The HT5 (below) continued explaining his experience of attending a training namely Prevent and the Prevent Strategy. He described why this training was a waste of time for him.

*Let me think of a recent example where I came away thinking what a waste of my time. There was a recent Safeguarding meeting led by Leicestershire County Council...I thought it was going to be about Prevent and the Prevent Strategy...I was there and they kept talking well...lot of the subject matter was on physical abuse, mental abuse, sexual abuse, and neglect and there was only a small part of it which related to Prevent or anti-radicalistaion...I was hoping to get more from this Prevent Training. But suppose I've just spent ten minutes on it after three hours and I didn't need all of the previous information...so on the flyer, the information really did have Prevent as its main priority but there was only ten minutes spent on it. I was quite disappointed about that and it cost £50. We don't have a huge amount of cash, so I think it was £50 wasted.*

Headteacher 5, Midlands, male

It appeared from the example (above) that the CPD provider even after collecting a huge amount of money failed to meet headteacher's needs and expectations which made him frustrated. He explained that there was a misalignment between promised outcome of the training and actual delivery of the content. As he commented “*so on the flyer, the information really did have Prevent as its main priority but there was only ten minutes spent on it*”. The headteacher did not mention anything about feedback or evaluation during Prevent Training. It seemed that the CPD provider undermined the contextual and processual factors (Sambrook 2002; 2005) while designing the CPD activity. In other words, the CPD provider implemented “one size fits all” strategy for leadership development training. It failed to conduct CPD participants' needs analysis (learning needs, priorities and styles) which might result in inappropriate CPD content, instructional method and impact evaluation. From Geldenhuys and Oosthuizen's (2015) perspective, for the CPD to be effective the CPD providers need to choose the “right content” in accordance with CPD participants' “priorities and needs”.

The HT6 (below) explained about his positive as well as negative experience of training with different CPD providers. On one occasion he found CPD training to be excellent and of high quality and on the other occasion he identified that it was not up to standard.



*I went through an organisation called B Eleven Education, and I did a course with them last year as I said how to be your School's Resident Inspector. That was an excellent course. It was delivered by inspector and the quality of CPD was very high. Equally I have attended some more regional training, you know the quality is not necessarily great...variations can be seen between providers. The quality varies depending on what course you go on.*

Headteacher 6, Midlands, male

The comments (below) by HT2 appeared to be similar to the comments made by HT5 (above) about the misalignment between the promised outcome and the actual delivery. It appeared that both headteachers (HT2 and HT5) were enticed to book the CPD activities by training advertisements of the CPD providers which resulted in their resentment.

*Anybody can sell training and that is the difficult thing. Myself and my deputy around twelve or fourteen months ago, we booked a glossy advert training and thought this is what we need we ended up in a very small room in a hotel with other four people and it became very clear straight away that it wasn't what we expected. So, there is always that danger.*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The HT6 (below), however shared a different perspective from the headteachers above (HT5, HT6, HT2) about the CPD providers/facilitators. She commented that “*I'm glad to say that we haven't had one trainer who has been disappointing*”. This headteacher explained that she tended to do lots of research, read reviews and communicate with her staff and colleagues regarding the quality of CPD facilitators and the impact of CPD activities. It seemed that this headteacher invested a considerable time to plan her CPD activities in order to make it impactful and effective.

*We've had a world class person called Pie Corbett to come and deliver the training for talk for writing...he is internationally renowned and recognised for the impact of his programme he has on children's writing, the positive impact...So we know that's going to be excellent training. So usually, I always go by word of mouth and recommendation...I'm glad to say that we haven't had one trainer who has been disappointing. So that's good. I do research and find about them and obviously read reviews about them too.*

Headteacher 7, Midlands, female

Following are the responses recorded from the Punjabi headteachers regarding their perceptions of the mandatory CPD provided by the state project namely “Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab”. It appeared from headteacher’s (HT13) (below) response that the mandatory CPD was of less value for a headteacher’s role in the contemporary era of advanced technology. It seemed that the CPD provider employed a top-down approach to deliver CPD activities which failed to conduct needs analysis of the CPD participants. For instance, the headteachers may be in need of professional training on operating computers and digital apps in schools to meet internal (teaching-learning) and external (updating online school profiles) needs. During the interview, the HT13 commented:

*The mandatory training provided by Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab is not sufficient for a headteacher’s role in the modern era of advanced technology. This training is good for learning new teaching techniques...The training members BMTs (Block Master Trainers) and CMTs (Cluster Master Trainers) are given state level training in Chandigarh. They deliver the same training for the primary HTs and ATs at district level. They are not allowed to make any changes in the topics and objectives.*

Headteacher 13, Punjab, male

The HT7 (below) expressed issues of concern relevant to headteachers’ voice and workloads in addition to confirming a top down approach employed by the CPD facilitators while delivering mandatory CPD. It appeared from the study that headteachers did not want to raise their voice against inadequate training provided due to two reasons. The first reason appeared to be a lack of mutual understanding and professional bonding among headteachers and the second seemed to have heavy workload which demotivated them to demand and attend professional learning training. During the interview, the HT7 commented:

*The topics [content] are set by the officials in the Department of School Education. We have no involvement in it. As I mentioned earlier, many of us do not raise our voice because there is no unity among primary headteachers. Many of us actually do not want to attend this mandatory training also due to the workload we have. This is also one of the reasons that they do not suggest anything. Because they know, they cannot manage to attend extra training. So, they prefer to get their work done by other sources such as their colleagues, friends, and family. But there are some who really want to learn and improve their knowledge and skills to do their jobs efficiently.*

The comments from CPD Team Member1 (below) seems to confirm the remarks of HT13 and HT7 (above) by stating that CPD content was stipulated by the top officials and the facilitators (CPD team members) were not allowed to make any changes under any circumstances although they were permitted to add supplementary teaching learning materials to deliver the content. During observations it was identified that the CPD team members utilised readymade Power Point Slides to deliver training sessions and they strictly followed fixed time schedules. One of the CPD team members (CPD team member 1) commented (below) “*We are given readymade slides and fixed time schedules... We have to strictly follow the protocol*”.

*We are not allowed to make any changes. We cannot modify this training in accordance with headteachers’ needs or school contexts. We are given readymade slides and fixed time schedules. We cannot change topics (content/aims/objectives). We have to strictly follow the protocol. However, we can add supplementary TLMs [teaching learning materials] to deliver these trainings.*

Focus group 1, Punjab, male

In substance, this theme indicated that the CPD providers in both contexts tend to implement top down approach to design and deliver the CPD activities which undermines the process of needs analysis of participants which ultimately affect the impact evaluation of CPD activities. In other words, the contextual and processual factors (Sambrook, 2002; 2005) seemed to be ignored while developing CPD “curriculum” for the primary headteachers. For the CPD to be effective, the CPD “curriculum” might involve various aspects of headteachers’ development such as personal, interpersonal, and relational (Day, 2003; Mitchell & Sackney, 2000) appropriate pedagogy of facilitation (Poekert, 2011) and strategy of impact evaluation (Guskey, 2002).

### **6.5 Structured CPD and its impact**

This theme discusses how a structured CPD influenced headteachers’ professional learning and practice. Within the context of this study, a structured CPD refers to standard-based or award bearing qualifications such as the NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship). A majority of English headteachers interviewed possessed a formal qualification namely the NPQH and regarded as impactful. The NPQH was the first formal leadership qualification for school heads introduced in England by the Labour government in 1997 (Bush, 2008) and it

became mandatory for the new heads in 2009 but reverted to optional status in 2012 (Bush, 2013). While sharing their experience of the NPQH qualification, headteachers (HT3, HT2, HT4, HT7) during the interviews explained as following:

*I did my NPQH that had a huge impact on me, as a person, as a headteacher, I would say because when I did, we went away for long residential and it was like two-three days of talking to people who were likeminded while hearing the presenters and others. It may be, it was a lot about reflections because you have the competences you have to meet to be a headteacher. It made me think very differently so every time I would come back to my school...*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The HT3 explained about the positive impact of the NPQH being a professional. It appeared that the NPQH was impactful due to its interactive approach to learning and teaching, for example it included professional conversations with colleagues and experts and reflective activities. He continued explaining (below) why structured CPD delivered by National College were purposeful, beneficial, and impactful for a headteacher's role than any other form of CPD training.

*I would say National College type of training I found really purposeful and really beneficial especially when it was delivered by those people who have done their roles, and especially when you make sure you reflect as a person how would you do as a leader. That was what impacted me the most on my role as a headteacher than anything else [other forms of training].*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The HT2 and HT4 (below) put the NPQH on the list of a quality CPD. The HT2 mentioned "One of the reasons I did my NPQH qualification was I didn't feel I was getting any quality CPD" and the HT4 stated as "it [NPQH] was a kind of quality CPD and great experience of learning". The key features, which made the NPQH impactful, might be skilful facilitators, peer-learning, networking, and reflective activities.

*One of the reasons I did my NPQH qualification was I didn't feel I was getting any quality CPD, and I thought it would be really a very good training which would equip me to be a headteacher, and would give me access to some high quality of speakers and so on.*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

*I did my NPQH before I joined as a headteacher, it was a kind of quality CPD and great experience of learning. One of the best features of the NPQH was networking. It was a great opportunity to learn from other headteachers. I would say I learned a lot from my colleagues, and I implemented a lot of things into my school and improved practice. But now the NPQH is not required, it's not mandatory to be a headteacher, it's worth doing...*

Headteacher 4, Midlands, female

The HT7, however, shared a different perspective from her colleagues above (HT3, HT2, HT4) about the NPQH. It appeared that she did this qualification because it was mandatory to be a headteacher. She commented that doing the NPQH was a pleasing experience, but she was unsure how the NPQH prepared her for a headteacher's role. She commented: *"I was really pleased with that training. I am not sure whether it fully prepared me for the everyday life of a headteacher"*. She further added *"I don't think that [NPQH] really helped me..."*

*It was compulsory for headteacher to secure the NPQH. So I embarked on that because I was passionate to become a headteacher, it was something I'd always aspired to and the Welsh government paid for that and it was around £3000 so that was free to me and within a couple of months of my qualifying I became a headteacher. So, I was really pleased with that training. I am not sure whether it fully prepared me for the everyday life of a headteacher, but certainly I put a lot into it. I did a lot of research, I did a lot of reading, so that helped me but the practical decision making on a daily basis in the role of headteacher, I don't think that really helped me...*

Headteacher 7, Midlands, female

## **6.6 Chapter summary**

This chapter discussed research findings relevant to the third research question (RQ3) of this study. There were four main themes identified associated with RQ3: (i) headteachers' CPD and impact evaluation (ii) inefficacy of impact measurement tools (iii) headteachers' perceptions of CPD providers' practices (iv) structured CPD and its impact. The research findings revealed that the impact of current CPD practices among headteachers in both contexts was very low or minimal. In order to make the CPD impact evaluation effective Guskey (2002) emphasised reversing the order of five critical levels of professional development evaluation while planning a CPD activity. It appeared that headteachers due to their workloads were not able to invest sufficient amount of time in planning their CPD activities. In other words, they might not have

engaged in reflective practice which could help them to deconstruct their professional practice. Deconstruction of one's professional practice leads to reconstruction. It is argued that the action of deconstruction helps individuals to identify area of improvements in their professional practice (Guskey, 2002; Mitchell & Sackney, 2001) which could be developed by engaging in active professional learning.

Another key finding suggested that the headteachers lacked appropriate measurement tools or expertise to evaluate the impact of their CPD on their professional practice. Majority of the headteachers while discussing the impact of their CPD relied on their personal perceptions, subjective impressions or simple measuring tools. This finding is in line with Earley and Porritt's (2014) research in which they mentioned that much evaluation of professional development by school leaders is impressionistic, anecdotal, and focused on simple measures. This study revealed that the CPD providers/facilitators in both contexts tend to employ a top-down approach to deliver the CPD training and CPD impact evaluation, and participants' needs analysis process were usually skipped or undermined. It implies that they overlook the contextual and processual factors while designing the CPD courses and activities (Sambrook 2002; 2005). McCauley and Palus (2020, p.1) seemed to support this idea by adding that "leadership development programs overlook context and teach leadership as if one size fits all". Arguably, Parker and Patton (2017) recommend the CPD facilitators to employ a bottom-up or participant-centred approach to create a nourishing environment for professional learning. A bottom-up approach to CPD reflects a constructivist aspect of learning which views learning as a process of knowledge construction, deconstruction and reconstruction rather than as a linear or straightforward process of learning (Patton, Parker & Neutzling, 2012). Finally, this study revealed that gaining NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) (structured CPD) had a positive impact on headteachers' professional practice. The NPQH was regarded as a quality CPD by some of the headteachers. It appeared that networking, professional conversations, and reflective practice were the key features which made this qualification impactful for the primary school headteachers in the English context. It should be noted that no specific professional qualification relevant to headteacher's role was identified in the context of Punjab. However, they had the privilege to attend a three-days structured CPD (mandatory training) which was beneficial for headteachers to be instructional leaders as this training aimed to improve pedagogical skills of headteachers and teachers. To conclude, a thoughtful planning of headteachers' CPD by adhering to five impact levels of Guskey (2002) could strengthen the impact evaluation process which might produce valid and trustworthy

evidence for future improvements in designing the CPD programmes (Makopoulou, 2018). The study also suggests that the CPD activities become more impactful if the CPD facilitators employ a constructive or social (Wenger, 1998) approach to plan, deliver, and evaluate (Guskey & Yoon, 2009) the CPD training and courses.

## **Chapter 7: National education policy and primary headteachers' CPD.**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses findings relevant to the fourth research question (RQ4) of this study: how does National Education Policy in the Midlands (England) and in the state of Punjab (India) influence professional development of primary headteachers? The overriding aim of this chapter is to contribute to our knowledge of the impact National Education Policy has on primary headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD) in both the English and Punjabi contexts. This chapter argues that headteachers' CPD in the English context is driven by National Education Policy rather than their personal professional development needs. It implies that headteachers' professional learning is linked to problem solving that is driven by their School Development/Improvement Plan expectations. For instance, if six new policy initiatives are introduced within a year, the headteachers probably would have six CPD activities in order to implement those policy initiatives successfully into their respective schools. Conversely, if no new policy initiative is introduced during an academic year, the headteachers are less likely to have any CPD activity. However, this is not to suggest that they did not consider their CPD serious. Some of the English headteachers expressed that they really wanted an organised CPD, but this was not possible due to their workloads, lack of adequate resources, time, and funding.

Further, this study found that in the context of Punjab, the aims and objectives of primary headteachers' three days formal mandatory training provided on the annual basis was shaped by the National Policy initiatives. For example, this study identified from the research participants that recently new policies were introduced by the government such as all state primary headteachers must organise and run Pre-Primary section in their respective schools. They also needed to use "testing tool" [criteria-based assessment strategy] to assess students' levels of learning. In addition, they were required to use digital apps such as E-content and E-Punjab portal to teach students and update information relevant to their schools respectively. Hence, these formed the main topics of discussion during the three days of formal training. However, this study found that the three days formal training for primary headteachers organised under the state project initiative was inadequate to implement these government policy initiatives due to lack of resources and headteachers' expertise.

These findings are in line with Sambrook's (2002) model of factors influencing learning in



work (see section 3.5). Sambrook (2002) suggests that individuals' learning in work is influenced by three levels of factors and these are organisational, functional, and individual factors. She argues that in order to recognise what hinders or facilitates learning of individuals in an organisation, these factors must be identified. With respect to fourth research question (RQ4), this study revealed that primary headteachers' continuing professional development in both contexts was influenced by functional factors which involved new policy initiatives, resources, time, money, and headteachers' expertise.

This study also identified that these functional factors specifically education policy initiatives had both positive and negative impact on headteachers' professional learning. On the positive side, whenever a new policy initiative was introduced, the school headteachers being accountable for everything in their school were under compulsion to implement it in their respective schools which led them to improve their professional skills. In other words, if they had to survive in their jobs, they had to come out of their comfort zones to find out the ways to fulfil policy demands regardless their school contexts and personal situations they worked in. This could bring out the best out of them as evidenced in this study particularly in the context of Punjab. Conversely, a shifting National Education Policy context could create commotion among headteachers which may have negative impact on their professional learning and well-being. The education systems around the globe are under pressure to deliver high quality education which result in increasing number of education reforms stated Viennet and Pont (2017). A successful implementation of these education reforms and leading change in schools require effective leaders and managers argues Bush (2010). However, effective headteachers do not necessarily have control over all the factors contributing to their school improvement cautioned Crow, Lumby and Pashiardis (2008). This study revealed that primary headteachers in both contexts no matter how skilful and competent they were faced difficulties in implementing education policy in their respective schools when they were bombard with new policy initiatives.

This chapter categorises the findings from this study into four main themes: (i) education policy: a key to lead headteachers' CPD in the context of the Midlands (ii) education policy: a key to shape headteachers' formal CPD in the context of Punjab (iii) National Education Policy: an enhancing factor in professional learning (iv) National Education Policy: an inhibiting factor in professional learning. The following sections will discuss these themes in detail.

## 7.2 Education policy: a key to lead headteachers' CPD in the context of the Midlands

It was identified that the National Education Policy was the key factor to influence headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD) in both contexts of this study. This theme discusses how functional factors, for example, resources, time, money, staff, expertise, new initiatives, and role clarity as proposed by Sambrook (2002) influence primary headteachers' professional learning. Within the context of this study headteachers' CPD was influenced by constant government policy initiatives. Further, this study identified that lack of time due to workloads, insufficient money, inadequate resources, and headteachers own expertise also influence the process of policy implementation in their respective schools. This is evident from the data collected by research participants of this study. Following are the responses of the primary headteachers recorded from the context of the Midlands during the interviews.

On being asked about the influence of the National Education Policy on her CPD practice, an English headteacher expressed her views regarding the changing landscape of the National Education Policy as following:

*Yes, it [National Education Policy] does affect [CPD]. Policy will direct CPD as I gave you an example of Safeguarding training on 25<sup>th</sup> of May this year. Education policy needs stability. Whenever government or political parties change the education policy also changes. There is no stability. If education is separated from politics, education will have more stability. Education is politicised and it is not the case in this country only. It's worldwide... it seems that education is a football and the political leaders are players who play with it.*

Headteacher 1, Midlands, female

The National Education Policy initiatives in this study seem to be the key drivers in leading the CPD of English primary headteachers. This study identified (findings in the previous chapter 5) that English headteachers led on their CPD. There were no provisions of a formal CPD identified similar to their counterparts in the context of Punjab who are required to have a mandatory three days formal training under the state project initiative. The HT1 from the Midlands in the above data extract revealed that education policy may prompt her CPD as she gave an example of Safeguarding training this year. Her statement appeared to manifest resentment towards the political aspect of the National Education Policy which created

commotion among education professionals worldwide. Her disappointment and frustration towards political element of education systems is evident in her statement as she made use of metaphors such as “education is football” and “political leaders are players”.

While expressing his viewpoint of the National Education Policy and its impact on his professional learning as well as on national school system, HT2 from the Midlands stated as follows:

*Obviously, schools are much very driven by standards and what we are measured on is very narrow. It is reading, writing and Maths so a lot of the training will be on reading, writing and Maths. We have seen training much wider than this before. If you go 20 years back in Dudley, you would just pick up phone and you would have an advisor on every subject you would phone for. You could phone someone for Geography and say that I want some support for my year 2 teacher. Can you come and support and then they will come and support. Now they [Local Authority] don't even pick up the phone. The only support now available is for Maths and English assessment. The same thing is with training, they all focus on English and Maths assessment...*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The above extract revealed that headteacher's professional learning was driven by the National Policy objectives which were reading, writing and Maths. For instance, referring to the above example, it seemed that the success and failure of a school and its respective headteacher were determined in accordance with students' learning outcomes and meeting objectives of the National Policy. Hence, this headteacher was expecting to have lots of training in future that would meet the objectives of the National Policy, i.e., English and Maths. This idea of meeting the National Policy objectives could be linked to the concepts of accountability and performativity. As Perryman and Calvert (2020) argue that achieving efficiency in education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century is seen as a “good thing” regardless of the cost to people. Perryman and Calvert (2020) further added that an individual's workload, loss of autonomy, appraisals, lack of personal development and limited participation in decision making are not considered in the prevailing culture of performative accountability of education of 21<sup>st</sup> century. This is evident in the above extract that headteacher's personal development was not a priority rather the aims and objectives of his CPD were set in accordance with his school needs in order to meet the National Policy objectives. Further, the usefulness of the Local Authority (LA) was also

emphasised for being an appropriate form of support that utilised tailor made approach whenever requested by the school headteacher in the past. It should be noted that the role of the Local Authorities in education has changed significantly since the introduction of the Education Reform Act of 1988 and “local management of schools” in the English education system. Hatcher (2014) points out that the policy of “self-improving school system” has put into question the role of the Local Authorities. While the Local Authorities are held responsible by Ofsted for the overall performance of all schools in their area, their capacity to support local schools has been reduced considerably by unprecedented cuts in funding under coalition government policies (Hatcher, 2014) which eventually affected the professional training of headteachers organised by the Local Authorities. In addition, the decline of the Local Authorities resulted in fragmentation of national school system (Simkins, 2015) as various schools take a variety of routes towards academy status which has the potential to loosen their connection with their broader local community.

Similarly, HT3 (below) from the Midlands also highlighted the issue of uncertainty in the education policy due to changing education ministers, and in consequence headteachers were bombarded with new policy initiatives which ultimately impacts their CPD practice.

*I constantly read on twitter about the latest national school news, guidance and new rules come all the time. I sit every night and think what we need to do now and what are we doing...this is all about following Ofsted trends and this is what they look for. The frustration has been recently that there have been so many different education ministers and so many different education policies they will come out and you just start working on that and they change the policy again and I think that impacts significantly all the schools...*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The HT3 from the Midlands continued explaining how the National Education Policy affected his own and other staffs’ CPD in his school:

*I need to make sure that my staff have new guidance on GDPR, and the data protection things we are working a lot today, and the various national trends we do and it does massively influence and what we do massively influences our school self-evaluation, because we do have to look what Ofsted is looking for and you cannot get away from that, and at the end of the day it is going to impact on the training of the staff and other*

*things I need them to do because we do need to tick the boxes sometimes, you know, and yes it does significantly impact how we do things and I would say it impacts on the training I send my SLT [senior leadership team] as well. We need to make sure we are going to attend those training because they are expecting this to happen. We need to make sure that we stay up to date, doing right things and we are not left behind.*

Headteacher 3, Midlands, male

The above example (HT3, the Midlands) indicated the CPD activities of the headteacher and the other staff of his school such as teachers and senior leadership team were greatly shaped by the National Education Policy agendas, for instance the headteacher and the other staff required to have training on the GDPR, Safeguarding. This finding concurs with Bell and Stevenson's (2006) study which suggests that practice of school leadership is influenced and shaped by the wider policy context. They also had to do lots of other preparations for Ofsted inspections. The headteacher seemed to be working under pressure to make sure that he was doing the best to respond to the internal school needs and the external policy objectives. All of these as hinted Tucker (2010) indicates an underlying anxiety that could be a dominant feature among many contemporary school headteachers in the UK.

Another participant (HT6, the Midlands) also explained how the National Education Policy agendas such as well-being at work and Ofsted's new inspection framework had driven his CPD.

*Within our group [development group] we provide support for each other, collaboration with each other and actually that is very important sometimes I think more important than organising CPD. So, there is one conference we organise every year, last year was well-being conference, this year going to be on the curriculum because of the changes in the framework. Ofsted's new framework coming in September focuses on curriculum, behaviour, and development so that would be very useful for my CPD.*

Headteacher 6, Midlands, male

The HT6 from the Midlands continued explaining (see quoted statement below) how the changing National Education Policy context and national political environment in the UK contribute to confusion among educational professionals. He also explained how non-involvement of administration in education protects the Australian national education system

in contrast to the UK. Schneider (2008) argues that education in the UK has been highly politicised and education system is under a constant pressure to perform. Therefore, education in the UK context much looks like a political battlefield.

*...absolutely we are driven by what the national agenda is, unfortunately we are not like Australia I think where, Australia I think the model is government, you know, the administrative don't really get involved in education. Education is separate no matter which government comes in and out, education is protected...the issue we have here is if the Labour gonna come in they're gonna get rid of SATs and do that. If Conservatives in they're gonna do something else, you know, we're constantly flipping back and forth and the agenda is constantly changing. Ofsted, the new HMI inspector Amanda Spielman is very very different to Sir Michael Wilshaw for example. Again, the debate has changed immensely, you know, Michael Wilshaw was about data, data, data... Amanda Spielman actually knows it's not all about data, it's about curriculum. So, the debate has changed. In ten years' time, the debate will change again, so we're very much driven by what the national agenda is.* Headteacher 6, Midlands, male

The above section discussed how the National Education Policy led the English primary headteachers' CPD activities. The following section will shed light on in what ways the National Education Policy in the context of Punjab shaped the aims and objectives of the primary headteachers' three days formal training organised under the state project initiative known as *Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab*.

### **7.3 Education policy: a key to shape headteachers' formal CPD in the context of Punjab**

As this a comparative study of two contexts (the Midlands & the State of Punjab), primary headteachers from the both contexts were interviewed by using similar interview questions. It should be noted that in the context of Punjab, along with interviewing primary headteachers, data was also collected by conducting focus groups with centre headteachers (CHTs) which is another category of headteachers and the CPD team members who are responsible for providing professional training to primary headteachers and teachers of primary state schools of Punjab (see section 4.6). In addition, data was collected by observing three days seminars (formal professional training for Punjabi headteachers provided under the state project initiative).

The research findings from the context of Punjab revealed that all primary headteachers together with their schoolteachers were required to attend a three days formal training organised under the state project initiative on annual basis. The aims and objectives of this training were set on the basis of the National Education Policy rather than on the basis of primary headteachers' professional development needs. In this sense, education policy is a key that shapes the headteachers' CPD in the context of Punjab as this theme suggests.

The total number of primary headteachers interviewed from the context of Punjab was 14. The next section includes the responses recorded from the headteachers of Punjab via interviews. When asked about how the National Education Policy influenced their CPD activities, almost all the headteachers gave similar answers. Below are the responses recorded from HT1, HT2, HT3, HT6, HT11 and HT13.

The HT1 from Punjab (below) explained that the introduction of new government policies such as establishing and running Pre-Primary classes in all state primary schools in the beginning of year 2018, using digital apps such as 'testing tool', 'E-content' and 'E-Punjab portal' had shaped her three days formal training. For example, the main topics of the recent training were organising Pre-Primary classes in state primary schools and using these digital apps. It seemed from her response that headteachers were just provided with policy updates and instructions and guidelines to implement these government initiatives in their respective schools which might not be sufficient

*If there is any new policy introduced by the government, all the primary headteachers and assistant teachers are given training during seminars [three days formal training]. For example, in the beginning of 2018, the government made it compulsory to start a Nursery [pre-primary education] in every state primary school. Now, we are required to use digital apps as well such as 'testing tool' [criteria-based assessment strategy], 'E-content' [online teaching resources] and 'E-Punjab portal' [school's online profile]. We have been given guidelines on how to use these apps during seminars. We were also suggested to have a separate classroom, a toy corner, a doll house, and a collection of charts and rhyme books for Nursery students.*

Headteacher 1, Punjab, female

The response recorded from HT2 (below) was almost similar to the comments made by HT1(above). The HT2 explained how aims and objectives of three days formal training were set to meet recent education policy objectives. She explained that they were given government policy updates and the inadequate training. It appeared from her response that the formal training provided by the system was not sufficient to implement recent policy initiatives in her school.

*It [education policy] does affect the training we are provided with. The aims and objectives of the training [three days seminar] are set on the basis of National Education Policy. As I mentioned before, whenever any new policy initiative is introduced, we are given updates and inadequate training. As I gave you an example of recent initiative of Nursery education in state primary schools and the use of apps, E-content [online teaching resources], E-Punjab portal [school's online profile] and 'testing tool' [criteria-based assessment strategy].* Headteacher 2, Punjab, female

The HT3 explained how education policy shaped her formal training. She said that topics of the formal training were set in accordance with government policy objectives. This headteacher appeared to be resentful as headteachers are not involved while designing their professional training. Consequently, as appeared from her response, the formal training organised under the state project did not meet the professional development needs of the headteachers. In other words, their contextual concerns may not be considered while planning their professional development training. The headteacher seemed demanding a platform where the headteachers could share their issues of concerns they face in their respective schools.

*We were given guidelines on how to organise a Pre-Primary section for students in our schools and how to use digital apps such as E-content, E-Punjab portal and testing tool for students' assessment during seminars organised recently. These topics were selected on the basis of recent government education policy introduced. We don't have any involvement in deciding our own training. I would like to suggest that headteachers must be involved while planning their professional training. We should be given the opportunity to discuss the concerns and issues we are facing in our schools. It can be done by conducting surveys or via open discussions with school headteachers...*

Headteacher 3, Punjab, female



The following response from HT6 also confirmed that the education policy was the key to shape their formal training organised under the state project.

*This training is designed on the basis of education policy initiatives. For example, in addition to Pre-Primary education as I mentioned previously, we are now also required to make use of digital apps such as 'testing tool' and 'E-content' for teaching and learning purposes. During the training [three days seminar], we were given training on how to use them.*

Headteacher 6, Punjab, male

The comments from HT10 (below) like other HTs (above) from Punjab revealed how her formal CPD was shaped by the National Education Policy. From this headteacher's perspective, the implementation of the government initiatives in state primary schools was not possible practically as majority of the headteachers lacked sufficient resources, funding, time, skills, and competence.

*The three days mandatory training is designed according to the changes or amendments in the education policy... for example, we were given policy updates and guidelines to start pre-primary classes in our schools...But as I mentioned earlier, practically this policy cannot be implemented successfully in my school due to lack of resources, funds, and time. I am asked to have a doll house, book corner, charts and toys and so on but how is it possible without money.*

Headteacher 10, Punjab, female

The HT10 continued explaining (below) why the targets set by the system for primary headteachers are unachievable. She also mentioned about the inadequacy of formal training organised under the state project. She also gave a logic why the seniority-based recruitment of headteacher in the context of Punjab could be problematic. The data extract below revealed that when an AT (assistant teacher or schoolteacher) completes 18-20 years of teaching, they are promoted to be headteacher. Although, they gained extensive experience of teaching during their job as a teacher; however, they might feel difficult to change their ways of doing things after so many (18-20) years such as coping with dynamic technologies and all.

*This training is not relevant to a HT's role. HTs are expected to be expert in their field as they have many years of teaching experience. But the system needs to understand that usually ATs are promoted to be headteachers after they complete around 18 to 20*

*years of teaching experience. The modern era is of advanced technology and many of HTs including me are not capable to cope with. It is not easy for everybody to learn computers fast especially when they are in their 50s and above. The system must find other ways to help us. Some of the schools have ICT teachers, but not all the schools have ICT teachers to help HTs.*

Headteacher 10, Punjab, female

This chapter so far discussed how the education policy in both contexts of this study (the Midlands and Punjab) influenced primary headteachers' CPD. The following section will discuss the positive and negative impact of the National Education Policy on headteachers as individuals and their professional learning. Sambrook's (2002) model suggests that an individual's learning in work is influenced by organisational, functional, and individual levels of factors and the same factors could be both the positive and negative features. It implies that these factors could both enhance or inhibit an individual's professional learning.

#### **7.4 National Education Policy: an enhancing factor in professional learning**

This study revealed that the government education policy initiatives have had certain positive impact on the headteachers' professional learning in both contexts. This study found that almost all the headteachers interviewed during this enhanced their professional practice due to policy initiatives introduced by the government, although they implemented a piecemeal approach to their professional development. For instance, as evidenced by the data (see section 7.2), English headteachers attended online training, webinars, conferences, short courses, and had conversations with their colleague headteachers from other schools in order to comply with (Matthews & Smith, 1995) statutory requirements, regulations, and duties of a school headteacher.

Conversely, Punjabi headteachers as research data, from interviews, focus groups, and observations, revealed had the opportunity to attend an organised a three days formal training. Although, this training was found good for improving teaching skills, it was considered inadequate and less relevant to a school headteacher's job role (see section 7.3). Punjabi headteachers did not have the opportunities to attend online training, webinars, conferences or short courses on Leadership and Management like their counterparts in the Midlands. However, whenever these headteachers got stuck with a particular task they did not appear to lose their hope rather they did their best to get the job done. They appeared to come out of their comfort zones in order to fulfil system demands to thrive and survive in their jobs. The research evidence

revealed that these headteachers sought informal help from their family, friends, staff, and other local community members. For instance, during research interview headteacher 13 from Punjab commented:

*Being a primary headteacher I have to maintain 4-5 types of registers such as accounts, mid-day meal, grants and funding etc. But no management training is available for headteachers to do their jobs competently. When I get stuck with any specific task, I call my family members, friends and other community members to assist me. Sometimes, I have to visit their place to learn a particular task. I also ask help from my staff, but they have also so much to do. I know many of the HTs struggle to cope with. For example, now we have to do a lot of paperwork but many of us are incompetent to do that...*

Headteacher 13, Punjab, male

The data extract (above) from HT13 in Punjab indicated that the primary headteachers in the state schools are obliged to do lots of paperwork accurately beyond their expertise. For instance, headteachers are required to maintain several types of school registers without being supported. Nevertheless, this headteacher managed to do all required tasks to meet the systemic requirements.

The HT2 (below) from Punjab explained how she applied “Learning by Doing” approach to enhance her professional practice in the absence of an appropriate form of CPD. During the interview she commented:

*Most of the times I learn things by doing again and again and I learn from my mistakes. If I get stuck, for example using computer and apps I ask my staff, family or friends to help me to do the job... I find quite interesting to learn new skills myself by practicing again and again until I learn. I learn from my mistakes, but sometimes it is very frustrating to learn without appropriate support.*

Headteacher 2, Punjab, female

The above example (HT2 from Punjab) revealed that the headteacher’s motivation to learning was a key driver in enhancing her practice. She achieved competence by repeating and reflecting on her actions. This process of learning which involves repeating actions and reflecting on actions is consistent with the concept of “experiential learning” (Kolb, 2015). The

basic idea behind these concepts is that in a learning process “knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb, 2015, p.67).

The HT5 (below) from Punjab revealed the techniques she used to improve her skills in order to do her daily basis tasks in her school. She made use of her personal contacts to enhance her professional practice. For instance, she requested people to visit her school to teach and help her in doing specific tasks such as using digital apps. During the interview, HT5 commented:

*This training is not sufficient for my role as a headteacher. As a HT I have to do many admin tasks and I have the responsibility to maintain several types of registers. To be honest, I don't have sufficient knowledge in some of the areas and to do my work I have to depend on my other staff, my family members, friends, and children's parents. For some of the tasks I requested people to visit me again and again because I cannot learn things fast at this age. For example, I do not know much about computers and I find difficult to use digital apps recently introduced [E-content, e-Punjab portal, testing tool], but in order to meet systemic requirements I need to use these apps. I am required to update my schools' profile on E-Punjab portal on regular basis and if I fail to do so, I will be in trouble...*

Headteacher 5, Punjab, female

The HT5 continued explaining the reason of being frustrated due to the government policy which did not consider the age factor and refrained her asking help from her staff. It appeared that this headteacher felt learning difficulties due to her advanced age or changing her practice after so many years (18-20 years) was hard for her. However, she slowly learned new skills to meet the systemic requirements and survived in her job.

*The reason of my frustration is that the system doesn't consider age factor and they do not arrange special training for the headteachers to meet their needs. I am also not allowed to ask my teachers to help me as the system says the teachers are there to teach not to do other jobs. So, what is the solution?*

Headteacher 5, Punjab, female

The above section discussed how primary headteachers particularly in Punjab enhanced their professional practice to meet the education policy requirements in the absence of an appropriate training. In other words, it discussed what positive impact of functional factors, i.e., policy initiatives (Sambrook, 2002) had on headteachers and their professional learning. The

following section will focus on the negative impacts of functional factors on headteachers and their professional learning.

### **7.5 National Education Policy: an inhibiting factor in professional learning**

This study found that functional factors (Sambrook, 2002) such as inadequate infrastructure, lack of time, human resources, financial sources, staff expertise, and the constant and rapid education policy initiatives had negative impacts on both the headteachers as professionals and as well as on their professional practice. This is evident in the following responses recorded from the headteachers from both the state of Punjab and the Midlands.

The HT12 (below) from Punjab explained how the education policy set non-achievable targets such as expecting the headteacher to enrol the highest number of students in his school without considering the condition, context, and size of the school. This headteacher was expected to operate digital apps in the absence of the Internet connection and without professional training. His students were expected to produce good results without reading syllabus books. He raised the issue of power while describing the behaviour of the government officials during inspections in the school. It appeared from the data that headteachers work under a huge pressure which affect their well-being. During the interview, HT12 commented:

*They [inspection team] come to find faults. They are rude and treat us as like we are offenders. They must check facilities in our school before asking any questions. They need to consider the context and size of my school before expecting results. How can they expect me to enrol 1000 students if there are only 500 students to join primary school in our locality? How is it possible to use digital apps without the Internet connection and appropriate training or support? They set non-achievable targets. This is very very stressful.*

Headteacher 12, Punjab, male

The HT12 (below) continued explaining his strategy of functioning his school without any support from the system. This headteacher appeared thought out of the box when he converted his school building into a teaching learning aid so that his students can study even if they did not have books. He did it with the help of some donors which exhibits his entrepreneurial leadership in practice. It implies that the entrepreneurial headteachers innovate and take calculated risks in order to benefit their school by combating constraints which can hinder the work (Miller, 2016).

*The officers [inspection team] want all the students to come in proper uniform but how can we arrange uniform without sufficient funding. They want all the students to obtain good marks, but majority of the students don't have books. The government usually delays in printing books. Somehow, with the help of some donors we got painted our school walls to use them as TLMs [teaching learning materials]. We tried to put all syllabus on the school walls so that children can learn when they come to school even if they don't have books.”*

Headteacher 12, Punjab, male

The HT14 (below) from Punjab described how the state government policy of recruiting headteachers and other educational officials might affect the quality of education in primary schools. It appeared from headteacher's statement below that a headteacher's recruitment process is rigorous enough as it gives more importance to experience and undermines academic or professional qualification of the applicants. He gave an example of a BPEO (Block Primary Education Officer) who had extensive experience but lower qualification. All the state primary headteachers and centre headteachers in Punjab are required to report to their BPEO in relation to their school performance. It seemed that the seniority-based promotions have negative impacts on school education as well as on their own professional training. For instance, as data revealed, they are unable to cope with advanced technology which has become an essential element to succeed in the modern education system. The HT14 during the interview commented:

*The State Secretary Education Mr Krishan Kumar requires all the headteachers to update all the information online every day without failure. But there are many headteachers who are not competent to do all these tasks. The fact is that they are not well qualified for their job. Many of the primary headteachers do not know English and if they have to learn English at this age, they need a lot of time. Our BPEO [Block Primary Education Officer] is also metric pass. The problem with our education system is that all the promotions are done on seniority basis. The knowledge and qualification of the candidate are not considered but experience. Experience plays an important role, but professional competence is also essential to cope with the modern education system.*

Headteacher 14, Punjab, male

One of the centre headteachers (CHT3) during Focus Group 2 from Punjab explained how the government education policies affect her mental health being a centre headteacher. It appeared from the research data that as headteachers and centre headteachers are recruited on seniority basis, they are expected to start their work without any job specific induction or training which consequently affect their well-being.

*When I was assigned as a centre headteacher, I was expected to do my job from the first day onwards without even knowing about my responsibilities [what I needed to do]. I was not given any training or induction. I came to know about my job role fully after 2 months only. I learned on my own. Things were forced on me. The system needs result. It put me under a huge pressure. I was very much stressed. I even cried. At some point, I was thinking about leaving this job. But my husband and my daughters consoled me and encouraged me to not to give up...If the system wants us to do everything on our own, they need to be patient.*

Focus group 2, CHT 3, Punjab, female

Below are the remarks made by the CHT1 from Punjab during Focus Group 2 that primary headteachers are expected to implement a number of policy initiatives in their respective schools such as converting their schools into smart schools (see section 4.10), constructing building with modern facilities and well equipped libraries, raising the number of student enrolment, ensuring 100% attendance, and organising extra-curricular activities without asking any support from the system. It seemed to be difficult for headteachers particularly for female headteachers as raising funds for school improvement might require them to go door to door which they regarded beneath their dignity due to their cultural values. This centre headteacher appeared to be trapped within her profession as she explained that finding another job at this stage of her career may not be an easy task. This finding is consistent with Tucker's (2010) research finding as he argued that many headteachers were found to be trapped within the profession as they seemed to have no transferable skills which would help them finding similar positions in other organisations.

*I would also like to add that plans [government education policies] cannot be put into practice without resources and sufficient funding. The system wants to change everything overnight. They want smart schools, wonderful buildings with modern infrastructure, excellent results, 100% attendance, increased enrolment, extra-curricular activities and well-equipped libraries but without any support. Many of the*

*HTs and CHTs are working hard to raise funding on their own to survive. But not all have the same levels of energy and contacts. Specifically, women they cannot go door to door for help specifically who belong to Punjabi culture. In our culture, it is not considered respectful. Majority (around 80% and above) of HTs and CHTs is female in the state of Punjab. Sometimes, I feel that I should leave this job and find some other job options but finding a new job is not easy now. Focus group 2, CHT 1, Punjab, female*

The HT2 (below) from the Midlands revealed how inadequate funding influenced the professional development of the staff at school. Due to huge cuts in school funding, professional training of each staff in the school was not affordable, hence the headteacher needed to adapt his strategies of the CPD. The HT2 during interview commented:

*In the past it was very much to go to the courses or buying someone in to give training to the house staff, but it is less now. When I came here in 2011, I used to manage training budget and I had 4 to 6 thousand pounds a year. But now the training budget is thousand pound a year which is very less now and when a course costs £200, one thousand pounds doesn't go far. What we do now, for example safeguarding one of my leads will go to the training and disseminate back the same training to the rest of the staff. So they know that they are not going to attend but they also have to share those trainings with the rest of the staff at the school when they are back.*

Headteacher 2, Midlands, male

The HT5 (below) from the Midlands shared similar concerns. He explained that due to huge cuts in school funding he has to be very selective when it comes to his professional training. It appeared that the headteacher's professional development activities need to be very much linked to his school improvement plan else it might be wastage of time and money. From this headteacher's perspective the Local Authorities seemed to be very supportive in providing financial aid and organising professional training for school staff. During the interview the HT5 commented:

*Twelve years ago, there were lots of training being run by the Local Authority and there was more money in education and so they would put on lots of training for heads and lots of training for teachers, they would cover the cost of supply teaching in schools. But as funding has decreased somewhat, well a lot and its very much part of national funding crisis, schools have to be very strict about which training you can attend, which*



*training you need to attend, which training is relevant to your School Improvement Plan and that's what I was saying earlier, if it's not relevant to your School Improvement Plan then you know it's luxury really to be able to attend because there is just no time and there is just no money to sign up to these courses either.*

Headteacher 5, Midlands, male

The HT1 (below) from the Midlands shared similar opinion of the Local Authorities being supportive for school staff. During the interview, she explained how diminishing Local Authorities could impact headteachers' well-being. The education policy makers seem to be ignoring the fact that human well-being is fundamental to the health of any organisation (Tucker, 2010).

*The Local Authority is disappearing now and it is very sad. In the Local Authority, you will have people who would deliver training on mental health well-being. This is the major concern for the headteachers and there is nobody who can look after heads' mental health well-being.*

Headteacher 1, Midlands, female

## **7.6 Chapter summary**

This chapter discussed research findings relevant to the fourth research question (RQ4) of this study. There were four main themes identified associated with RQ4 which were drawn on the functional levels of factors of influencing leaning in work (Sambrook, 2002). This chapter is discussed how the National Education Policy led English headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD) in the context of the Midlands. The research findings suggested that almost all the headteachers interviewed from the Midlands tended to do a CPD activity whenever any new policy initiatives introduced by the government such as new Ofsted Inspection Framework, Sex and Relationship Education and Benchmarking to name a few. It appeared from the data that headteachers decided the topics of their CPD on the basis of their school development needs rather than on their personal professional development needs. One of the reasons behind this decision identified was inadequate school funding and heavy workloads. Headteachers' this act of decision making in relation to their CPD is linked to the culture of performative accountability of education of 21<sup>st</sup> century by Perryman and Calvert (2020) where education is being treated as a commodity and students as consumers. Sambrook and Stewart (2002) argue that the human resource development is not well integrated into the corporate strategies of many organisations and professional development is often considered

more as a cost than as an investment (Garavan, Heraty & Barnicle, 1999) or as a means of overcoming specific skill shortages (Barham & Rassam, 1989).

In the context to Punjab, this study found that primary headteachers' three days formal training's aims and objectives were set on the basis of the government education policy initiatives and not on the basis of individual headteacher's professional development needs. In this sense, Punjabi headteachers' CPD was also shaped by the National Education Policy context similar to their counterparts in the Midlands. The recent policy initiatives introduced in Punjab were establishing Pre-Primary section in all state primary schools, using digital apps such as 'E-content', 'E-Punjab portal', and 'testing tool'. The research evidence revealed that the main focus of three days formal training was the topics mentioned above (new initiatives) and improving pedagogical skills.

This chapter also discussed how these functional levels of factors (Sambrook, 2002) such as resources, time, money, new government initiatives, and headteachers' expertise influenced their professional learning. The research findings suggest that these functional factors had both positive and negative impact on headteachers' professional practice. For example, the English headteachers' CPD appeared to be hindered due to two main functional factors. First, lack of time due to heavy workload in schools, and the second lack of money and resources due to huge cuts in school funding (Sambrook & Stewart 2002). On the other hand, Punjabi headteachers' three days formal training seemed to be inadequate. The headteachers explained how their formal training was unfit to meet their professional development needs being headteachers. In addition, lack of resources, time, and money also influenced the implementation of government initiatives into their respective schools. However, some of these headteachers made extra effort to improve their professional practice and managed to meet the National Education Policy objectives.

## **Chapter 8: Theoretical contribution**

### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter focuses on the theoretical contribution this study made to theorise primary headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD) in the given contexts of the research in particular. This chapter argues that the headteachers' CPD is a multilevel process, hence it needs to be conceptualised by employing a multidimensional approach. A multidimensional approach views leadership development as a multilevel process enabling individuals to enhance their intrapersonal, interpersonal, and relational competencies. This chapter also argues that integrating Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of practice along with Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) three levels of capacity building into Brown and Duguid's (2000) Networks of Practice may provide a coherent structure and an appropriate curriculum respectively to form headteachers' Networks of Practice (NoPs) in the given contexts of this study. This chapter begins with a discussion to provide a rationale behind the four theoretical frameworks used in this study. Further, it provides a comparative analysis of the Networks of Practice (NoPs) and the Communities of Practice (CoPs) in relation to headteachers' professional development. Then, it provides a discussion on the combined theoretical framework used in this study. Finally, in the end this chapter proposes a framework for forming a NoP for headteachers' CPD including a factor analysis model followed by a chapter summary. It is to be noted that the detailed discussion on the four theoretical frameworks is given in the theoretical framework chapter (see chapter 3) and research findings of this study are discussed in detail in three consecutive chapters (see chapters 5, 6 & 7).

The theoretical contribution that this study makes is shown in the proposed framework (figure 7 & table 8) is the result of this study. It was developed in the light of data analysis and research findings of this study. The analysis showed that all the English headteachers participated in this study belonged to a "collaborative" or "development" group for their professional development. The idea of the "collaborative" or "development" groups was identical to the concepts of Networks of Practice (Brown & Duguid, 2000), Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) and Learning Communities (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). Similarly, during data analysis, it was identified that both the English and Punjabi headteachers' participation in the CPD activities was influenced by the multiple reasons such as their personality traits, personal values and beliefs, and the contexts they worked in. Hence, Sambrook's (2000) three-dimensional model of factors influencing learning in work were employed to. In summary, reflecting on

data, exploring specific theoretical models used in this study and synthesising different components of these theoretical models led to the development of this proposed framework (figure 7 & table 8).

## 8.2 Four theoretical frameworks to theorise headteachers' CPD

In analysing the data this thesis draws on the four theoretical frameworks as a means of better understanding the processes of primary headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD). This model offers a composite framework drawing on four different ways of understanding CPD:

- (i) Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs)
- (ii) Wenger's (1998) Communities of Practice Theory (CoP)
- (iii) Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community
- (iv) Sambrook's (2002) Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning in Work

The underlying assumption of using these specific theoretical frameworks is that school leadership is a multidimensional and multilevel phenomenon (Day & O'Connor, 2003) and it seems appropriate that multidimensionality is taken into consideration while designing the process of leadership development.

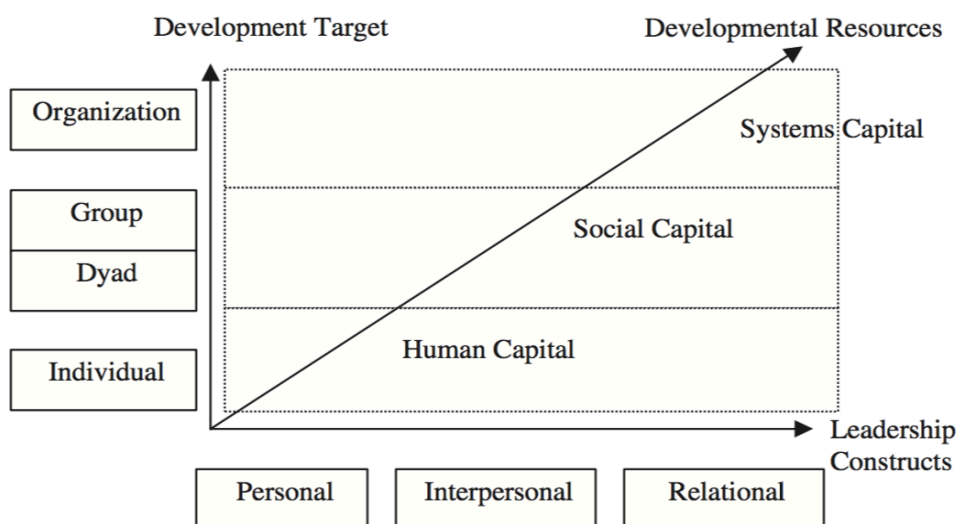


Figure 6: Multidimensionality: Focal areas for understanding the process of leader(ship) development (Day & O'Connor, 2003, p.19)

The figure 6 above provides an overview of multidimensionality in relation to making sense of the process of leadership development. The figure describes three separate but interconnected domains of leadership development. First, it explains that targets of leadership development can be at or between various levels. For instance, individual level, dyad/group level, and organisational level. Second, leadership development is concerned with developmental resources. For example, leadership development is about enhancing and leveraging a range of resources such as human capital, social capital, and system capital. Third, the choices relating to both the “leadership” and “leadership development” are embedded in a particular leadership construct (knowledge principle) for example, personal, interpersonal or relational (organisational).

In summary, the key message is that in order to understand the “process of leadership development”, one should expand the lens of “leadership” beyond the traditional “personal, individual-leader approaches” which has been emphasised historically in leadership development. Further, in order to enhance the understanding of the leadership development process, an understanding of the developmental resources such as the social capital and the system capital is crucial. In addition, building more complex leadership constructs which include the interpersonal and relational ways of thinking about leadership is a critical concern in intensifying the understanding of leadership development process (Day, 2001; Day & O’Connor, 2003). Hence, the expanded definition of leadership constructs and developmental resources explains that leadership is not merely individual rather it is a property of the organisations and groups as whole (Day & O’Connor, 2003), and leadership development is equivalent to organisational development (Avolio, 2004).

Avolio (2004) further argues that leadership development is always a multilevel development process, hence the designing and conceptualising of a leadership development model should consider two levels up for ensured success. For example, the first level involves the individual leader (personal) and the second level comprises the relationships with the followers, peers and superiors (interpersonal) and the third level includes the system (relational or organisational) (Avolio, 2004). In summary, considering the networked relationships (second level) as well as the system forces (third level) is important for a sustained leadership development (i.e., continuing professional development, CPD). It appears that the concept of leadership and leadership development can be better understood by adopting a multidimensional approach as discussed above.

It is evident from the above discussion that a comprehensive leadership development never takes place at the personal level alone (i.e., within an individual leader) rather at multilevel. On this account, in order to better understand the phenomenon of school leadership development, headteachers' CPD within the context of this study, I decided to apply a combination of four theoretical frameworks. For example, during the data analysis process, Brown and Duguid's (2000) concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs) illustrated how primary headteachers' informal collaborative groups or networks within this research context influenced their continuing professional development (CPD). Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of practice were helpful in developing my understanding of the structures of primary headteachers professional networks. Similarly, Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community gave me a deeper insight into the process of continuing professional development (CPD) of headteachers by viewing it as a multilevel process (i.e., personal, interpersonal, and organisational levels). Finally, Sambrook's (2002) Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning in Work enhanced my understanding of the various factors facilitating and hindering headteachers' participation in CPD activities. For example, it enabled illumination of the individual, organisational, and functional levels of factors. As a whole, these four theoretical frameworks developed my understanding to conceptualise headteachers' CPD as a multilevel and multidimensional phenomenon.

### **8.3 Networks of Practice (NoPs) and Communities of Practice (CoPs) within the context of this study**

The research findings of this study revealed that almost all of the English headteachers interviewed during this study belonged to a "development group" in order to enhance their professional learning and practice. It was identified that these "development groups" were set by the Local Authorities (see sections 5.6 & 5.6.1). Nonetheless, in addition to the groups set by the Local Authorities, headteachers themselves also formed school improvement systems and within that they worked with the schools of their own choice.

The idea of "development groups" is identical to the concepts of the Networks of Practice (NoPs). The concept of Networks of Practice (NoPs) was drawn from the notion of Communities of Practice (CoPs) (Brown & Duguid, 2001). The term CoP was set out in the publication of Lave and Wenger's *Situated Learning* (1991) and developed in an organisational context by Brown and Duguid in their ethnographic studies of workplace practices in 1991 (Brown & Duguid, 1991; 2001). They (Brown & Duguid, 2000) propose the existence of

networks of local communities which can share or exchange knowledge by using electronic documents. Their approach of Networks of Practice creates a space for the role of electronic ways of working/digital communication while still holding on to the importance of physical face to face participation in local Communities of Practice which is a key feature of a CoP (Takhteyev, 2009). To put it simply, Communities of Practice (CoPs) cannot be separated from the Networks of Practice (NoPs) as they are the important and useful subsets of NoPs. (see sections 3.2 & 3.2.1) (Brown & Duguid, 2000; Wasko, Faraz & Teigland, 2004).

On the other hand, the research findings in the context of Punjab, revealed that the Punjabi headteachers did not belong to any “development group” similar to their English counterparts. However, in addition to their three days formal training, they tended to seek help from “informal connections” such as from their family, friends, and students’ parents (see sections 5.6.3 & 7.4). This idea of seeking informal help from informal contacts is in line with Wenger’s concept of Communities of Practice as he states that “[w]e all belong to communities of practice... [a]t home, at work, at school...communities of practice sprout everywhere - in the classroom as well as on the playground, officially or in the cracks...” (Wenger, 1998, p. 6). Hence, the research findings suggest that forming “coherent” Networks of Practice for headteachers’ CPD in both contexts of this study appears to be an appropriate idea. I used the term “coherent” to define a Network of Practice that integrates three dimensions of practice namely *mutual engagement*, *joint enterprise* and a *shared repertoire* (Wenger, 1998) along with three levels of capacity building which are *personal*, *interpersonal*, and *organisational* (Mitchell and Sackney, 2000).

The research evidence showed that the English headteachers’ “development groups” were identical to the Networks of Practice (NoPs) as presented by Brown and Duguid (2000) rather than the Communities of Practice (CoPs) proposed by Wenger (1998). For example, English headteachers’ “development groups” had weak structures in contrast to the CoPs. Headteachers did not meet with their colleague heads (members of their development groups) on regular basis to enhance their professional learning rather they organised meetings only when they all had a similar issue of interest or problem to discuss. However, the members of a CoP are committed to enhancing their professional learning and practice by interacting with other members of community on regular basis (Pyrko et al., 2019). Research findings revealed that most of the times English headteachers relied on online learning for their CPD and the online learning is a key aspect of the Networks of Practice (NoPs).

The Communities of Practice (CoPs) are self-managing systems and the members of a community share their professional practices spontaneously and they are aware that they belong to a group that possesses unique and lasting values that develops a common repertoire of routines, actions, expressions, and artifacts (Tagliaventi & Mattarelli, 2006). Although the Networks of Practice (NoPs) share the similar features with the Communities of Practice (CoPs); that is, spontaneous networking of peers with identical skills and positions (Tagliaventi & Mattarelli, 2006), they (NoPs) share weaker links as they are the looser social formations (Brown and Duguid, 2001). In the same vein, Vaast and Walsham (2009) suggest that while the members of a NoP are connected with work-based networks, they may not essentially know each other directly, however they do share similar interests or issues of concern. Another cohort of scholars (Pyrko, Dorfler & Eden, 2019) suggests that both the Communities of Practice (CoPs) and the Networks of Practice (NoPs) share similar characteristics; that is, they share local boundaries and their members are oriented towards the same practice. Notwithstanding, Pyrko et al. (2019) differentiate the CoPs from the NoPs on the grounds of that the members of a NoP are connected, they are not necessarily mutually engaged on regular basis in contrast to a CoP as it is a close knit group, and its members are committed to enhancing their professional learning and practice by interacting with other members of the community on regular basis.

In conclusion, in the light of above discussion, it appeared that the “coherent” Network of Practice is an appropriate approach within the given research contexts of the study (self-improving school systems). For example, while the “coherent” Networks of Practice, which include Wenger’s (1998) three dimensions of practice along with Mitchell and Sackney’s (2000) three levels of capacity building may strengthen the structure of “development groups/NoPs” in the English context, they may supplement Punjabi headteachers’ formal training that lacked meeting their professional development needs (see section 7.3). The following section will justify the appropriateness of the Communities of Practice to theorise headteachers’ CPD in the given context.

#### **8.4 Wenger’s (1998) theory of CoP: three dimensions**

The research suggests that Wenger’s (1998) notion of CoP is one of the most widely cited and leading concepts of social learning to date (Smith, Hayes, & Shea, 2017). However, I decided to use Wenger’s (1998) Communities of Practice (CoPs) as it provides three dimensions of



practice which may provide a coherent structure to the “development groups/NoPs/informal connections” of headteachers identified during this study

Within the context of this study, it is assumed that Brown and Duguid’s (2000) Network of Practice (NoP) integrated with Wenger’s (1998) three dimensions of practice such as mutual engagement, joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire would give headteachers an appropriate structure to share the problems and any other issues of concern in their respective schools. The regular meetings with the other members of “development groups/NoPs” may help the headteachers to strengthen their professional relationships which consequently will help in creating a safe environment for sharing ideas and learning for a sustainable improvement. Further, it would also provide them with a domain of knowledge which states the boundaries and the leading edge of a CoP (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). Being fully aware of the context and culture of the “development groups/NoPs” the headteachers belong to consequently might encourage them to participate confidently.

In addition, the productive conversations and professional dialogue with their colleagues in a “developmental group/NoP” may result in an enhanced professional learning and practice. It is suggested that the CoPs based on a high-level of trust and situated in the problems of practice where knowledge is readily accessed, exchanged, and created can provide the individuals with increased competencies that results in improved performance (Saint-Onge & Wallace, 2003). Finally, in a CoP, through the meeting of the minds, the community members create a pool of their expertise and experience (Saint-Onge & Wallace, 2003) which can be used later by the mature or new members in various situations (Wenger, 1998). For instance, within the given study context, this expert knowledge might be used as quick reference guides by the newcomers to be familiar with the context and the culture of their respective developmental groups or NoPs

In the light of above discussion, it appears that if a considerable attention is paid to the structure of “developmental groups/NoPs” adhering to Wenger’s (1998) three dimensions of practice may contribute to an enhanced professional learning of headteachers in the given context of this research. Wenger’s three dimensions of practice have been discussed in Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework (see section 3.3). The following section will discuss Mitchell and Sackney’s (2000) Capacity Building Model in relation to the present study

## **8.5 Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community**

The research findings of this study revealed that the “content or curriculum” of continuing professional development (CPD) programmes was inappropriate as it did not meet headteachers’ professional development needs within the given contexts of the study (see section 6.4). Therefore, Mitchell and Sackney’s (2000) model has a significant role to play in this study as it provides an appropriate “curriculum” (i.e., content and learning activities) for leadership development at three levels; and these are, personal, interpersonal, and organisational levels (Mitchell & Sackney’s, 2000). This model sits fit with this study as it argues that headteachers’ professional development is a multilevel process (Avolio, 2004; Day & O’Connor, 2003 & Day 2001) (see section 8.2). In this sense, Mitchell and Sackney’s (2000) model fills the gap in Brown and Duguid’s (2000) NoP by providing a multidimensional approach to school leaders’ professional development. The main components of Mitchell and Sackney’s (2000) Capacity Building Model have been discussed in the Theoretical Framework Chapter: 3 (see sections 3.4, 3.4.1, 3.4.2, 3.4.3, 3.4.4, 3.4.5 & 3.4.6). In addition to Brown and Duguid’s (2000) NoP, Wenger’s (1998) CoP, and Mitchell and Sackney’s (2000) Capacity Building Model, this study also used Sambrook’s (2002) model to further enhance the theoretical framework of this study. This model will be discussed in the following section.

## **8.6 Sambrook's (2002) Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning in Work**

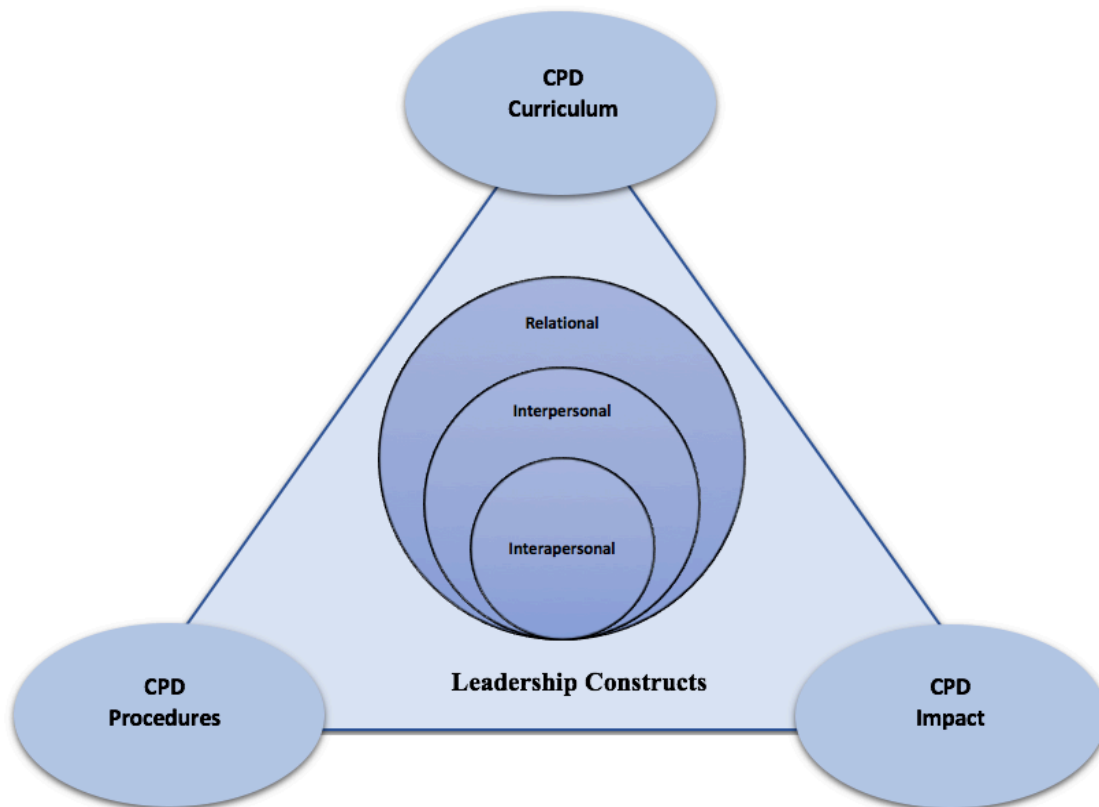
Sambrook’s model is equally important in this study as it provides a tool to identify the factors influence headteachers’ participation in the CPD at three levels; that is, individual, organisational, and functional. The study identified various factors that influenced headteachers’ participation in the CPD programmes such as their self-motivation, competencies, time, money, resources, senior management teams, appraisals, education policy initiatives, and so forth (see sections 5.3, 5.4, 6.4, 7.4, & 7.5). Sambrook (2005; 2002) argues that these three levels of factors should be identified in order to find out how individuals’ learning is supported and inhibited in an organisation. Within the contexts of this study, I found this model useful in order to analyse various factors which facilitate or hinder headteachers’ participation in the continuing professional development (CPD) process. This model has been discussed in detail in the Theoretical Framework Chapter: 3 (see sections 3.5, 3.5.1, 3.5.2 & 3.5.3). The next section includes the proposed framework for forming a NoP for headteachers’ CPD along with a factor analysis model that identifies potential barriers and facilitators to headteachers’ CPD participation.

### **8.7 Proposed framework for forming a NoP for headteachers' CPD.**

Figure 7 is the proposed framework for forming a NoP for headteachers' continuing professional development (CPD). This framework has been adapted from the combinational components of the Networks of Practice (NoPs) (Brown & Duguid, 2000), Communities of Practice Theory (CoPs) (Wenger, 1998) and Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community. For example, First, Brown and Duguid's (2000) Network of Practice provides an open access to the professionals in contrast to the Communities of Practice which are restricted to the community members only. Furthermore, a Network of Practice creates space for the electronic ways of working for professionals along with traditional face to face meetings alike traditional Communities of Practice. Second, Wenger's (1998) three dimensions of practice in a community provide a basic and a coherent structure to form any kind of community or social network regardless of their size, type, duration or location. Finally, Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model provides three domains/levels of learning for building capacity of professionals.

Wenger's CoP's three dimensions of practice namely "joint enterprise", "mutual engagement" and "shared repertoire" are referred as "CPD curriculum", "CPD procedures" and "CPD impact" respectively in the proposed framework (figure 7). Similarly, Mitchell and Sackney's three levels of capacity building namely "personal capacity", "interpersonal capacity" and "organisational capacity" for a Learning Community are referred as "intrapersonal", "interpersonal" and "relational" constructs of leadership. As mentioned earlier that Wenger's three dimensions of practice provides a coherent structure for headteachers' CPD in a NoP and Mitchell and Sackney's Capacity Building Model strengthens the NoP by providing an appropriate curriculum that involves a systematic and a multidimensional approach to the headteachers' professional development.

Figure 7: Proposed framework for forming a NoP for headteachers' CPD



Source: Created by the author

This proposed framework (figure 7) involves three components namely CPD curriculum, CPD procedures, and CPD impact which provide a coherent structure for a NoP for headteachers' professional development. It also includes three levels of professional development; which are intrapersonal, interpersonal, and relational. The first component of the framework (CPD curriculum) (i.e., content, learning activities and impact evaluation methodology) explains that designing an appropriate curriculum by paying a considerable attention to headteachers' CPD needs (i.e., soft skills or hard skills) and priorities (learning styles and flexible time) is crucial. It suggests that while designing a curriculum for headteachers' CPD all the important stakeholders (i.e., headteacher, senior management team and other teaching staff at school) must be involved to ensure the unique contribution of the system capital (relational). The second important component of this framework (CPD procedures) explains that leadership development never takes place alone rather it is a multilevel process (Avolio, 2004; & Day 2001; Day & O'Connor, 2003). Hence, the model suggests that the headteachers' CPD activities need to contribute to the development of all types of knowledge capital (i.e., human, social, and systems capital). In other words, headteachers' CPD procedures should enable

leadership constructs in terms of intrapersonal dominance, interpersonal influence, and relational dialogue (knowledge principles) (Day & Lance, 2004). Intrapersonal dominance defines leaders by their inner qualities and personal strength. This knowledge principle (intrapersonal) does not undermine individual leader's development, nonetheless it suggests that an individual leader is expected to act like a superhero to find solutions to all of the problems occur in an organisation which sometimes can put survival of an organisation at risk. However, it is suggested that a more appropriate approach to construct leadership is adding interpersonal influence to a leader's world view, as this knowledge principle acknowledges the importance of hearing voices and viewpoints of others in an organisation without replacing the personal dominance. Relational dialogue is considered the highest level of constructing leadership as it does not look to a strong individual leader or grant influence to the collective viewpoint rather this knowledge principle constructs all individuals as leaders and realises that influence comes out when individuals become committed to each other in an organisation. It is proposed that if an individual is able to construct leadership in terms of relational dialogue, can also construct it as interpersonal influence and intrapersonal dominance. Consequently, it can impact their professional practice positively. In a nutshell, this framework (figure 7) proposes that headteachers' CPD process needs to take account of a multidimensional and multilevel approach while designing the CPD curriculum, delivering curriculum and measuring the impact evaluation of the CPD.

### **8.7.1 Proposed factor analysis model**

In addition to the proposed framework (figure 7), for forming a NoP for headteachers' CPD, this study also proposed a *factor analysis model* (see table 8 below) to further enhance the proposed framework. This model has been adapted from Sambrook's (2002) Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning in Work. Sambrook (2002) suggests three levels of factors which can inhibit and enhance learning in work; and these are, the *organisational factors*: structure, culture, senior management support, organisation of work, work pressures, and managerial skills; *functional factors*: HRD resources, for example, time, money, staff, expertise, new initiatives, and role clarity; *individual factors*: responsibility for learning, motivation to learn, time, and skills. Sambrook (2002) originally proposed this model to analyse factors influencing computer-based learning in work. Sambrook (2002) suggests that this model can be used by the senior managers, HRD practitioners, and by the learners to identify the factors that inhibit and enhance learning in order to help overcome the problems and promote the success. She further adds that learning in work can be enhanced greatly by developing organisations as

learning cultures, by increasing motivation among individuals to learn, by clarifying individuals' responsibilities for learning, and by providing sufficient learning resources (Sambrook, 2002). The proposed factor analysis model (table 8) was derived from Sambrook's model as this study identified that these three levels of factors influenced headteachers' CPD participation in the given research context.

Table 8: Proposed factor analysis model

Headteachers' Participation	CPD Facilitating/ Hindering Factors
<b>Individual</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivation</li> <li>• Self-awareness</li> <li>• Skills (soft skills &amp; hard skills)</li> <li>• Adaptability</li> <li>• Values and beliefs</li> <li>• Time</li> </ul>
<b>Functional</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Education policy initiatives</li> <li>• CPD policy</li> <li>• School funding</li> <li>• CPD providers/facilitators</li> </ul>
<b>Organisational</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Senior management support</li> <li>• Availability of resources</li> <li>• Structure</li> <li>• Culture</li> </ul>

Source: Created by the author

This model (table 8) can be used to analyse various factors influencing headteachers' participation in CPD. This table explains that three levels of factors, i.e., individual, functional and, organisational have the potential to facilitate and hinder headteachers' participation in the CPD activities/programmes. This factor analysis model proposes that analysing these three levels of factors can help who are responsible for headteachers' CPD (i.e., headteacher, school governors, School Improvement Partners (SIPs) or School Management Committees (SMCs)) which might result in headteachers' increased participation in their CPD. According to this model, *individual level factors* include headteachers' motivation, self-awareness, skills, adaptability, values, and beliefs and time. It implies that headteachers' personality traits or attributes such their *motivation* and enthusiasm for learning can affect their decision to

participate in the CPD programmes; *self-awareness* (identity) involves knowing one's own strengths and weaknesses and their influence on one's own and others' professional practice and it enables headteachers to choose appropriate training for self-improvement; *skills* include one's intellectual capabilities or development level, for example, two individuals (i.e., headteachers) may construct different meanings from an identical CPD event.

The model (table 8) is used to understand that the individuals who are at higher levels of development make use of a greater number of knowledge principles (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and relational) (see section 8) to construct their experiences (Day & Lance, 2004); *adaptability* refers to an individual's capability to make sense of both familiar and unfamiliar situations rapidly and to act appropriately (Day & Lance, 2004). Self-awareness and adaptability are considered the key learning "metacompetencies" (attributes) of continuous learning (Briscoe & Hall, 1999), hence leaders are required to be self-aware and adaptive in order to broaden their repertoire of knowledge (Day & Lance, 2004); an individual's *values and beliefs* influence their decisions significantly, for example if a headteacher takes his/her professional learning/CPD as a moral responsibility they would find ways out; *Time* is a crucial factor both in facilitating and hindering headteachers' participation in their CPD. However, what matters the most how time is used by individuals as Guskey (2009) suggests that "doing ineffective things for longer does not make them any better" (p.496). In sum, headteachers' individual factors play an important role in their participation in the CPD events. Thus, these factors need to be analysed carefully in order to provide them the appropriate support towards their CPD.

*Functional level factors* include education policy initiatives, the CPD policy, school funding, and the CPD providers/facilitators. This model explains that headteachers' participation in the CPD activities is influenced by all these external factors, for example, rapid changes in the education policy context, allocation of government funding for schools, implementation of National Policy on headteachers' CPD and the availability and quality of the CPD providers or facilitators.

*Organisation level factors* involve senior management support, for example headteachers' relationship with their school governing bodies (GBs) and school/senior management committees (SMCs) and the knowledge and expertise of the GB and SMC members can affect their decisions of their CPD positively or negatively. Second, the availability of resources such

as sufficient funding, appropriate learning material, and equipment can also influence headteachers' CPD. Finally, the structure (top-down/bottom up management approach) and the culture (whether continuous learning valued/supported or undermined/ignored) in an organisation (school) can also affect headteachers' decision to take part in the CPD events. As a whole, the proposed factor analysis model suggests that the analysis of these three levels of factors (individual, functional, and organisational) followed by an appropriate support would increase headteachers' participation in the CPD process to a certain extent.

## **8.8 Chapter summary**

This chapter provided a detailed account of the theoretical contribution this study made in relation to theorise headteachers' CPD in the given contexts of the study. It discussed the underlying assumptions that influenced my decision to choose this specific combination of frameworks for this study. It then justified the selection of four specific frameworks, Brown and Duguid's (2001) concept of Network of Practice (NoP), Wenger's (1998) CoP theory, Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model and Sambrook's (2002) model of factors influencing learning in work by highlighting their importance in relation to headteachers' CPD process. Finally, this chapter proposed *a framework for forming a NoP for headteachers' CPD* including a *factor analysis model* to identify the potential facilitators and barriers to headteachers' participation in the CPD activities/programmes, which are depicted in Figure 7 and Table 8. The former framework has been adapted from three separate frameworks and these are: (i) Brown and Duguid's (2001) concept of Network of Practice (ii) Wenger's (1998) Communities of Practice Theory (iii) Mitchell and Sackney's (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community and the latter has been adapted from Sambrook's (2002) Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning in Work.



## **Chapter 9: Conclusion**

### **9.1 Introduction**

This chapter revisits to the complete research study and its findings in accordance with research questions. It also discusses the study's significance and its contribution to knowledge, implications, limitations and suggestion for the future research.

### **9.2 Summary of the study**

This study was undertaken to understand the continuing professional development (CPD) of the state primary school headteachers in two different contexts: Midlands (UK) and the State of Punjab (India). This study did not focus the whole of the Midlands and the State of Punjab due to limited resources and time constraints. It focused on two districts from each context namely Ludhiana and Fatehgarh Sahib from Punjab and Dudley and Leicester from the Midlands. The four key questions guiding this research study were as follows:

RQ1: How is the professional development of primary headteachers in the Midlands (UK) and the State of Punjab (India) organised?

RQ2: How are the professional development needs and priorities of primary headteachers identified?

RQ3: What impact do professional development activities undertaken by primary headteachers have on their approach to school leadership? How are these impacts measured and by whom?

RQ4: How does the (national) policy environment in India and the UK influence the professional development of primary headteachers?

A qualitative approach was employed to answer the key research questions. Twenty-eight research participants in total from both contexts of this study were interviewed to answer the research questions. These research participants were categorised as primary headteachers, centre headteachers (see section 4.6) and the CPD training team members (see section 4.6). The research tools implemented for this study included semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observations. All the research data was analysed thematically by adhering to the guiding set of principles suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). The following section will shed light on the key research findings relevant to each research question in turn.

### 9.3 Study findings

RQ1: How is the professional development of primary headteachers in the Midlands (UK) and the State of Punjab (India) organised?

The first research question critically examined the contemporary approaches to primary headteachers' CPD in the Midlands and state of Punjab. The key finding of this study revealed that a lack of systematic approach to CPD resulted in adhocism among English headteachers. A systematic approach to CPD within this study referred to an approach that involves the CPD participants to engage in a reflective practice right from the initial planning stage to the impact stage (Scales et al., 2011). The study identified that English headteachers had no obligatory requirement to do the CPD, however they were held accountable for everything happened in their schools. Hence, as the research findings suggested, headteachers did their best to run their school smoothly in both contexts. English headteachers led on their CPD and attended the CPD events whenever they found it necessary. Headteachers' sole accountability to their respective schools and absence of an organised CPD led to ad-hoc and piecemeal approaches of professional development. In the context of Punjab, a lack of systematic approach to headteachers' formal CPD (three days mandatory training) caused a sense of inadequacy among headteachers. The study revealed that Punjabi headteachers found this mandatory training inadequate as it mainly focused on developing pedagogical skills and ignored leadership and management skills.

This study also showed that all the English headteachers interviewed in this study built networks with other local headteachers to seek professional support. English headteachers often associated with other local school headteachers who shared similar interests and issues of concerns. This idea of building professional networks is similar to the notion of the Networks of Practice (NoPs) (Brown & Duguid, 2000), Learning Communities (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000) or Communities of Practice (CoPs) (Wenger, 1998). In addition to the professional networks, English headteachers had access to live CPD delivered by Teaching Schools, National College and other private CPD providers. Majority of the English headteachers relied on online courses as they were cost effective and offered flexible learning hours. In the context of Punjab, no professional networks, similar to their English counterparts, were identified. Nevertheless, headteachers sought informal help from their family and friends whenever they found themselves stuck with particular tasks at their schools. The research findings also

identified that all the Punjabi headteachers interviewed in this study had no access to online or live CPD courses on Leadership and Management Development.

This study finding showed that in the both contexts of this study, the most common and convenient form of improving professional skills was on-the-job-training. Majority of the headteachers interviewed learned by doing. The idea of learning by doing is similar to the concept of “experiential learning” (Kolb, 2015). The study also showed variations among headteachers’ perceptions of CPD. Some of the English headteachers raised their concerns about an organised and mandatory CPD while others were happy with persisting ad-hoc and piecemeal approach to the CPD. The study revealed that majority of the Punjabi headteachers was not satisfied with the mandatory training/CPD as it did not offer what they expected. A couple of Punjabi headteachers, similar to their English counterparts, raised their concerns of an organised and mandatory CPD for leadership and management skill development.

RQ2: How are the professional development needs and priorities of primary headteachers identified?

The second research question examined the headteachers’ CPD need analysis processes in the both given contexts of this study. Eddy-Spicer et al. (2014) suggest that the governing body in English schools has the strategic responsibility to carry out headteacher performance management (HTPM). The HTPM involves two dimensions which are the development of headteacher’s capacity and accountability for headteacher’s performance (Eddy-Spicer et al., 2019). This study found that there were inconsistencies in the need analysis processes among English headteachers. Majority of the headteachers set their CPD objectives themselves on the basis of their School Development Plan needs. This study found that majority of the governing bodies lacked appropriate skills and expertise to carry out headteacher’s performance process. There only exception was that one of the English headteachers had a robust headteacher performance management in her school that had the ability to knit headteacher’s personal and professional development in connection with school development priorities.

The research findings in the context of Punjab revealed that the purpose of the school management committee (SMC) is similar to the governing body (GB) except headteachers’ performance management. This study found that the SMC in Punjab is responsible to monitor the working of school, to prepare and recommend school development plan, and to monitor the

use of school grants received from government, local authority or any other sources. This finding is consistent with the research by Dwivedi and Naithani (2015).

RQ3: What impact do professional development activities undertaken by primary headteachers have on their approach to school leadership? How are these impacts measured and by whom?

The third research question critically examined the extent to which headteachers' CPD activities impacted their approach to school leadership. It also examined the ways in which CPD impact evaluation was carried out both by the headteachers and by the CPD facilitators in the given contexts of this study. The key research finding of this study revealed that the impact of CPD activities undertaken by the primary headteachers in both contexts was minimal. This study also identified that there was a lack of systematic impact evaluation among school headteachers and the CPD facilitators/providers. This research finding is similar to the finding of the studies by Liebowitz and Porter (2019), Daniels et al., (2019), Guskey (2009) and Day and O'Connor (2003) (see section 2.4) and it was almost an ignored area in schools (Bubb & Earley, 2007).

The study found that the tools employed for impact evaluation in both research contexts lacked efficacy. It was found that headteachers relied on simple measurement tools to measure the impact of their CPD activities such as personal perceptions, subjective impressions or performing a tick-box exercise. This finding is in line with Earley and Porritt's (2014) research in which they mentioned that much evaluation of professional development by school leaders is impressionistic, anecdotal, and focused on simple measures.

According to research findings, in the view of headteachers, it appeared as though the CPD providers/facilitators in both contexts employed a top-down approach to deliver the CPD training and the CPD impact evaluation, and participants' needs analysis process were usually skipped or undermined. Another key finding of this study showed that gaining the NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) (structured CPD) had a positive impact on English headteachers' professional practice. The NPQH was regarded as a high quality CPD by some of the headteachers. Networking, professional conversations, and reflective practice were the key features which made this qualification (NPQH) impactful for the primary school headteachers in the English context. In Punjab, it was identified, from the headteachers

interviewed, that no professional qualification specific to headteachers' role similar to the NPQH existed.

RQ4: How does the (national) policy environment in India and the UK influence the professional development of primary headteachers?

The fourth and final research question investigated the impact of the National Education Policy on headteachers' CPD. The research findings revealed that English headteachers' CPD was driven by the National Education Policy or school development needs rather than their personal professional development needs. In the context of Punjab, it was found that the aims and objectives of primary headteachers' three days formal mandatory training provided on the annual basis were shaped by the National policy initiatives.

This study also identified that these education policy initiatives had both positive and negative impact on headteachers' professional learning. On the positive side, whenever a new policy initiative was introduced, the school headteachers being accountable for everything in their school were under compulsion to implement it in their respective schools which led them to improve their professional skills. Conversely, as this study found that the shifting National Education Policy context created commotion among headteachers which had the negative impact on their professional learning and well-being. It was identified that the headteachers were under huge pressures to implement policy initiatives in their respective schools in order to survive in their jobs.

Another key finding of this study revealed that continuing professional development was not well integrated into the school strategies in both contexts. This research finding is similar to the finding of Sambrook and Stewart (2002) in which they argue that human resource development is not well integrated into the corporate strategies of many organisations and professional development is often considered more as a cost than as an investment. This study identified that primary headteachers in both contexts, no matter how skilful and competent, faced difficulties in implementing education policy in their respective schools when they were bombarded with new policy initiatives. In addition, lack of adequate resources, time and money also influenced the implementation of government initiatives into their respective schools.

The study's findings suggested that some of the English headteachers while setting their CPD objectives prioritised their school development needs and dropped out their personal professional development needs due to inadequate school funding and heavy workloads. Perryman and Calvert (2020) relate headteachers' this situation of decision making regarding their CPD to the culture of performative accountability of education of 21<sup>st</sup> century where teaching and learning are determined in accordance with learning outcomes and objectives. According to Perryman and Calvert (2020) performativity in education can lead to a sense of deprofessionalisation among educators as it can make them feel that they are performing to exhibit their competencies and they are a technical workforce to be managed and controlled rather than professionals to be respected (Tomlinson, 2005).

In the light of above findings, this study suggests that if the headteachers' professional learning is to be effective, then headteachers need to engage in a continuous process of reflective practice. In other words, they need to employ a systematic approach to professional learning that involves participants to engage in a reflective practice right from the initial planning stage to the impact stage (Luneta, 2012; Scales et al., 2011). In order to develop an action plan (initial stage) for their CPD, headteachers may involve in the "internal and external searches" (see sections 3.4.3 & 3.4.4) to deconstruct their professional narratives (see section 3.4.2). This process of need analysis might enable the headteachers to find out the valid and effective aspects of their professional narrative along with the aspects that need reconstruction (Mitchell & Sackney, 2001). Wenger (1998) suggests that learning is a social process and individuals' learning become impactful when they engage in an active process of learning with the other members of their group to negotiate meanings. According to the research findings of this study, a multilevel or multidimensional approach to headteachers' CPD appeared to be appropriate in order to enhance headteachers' professional learning (Avolio 2004; Day, 2001; Day & O'Connor, 2003). A multidimensional approach to professional development or leadership development involves three knowledge principles namely intrapersonal, interpersonal and relational (see sections 2.4 & 8.2). According to the intrapersonal knowledge principle, leadership is constructed in terms of personal dominance which results in an enhanced human capital whereas the interpersonal knowledge principle adds interpersonal influence to leaders' world view which provides them with an enriched social capital without losing their personal dominance. The relational knowledge principle involves relational dialogue that neither relies on a strong individual leader nor grants influence to a collective vision. It rather considers all

individuals as leaders who can create the system capital by committing towards each other in order to bring change (Day & Lance, 2004; Day & O'Connor, 2003).

Hence, this study suggests that headteachers can form the Networks of Practice (NoPs) (Brown & Duguid, 2000) in which they can “engage mutually” with their peers and other expertise on regular basis to form a “joint enterprise” (Wenger, 1998) that involves intrapersonal, interpersonal and relational aspects of learning ( Day & Lance, 2004; Day & O'Connor, 2003; Mitchell & Sackney, 2000) and to produce a “shared repertoire” (Wenger, 1998) that includes human, social, and the system capitals (Day & O'Connor, 2003) . Guskey (2009) suggests that the act of sharing professional development experiences among educators from various schools can both initiate and sustain improvement dynamically.

#### **9.4 Contribution to knowledge and originality of the research**

At the outset, during literature review, this study identified the knowledge gap in the area of school leadership development. First, the study identified that there is a growing consensus that research on Educational and Leadership Management is more on Western contexts and it needs be carried out in more diverse Asian contexts to develop deeper knowledge in the subject (Mertkan et al., 2017; Truong et al., 2017) (see section 1.7.1). Second, it identified that little research has been conducted on how effectively school headteachers are developed (Liebowitz & Porter, 2019) (see sections 1.8 & 2.4). Third, it identified that there is a paucity of research studies providing an overview of headteachers’ professional development activities undertaken as well as their needs and priorities for professional development (Daniels et al., 2019) (see sections 1.8 & 2.3.1). Fourth, it identified that little is known about the impact of the various types of school headteachers’ professional development activities. (Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011) (see sections 1.8, 2.3.1 & 2.4). Fifth, this study identified that focus on continuing professional development (CPD) of school leaders/headteachers is limited (Moorosi & Bush, 2011) (see section 2.3.2). Sixth, it identified that literature on teachers’ CPD is partial, fragmented, and under-theorised (Guskey 2009; Kennedy, 2014; McCormick, 2010) (see sections 1.8 & 2.6). Finally, it identified that there is a lack of a clear framework which can successfully meet headteachers’ professional development needs and priorities (Wright & da Costa, 2016) (see sections 1.8, 2.3 & 2.3.2).

This study fills the knowledge gap in the literature highlighted above. First, this is a comparative study of two different contexts: UK (Western) and India (Asian). In particular, in the state of Punjab this study appears to be first of this kind of empirical research in relation to state primary school headteachers CPD. Second, this study suggests that both a “collaborative CPD” (Kennedy, 2011) or the Networks of Practice (NoPs) (Brown & Duguid, 2000), and “structured CPD” such as the NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) might be helpful in developing effective school headteachers. Third, this study advocates Guskey’s (2002) five levels of impact evaluation to identify headteachers’ CPD needs and to gauge the potential impact of the CPD programmes. Fourth, this study integrates four theoretical approaches in order to theorise the phenomenon (headteachers’ CPD) under investigation and these involve Brown and Duguid’s (2000) Networks of Practice (NoPs), Wenger’s (1998) Communities of Practice Theory (CoPs), Mitchell and Sackney’s (2000) Capacity Building Model for a Learning Community, and Sambrook’s (2002) Holistic Model of Factors Influencing Learning at Work. Finally, this study makes a theoretical contribution by proposing a *Framework for Forming a NoP for Headteachers’ CPD* (see section 8.7, figure 7). This study fills the gap in the Brown and Duguid’s (2000) Networks of Practice (NoPs) by integrating three dimensions of practice namely mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998) which provide a coherent structure to the headteachers’ development groups or informal connections within the given research context. Along with Wenger’s (1998) three dimensions of practice, Mitchell & Sackney’s (2000) three levels of capacity building namely personal, interpersonal and organisational have been integrated into the Networks of Practice to provide an appropriate curriculum/content for headteachers’ professional development in the given study context. In addition to proposing a framework for forming a NoP for headteachers’ CPD, this study also proposes a *Factor Analysis Model* (see section 8.7.1, table 8) to identify potential barriers and facilitators for headteachers’ participation in the CPD activities.

As a whole, this study proposes that a combination of four theoretical frameworks appears to be an appropriate way to theorise headteachers’ CPD practice within the given context of this study. Finally, the findings might be useful for the policy makers in the Primary Education Sectors in both contexts to enhance professional practice of the school headteachers.



## **9.5 Research significance**

The research findings from this study are beneficial for the Primary Education Sector in both the English and Punjabi contexts. The study revealed that there is a need for educational authorities to take steps for primary headteachers' sustainable professional development. It was found that headteachers' professional development in both contexts lacked sustainability. For example, majority of the English headteachers interviewed relied on a sporadic and an ad hoc CPD whereas Punjabi headteachers' formal mandatory training was project based. Put differently, when the state project (Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab) comes to halt, Punjabi headteachers' formal mandatory training will automatically stop. Hence, there is an urgent need for the Ministries of Education to take actions regarding headteachers' sustainable professional development policy implementation.

This study advocates that while formulating headteachers' CPD policy, the macro (national), meso (state), and micro (school) levels of factors might be taken into account to avoid failures (House & Mcquillan, 2005). In order to ensure an effective implementation of CPD policy at macro, meso, and micro levels, powerful measurement tools could be developed. The study revealed that there is a need for the CPD facilitators/providers to develop a systematic impact evaluation methodology (Bush et al, 2010). Hence, they could employ a range of models of professional learning as impact evaluation tools, for example Guskey's (2002) five levels of impact evaluation, Desimone's (2009) conceptual framework for studying the effect of professional development or Stake's (1967) countenance model to name a few (see section 2.7). These models could also be used to design a systematic evaluation for headteachers' CPD events.

This study found that the English headteachers enhanced their professional practice more than anything else by building networks with other local school headteachers. Hence, they could expand their networks by developing "strong ties" as well as "weak ties" (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000) to strengthen the structure of their networks to convert them into ideal Networks of Practice (NoPs) (Brown & Duguid, 2000). In addition to, in their "NoPs" headteachers can engage in the "mutual engagement" to create a "joint enterprise/curriculum/content" in order to develop a "shared repertoire/practice/system capital" for their appropriate professional development for the sustainable improvement. The implication of this research finding is significant in particular in the context of Punjab, for example Punjabi headteachers could

benefit by forming the Networks of Practice (NoPs) that may supplement their inadequate mandatory training.

The research findings also revealed that the English headteacher performance management is ineffective as governing bodies (GBs) lack experience and expertise around performance management. Hence, the governing body could conduct audit checks on regular basis to identify the gaps among governors' capacity. Once gaps are identified, it may be followed by governors', in particular members responsible for headteachers' appraisal, continuous training on headteacher performance management. The implication of this finding in Punjab, could be assigning responsibility of headteachers' performance management to school management committees (SMCs) and supporting committee members to carry out headteacher performance management by conducting regular audit checks followed by an appropriate training. Finally, this study revealed that the school contexts were underrated by the CPD providers while designing and delivering the CPD events or courses within the given contexts of the study. Therefore, there is a need for the CPD providers/facilitators to embed headteachers' professional development in the authentic school conditions so that they can implement their learning into their schools.

### **9.6 Limitations of the study**

The study was significant as it has provided insights into the phenomenon of primary headteachers' CPD in two diverse contexts in terms of culture, education, and geography. However, like any other research this study also has some limitations which need to be acknowledged. First, this study is based on relatively small sample size and it covered two districts from each context. For example, Ludhiana and Fatehgarh Sahib from Punjab (India) and Dudley and Leicester from the Midlands (UK). Hence, the case presented in this study may not be an accurate representation of other cohorts elsewhere in India and the UK. Nonetheless, it is worth mentioning here that a qualitative research is about the quality of data not about the quantity of data and it is not about numbers but depth. Kumar (2011) argues that the sample must be appropriate to the research question and aims of the study. Second, this study was context specific as it was restricted to the state primary schools only which limits the transferability of the research findings to the state primary schools as they share similar characteristics. These research findings may not be transferable to the private primary schools as they differ in terms of conditions and contexts.

Third, there were inconsistencies in employing research tools and the amount of data collected between the given research contexts due to accessibility to the research participants. For example, in the English context, data was collected by conducting semi-structured interviews with headteachers only whereas, in the context of Punjab, research data was collected by conducting semi-structured interviews with headteachers, one focus group with centre head teachers and the second focus group with CPD training team members. The data was also collected by observing headteachers' three days formal mandatory training. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that data collected from each context was adequate to answer all the research questions of this study.

Finally, the translation of data from Punjabi to English might be regarded as another limitation of this research as the process is not without drawbacks. Nevertheless, considerable amount of attention was paid to ensure the validity of translation process (see section 4.11, phase 1) and I am confident that the translated data faithfully represented the meanings expressed by the research participants.

### **9.7 Suggestions for future research**

There is a growing consensus that research on Educational Leadership and Management is more on Western context as compared to Asian context (Hallinger & Chen, 2015). It is argued that in order to develop deeper insight and knowledge into educational leadership practice, there is need to do research in more diverse Asian contexts (Bysik, 2015). Hence, a replication of this study elsewhere in Asia particular in India would be of great value to develop understanding and gain more insight into the school headteachers'/leaders' development. As it has been discussed earlier that this present study has inconsistencies between using research tools and the amount of data collection in the given contexts (see section 9.6). A future research can be conducted in similar contexts (UK and India) by implementing a mix method approach with similar categories of research participants from each context to get a whole picture.

This study found that there was a need to yield valid evidence of how the CPD courses or activities impacted headteachers' approach to school leadership. The educational research authorities can encourage the researchers and school leaders to conduct further research on this topic such as what hindered headteachers' CPD impact evaluation process. It might be quite helpful to improve the quality and design of future CPD courses for headteachers.

Further, it was realised that a period of three years to do this comparative study was a limitation. Hence, similar research could be conducted in future in the UK and India by allowing more to portray a holistic picture. For instance, research data can be collected by covering wider geographical area from a larger number of participants. In addition, different types of schools; i.e., the state, private, special needs and faith schools can be involved to gain broader perspectives of the phenomenon.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1: The official letter for research site access

To

The District Education Officer (Primary)  
Court Complex  
Ludhiana

**Subject: Regarding meeting with the Primary School Headteachers and Seminar Team.**

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Jaspal Kaur. I am currently pursuing **PhD in Education** from the **University of Huddersfield (UK)** in School of Education and Professional Development department. The title of my research is '*Investigating Primary School Headteachers' Professional Development in England and India*'.

I would like to have meetings with the Primary School Headteachers and Seminar Team in order to collect data for my research project. I would also like to attend seminars for two days in any block of Ludhiana.

Kindly grant me permission to do so. I would be very grateful to you. Please find the following documents enclosed with this letter for further details of the aims and expected outcomes of this research project:

1. Research Summary of PhD Project
2. Invitation letter for the Primary School Headteachers
3. Student ID Card
4. Biometric Residence Permit (Visa)
5. Passport (ID & Proof of Residence)

Please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor if you have any further queries regarding my research.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely,  
Jaspal Kaur

## Appendix 2: Research summary

### **Investigating Primary School Headteachers' Professional Development in England and India.**

#### Outline of an ongoing 36 months research project by Jaspal Kaur.

This research study is being conducted under the supervision of Professor Paul W. Miller, Professor of Educational Leadership and Management in the School of Education & Professional Development at the University of Huddersfield.

School leadership has become a matter of high priority in education policy agendas all over the world. The researchers have claimed that effective school leaders play a pivotal role in improving school outcome. It is suggested that quality of leadership can make a difference between a school of low performance and high performance.

School leadership development emerged as a new challenge for many countries around the world specifically in developing countries and it has become the central focus in education systems due to three factors: evidence from research; changing and complex expectations about the school system and the imperative to improve quality. The current scenario demands the role of traditional school leaders to be reconsidered which is confined to the administrative activities only. They are now required to be instructional leaders as their role includes financial and human resource management and leadership for learning. The 25 years of the 'Education For All' movement have been marked by a shift in focus from quantity (access, enrolment and retention) to quality (achievement, learning outcomes). This new vision for education proclaims school leadership as a key policy priority in the fourth sustainable goal of EFA 2015.

The paucity of relevant data has been identified as an important factor and challenge to the development and implementation of effective leadership and policy reform. It's been suggested that in order to close the knowledge gap, the above mentioned issues needs to be addressed urgently at regional, national, and global levels (UNESCO 2016).

I choose to conduct my research in England and India. The main focus of this research study will be on the Professional Development of Primary School Leaders/Headteachers. This study will explore how is the professional development of Primary Headteachers is organised and how are their professional development needs prioritised and identified in England and India. The impact of professional development activities undertaken by Primary Headteachers of England and India have on their approach to school leadership and the impact and influence of the (national) policy environment on the professional development of Primary Headteachers in both countries will be examined and investigated respectively.

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Vice-Chancellor: Professor Bob Cryan CBE DL FREng MBA DSc CEng FIET FHEA



The proposed study is expected to contribute to our understanding of the effectiveness and organisation of CPD for Headteachers. Policy makers and those responsible for Headteacher preparation and development may also benefit from the findings.

**The key questions guiding the research are:**

- How is the professional development of Primary Headteachers in England and India organised?
- How are the professional development needs and priorities of Primary Headteachers identified?
- What impact do professional development activities undertaken by Headteachers have on their approach to school leadership? How are these impacts measured and by whom?
- How does the (national) policy environment in England and India influence the professional development of Primary Headteachers?

**Research Approach**

After conducting a careful review of research approaches and methods, it was decided to adopt a qualitative approach to examining the issue of Headteacher Professional Development in England and India.

**Research Methods**

In-depth Interviews: In-depth interview (face to face) will be conducted with the Primary School Headteachers to identify their views on their professional development activities both in England and India.

**The Research Team**

**Supervisor:** Professor Paul W. Miller, University of Huddersfield.

**PhD Student:** Jaspal Kaur

### Appendix 3: Invitation letter for research participants



Dear.....

My name is Jaspal Kaur. I am a full time PhD student at the University of Huddersfield in School of Education and Professional Development department. The title of my research is 'Investigating Primary School Headteachers' Professional Development in England and India'.

I would like to invite you for an interview which will serve the purpose of data collection for my research project. Your participation in this research project is voluntary and you will be free to withdraw consent and discontinue participation in this research project at any time. The information collated during this research will remain confidential, secured and anonymous and participants will be given an opportunity to review the transcript of their interview before analysis and integration with the main findings take place.

The main focus of this study is to:

- Explore how is the professional development of Primary Headteachers is organised and how are their professional o development needs prioritised and identified in England and India.
- Examine the impact of professional development activities undertaken by Primary Headteachers of England and India have on their approach to school leadership.
- Investigate the impact and influence of the (national) policy environment on the professional development of Primary Headteachers in both countries.

A summary of this research is enclosed which can be referred for further details of the aims and expected outcomes of this research project. Your participation will be a valuable contribution for this research project. If you are willing to take part in an interview, I would like to arrange a meeting with you at your convenience. The interview might take 30-45 minutes to complete. If you have any further queries regarding my research, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor.

Many thanks for taking time reading this information.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,  
Jaspal Kaur

## Appendix 4: Head's Newsletter



Dear All,



She didn't add that, this year, it fell in the same fortnight as World Book Day (double respect to teachers dressing their own children too) and Red Nose Day.

Have a great week, supporters of the nation's fun  
Liz

**This week:**

**OfSTED pilots**  
**Pre-KS2 Stage standards**  
**Additional Needs**  
**Changes**  
**Brexit for schools**  
**Resources**  
**Research**  
**Other National**  
**Snippets**  
**Dates**

### OfSTED pilots

Sean Hartford has fed back some of the [early findings from piloting the new framework](#).

About evens, just tipping into positive reactions, to:

- Starting the [inspection](#) the lunchtime before, some agree that it does help to give more time to getting a joint view of the inspection, others said it just felt like a two and a half day inspection
- Not looking at internal performance data "Inspectors will still use the inspection data summary report. But it's only ever a starting point and always has been. It cannot lead to conclusions. Making progress means learning the curriculum, not increasing points scores." – This last bit is interesting as anecdotal feedback is suggesting that inspectors are more likely to ask random factual questions of children to test their knowledge while on site – might need to get a school quiz team going?

Perhaps asking the wrong question?

- Response to having a [two day](#) inspection for all Good schools has raised the point of it depending on how many inspectors are used

Whatever you think, have your say: [Education inspection framework 2019: inspecting the substance of education](#). I haven't submitted an LPP response as many of you differ, especially around the lunch time start.

### Pre-KS2 Stage standards

#### *Moderation*

#### *Exemplification*

The DfE has published [Pre-key stage English language comprehension and reading exemplification](#)

#### *Training*

At DG several didn't seem to have seen the attached flyer for training for Years 2 and 6 teachers – it's soon so please look.

### Other pointers

- STA no longer requires TA for reading and maths at KS2 because the test is the accountable measure, but it would be easy for schools to overlook those pupils not taking the tests.
- Any child for whom you put a B on the Test Entry sheet for either reading or mathematics **must have a teacher assessment submitted before the 27<sup>th</sup> June**
- **Pupils below the level of the test Y6 will still need teacher assessment judgements submitting for reading, writing and mathematics at the end of June. The new pre-key stage standards must be used to form these judgements.**
- While submitting the pre-key stage judgements for any pupils working below the standard of the test in June is statutory, attendance at the moderation session is not. It's as much aimed at bringing teachers / SENCos from special and mainstream schools together.

### Other work

- The West DG is undertaking a very effective project on raising achievement in writing and has several teachers who are likely to have good knowledge of the pre-key stage standards by the end of the year
- The Central DG are starting a project on moderating in this area and are linking with the Citywide Assessment and Moderation Steering Group as they do this

Current Document

## Additional Needs

### City SEND Strategy

The consultation on the SEND Strategy is now live and up for consultation from the public. You can view both here <https://consultations.leicester.gov.uk/communications/send/>

### Hospital School Charges

Steve Deadman has written the attached letter explaining how charging will change. He believes that few Primary schools will be affected but you may want to explore further if you have children accessing this provision. He summarizes the changes as:

- No charges for any pupil who is an inpatient (LRI, Glenfield, Coalville Hospitals)
- Home tuition charges after 4 weeks of support
- Changes only apply to new referrals from 1<sup>st</sup> April i.e. any existing children on roll continue without charge

Provision	Full weekly cost (per pupil)	Current cost to schools	Proposed weekly costs (1 <sup>st</sup> April)
Inpatients in hospital	£460 - £579	£0	£0
Home Tuition	£385	£0	£71

## Changes

### Christ The King

Our congratulations to Annie Carter, who has been appointed as substantive Head.

### Overdale Infants

Karen Stuart will be retiring in the Summer and interviews for her successor will be held soon.

### Castle Mead Academy

[Tom Hague](#), Principal Designate has provided his contact email in case you have any questions or need information for Year 6 parents. [thague@castle-tmet.uk](mailto:thague@castle-tmet.uk) 0116 214 3148

We welcome him as a colleague in the City.



## Brexit for schools

There are so many ways this could go this week that I'll save advice out there until later in the week. There are some of the pointers on the Extranet today, which reiterates DfE advice sent in early February.

## Resources

### *Evidence based Governance*

The EEF has published the attached guide, which is summarised into ten tips [which is summarised into ten tips here](#).

### *Storytime From Space*

Missed the start (launch...) of this project last year? It may engage some of your readers that other stories don't reach, or provide a class read; love this one [Mousetronaut](#).

## Research

We say we value research. Anyone able to help a researcher? Please see the attached details and [email me](#) if you can help

## Other National

### *SEND costs/funding*

- In mid-February there was [landmark judicial review that will give schools more power to challenge council SEND placements](#) In short, a boy had had a £40,000 placement in his previous authority, Medway took some bits out of his plan to make it look like a mainstream school EHCP. The school challenged it with the DfE (because they were worried for the pupil's safety) and lost, then took Medway to court, at a cost of at least £40,000. The High Court agreed the placement is unsuitable. The school will be paid £40,000 a year until a suitable special school placement can be found.
- The High Needs Funding cuts prompt some sympathy for Medway and this is reflected in this week as [parents win High Court showdown over legality of SEND funding cuts](#)

### *Primary Careers Education*

Currently a bit of a focus. The DfE has "published [research](#) that shows 96% of primary schools are offering tailored career activities to pupils, despite not being compelled to, and is committing ensure this reaches 100% by working with industry professionals."

### *School Funding*

Nick Gibb says there is 50% more funding per pupil than in 2000. This was rebuffed with "If funding per pupil had been maintained in value since 2015, there would be £1.7bn more in the system now"

## Snippets

- The Music Commission [released the results](#) of its 18 month inquiry into music for schools and young people. It recommends more use of new technology in the teaching and learning of music, for Music Education Champions and for schools only to be classed as 'outstanding' if they demonstrate artistic and cultural provision.
- Brexit guidance for Kent schools includes installing extractor fans, having a lock down procedure for when air-quality gets too bad, formalising car-sharing arrangements and providing accommodation for staff who are blocked from getting home by grid-locked freight.
- "Parents with the time to attend meetings and knock up a Victoria sponge are seen as supportive, parents who don't are seen as "hard to reach", but does any of this help?" [@susanward30](#)

## Appendix 5: Consent form

### Consent Form

**Title: Investigating Primary School Headteachers' Professional Development in England and India.**

*Please tick the box as appropriate.*

1.	I confirm that I have read and understood the information about the research project.	
2.	I had the opportunity to ask questions regarding the research project.	
3.	I understand that my participation is voluntary and I have the right to withdraw consent and discontinue participation in this research project at any time without providing reason.	
4.	I agree to participate in this research project.	
5.	I agree the interview to be audio recorded.	
6.	The use and storing of interview data in research project, has been explained to me clearly.	
7.	<p>Select only <b>one</b> of the following as appropriate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I would like my name to be used so that anything I have contributed to this research project can be recognised.</li> <li>• I do not want my name to be used in this research project.</li> </ul>	

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Researcher

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

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## Appendix 6: The interview guide for school headteachers

<b>Interview Guide for Primary Headteachers</b>
<p><i>Preliminary questions</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- How long have you been a Headteacher?</li><li>- How long have you been at Headteacher's post in this school?</li><li>- Have you been at Headteacher's Post in other schools before joining this school?</li><li>- How many years of teaching experience altogether do you have?</li></ul>
<p><b><i>RQ 1: How is the professional development of primary headteachers in the Midlands (UK) and in the state of Punjab (India) organised?</i></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- How often do you participate in CPD activities?</li><li>- Who arrange these CPD activities/trainings?</li><li>- Are current arrangements for CPD delivery suitable to your needs and other commitments?</li></ul>
<p><b><i>RQ 2: How are the professional development needs and priorities of primary headteachers identified?</i></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- How are your professional development needs identified/ prioritised? or</li><li>- How are training/CPD activities decided?</li> <li>- How are topics/objectives for CPD activities identified?</li> <li>- How CPD is delivered? or</li><li>- What strategies are implemented to deliver CPD?</li> <li>- Does the training/ CPD provided to you adequately address your needs? or</li><li>- Are your training/ CPD needs being met from your involvement in current CPD activities?</li> <li>- <i>If not, what specific might be missing? And how do you think these areas of need can be met?</i></li> <li>- What other, if any, topics or areas of focus would you benefit from?</li></ul>

***RQ 3: What impact do professional development activities undertaken by headteachers have on their approach to school leadership? How are these impacts measured and by whom?***

- Do you think these activities have an impact on your role as a headteacher?
- How do you measure these impacts? or
- How can you measure these impacts?

***RQ 4: How does the (National) policy environment in India and England influence the professional development of Primary Headteachers?***

- Do national education policy initiatives affect your CPD in any way? If yes, how?
- Could you tell me in what ways national education policy influence you CPD?

***Post Interview Feedback***

- Feedback for this interview
- Anything we have not covered in this interview

## Appendix 7: The interview guide for school headteachers Punjabi version

### Interview Guide for Primary School Principals (Punjabi Version)

#### Preliminary Questions

1. ਤੁਸੀ ਕਿੰਨੇ ਸਮੇਂ ਤੋਂ ਸਕੂਲ ਦੇ ਪ੍ਰਿੰਸੀਪਲ ਹੋ?
2. ਤੁਸੀ ਕਿੰਨੇ ਸਮੇਂ ਤੋਂ ਇਸ ਸਕੂਲ ਵਿੱਚ ਪ੍ਰਿੰਸੀਪਲ ਦੀ post ਤੇ ਹੋ?
3. ਕੀ ਤੁਸੀ ਇਸ ਸਕੂਲ ਨੂੰ join ਕਰਨ ਤੋਂ ਪਹਿਲਾਂ ਵੀ ਕਿਸੇ ਸਕੂਲ ਵਿੱਚ ਪ੍ਰਿੰਸੀਪਲ ਰਹਿ ਚੁੱਕੇ ਹੋ?
4. ਤੁਹਾਡੇ ਕੋਲ total ਕਿੰਨੇ ਸਾਲਾਂ ਦਾ teaching experience ਹੈ ?

#### Research Question 1

*England ਅਤੇ India ਵਿੱਚ primary school principals ਦੀ professional development ਕਿਵੇਂ organise ਕੀਤੀ ਜਾਂਦੀ ਹੈ ?*

1. ਤੁਸੀ ਸਾਲ ਵਿੱਚ ਕਿੰਨੀ ਵਾਰ CPD training ਵਿੱਚ participate ਕਰਦੇ ਹੋ ?
2. ਇਹ CPD training/activities ਕੌਣ arrange ਕਰਦਾ ਹੈ?  
ਜੇ current CPD arrangements ਹਨ, ਕੀ ਉਹ ਤੁਹਾਡੀਆਂ ਜ਼ਰੂਰਤਾਂ ਅਤੇ ਹੋਰ commitments ਦੇ ਅਨੁਕੂਲ ਹਨ ?

#### Research Question 2

*ਪ੍ਰਾਇਮਰੀ ਸਕੂਲ ਪ੍ਰਿੰਸੀਪਲ ਦੀਆਂ professional development needs ਅਤੇ prioritises ਕਿਵੇਂ identify ਕੀਤੀਆ ਜਾਂਦੀਆਂ ਹਨ ?*

1. ਤੁਹਾਡੀਆਂ professional development needs ਕਿਵੇਂ identify ਕੀਤੀਆ ਜਾਂਦੀਆਂ ਹਨ? ਜਾਂ ਕਿਵੇਂ decide ਕੀਤੀਆ ਜਾਂਦੀਆਂ ਹਨ?
2. CPD activities ਦੇ topics/objectives ਕਿਵੇਂ identify ਕੀਤੇ ਜਾਦੇ ਹਨ?

3. CPD ਕਿਵੇਂ deliver ਕੀਤੇ ਜਾਂਦੇ ਹਨ? (strategies/ways)
4. ਕੀ CPD trainings ਤੁਹਾਡੀਆਂ ਜ਼ਰੂਰਤਾਂ ਦੇ ਅਨੁਕੂਲ ਹੁੰਦੀਆਂ ਹਨ?  
ਜੇਕਰ ਨਹੀਂ ਤਾਂ specifically ਕੀ missing ਹੈ? ਅਤੇ ਤੁਹਾਡੇ ਅਨੁਸਾਰ ਇਹਨਾਂ CPD trainings ਨੂੰ ਕਿਵੇਂ effective ਬਣਾਇਆ ਜਾ ਸਕਦਾ ਹੈ
5. ਤੁਸੀਂ ਹੋਰ ਕਿਹੜੇ topics /areas suggest ਕਰੋਗੇ ਜੋ ਕਿ ਤੁਹਾਡੇ ਲਈ beneficial ਹੋਣ

### Research Question 3

ਜੇ CPD trainings ਤੁਸੀਂ attend ਕਰਦੇ ਹੋ, ਇਹ ਤੁਹਾਡੀ school leadership ਨੂੰ ਕਿਵੇਂ impact ਕਰਦੀਆਂ ਹਨ? ਅਤੇ ਇਹ impact ਕਿਵੇਂ measure ਕੀਤੇ ਜਾਂਦੇ ਹਨ?

1. ਕੀ ਇਹ CPD trainings as a principal ਤੁਹਾਨੂੰ impact ਕਰਦੀਆਂ ਹਨ? (ਕਿਵੇਂ)
2. ਤੁਸੀਂ ਇਹ impact ਕਿਵੇਂ measure ਕਰਦੇ ਹੋ? ਜਾਂ ਇਹ impact ਕਿਵੇਂ measure ਕੀਤੇ ਜਾ ਸਕਦੇ ਹਨ?

### Research Question 4

England ਅਤੇ India ਵਿੱਚ national policy environment ਪ੍ਰਾਇਮਰੀ ਸਕੂਲ ਪ੍ਰਿੰਸੀਪਲ ਦੀ professional development ਨੂੰ ਕਿਵੇਂ ਪ੍ਰਭਾਵਿਤ ਕਰਦਾ ਹੈ?

1. ਕੀ national education policy ਤੁਹਾਡੇ CPD ਨੂੰ ਕਿਸੇ ਵੀ ਤਰ੍ਹਾਂ ਪ੍ਰਭਾਵਿਤ ਕਰਦੀ ਹੈ? ਜੇ ਹਾਂ ਤਾਂ ਕਿਵੇਂ?

### Post Interview Feedback

ਇਸ interview ਬਾਰੇ ਤੁਹਾਡੀ ਕੀ feedback ਹੈ?

ਕੁਝ ਅਜਿਹਾ ਵੀ ਹੈ ਜੋ ਅਸੀਂ ਇਸ interview ਵਿੱਚ cover ਨਹੀਂ ਕੀਤਾ?

**Any further comments ?**

## Appendix 8: Observation checklist sample

Date: 06-08-2018		Time: 08:00-14:00	
Key elements to observe		What was observed	
Participants		The main participants were headteachers and teachers There were approximately 40 members and majority of them were class teachers.	
Duration of training		6 hours	
Topics; delivery method; impact evaluation		<p>The <b>main focus of this training was pedagogy</b>. The participants were provided with lots of training on teaching techniques. For example, how to use teaching learning material (TLM) to make their classes interesting and interactive. The CPD team members along with some of the participants shared a range of teaching learning material. Some of them given demonstrations as well. In addition to this, they were given presentation (PPT) on how to use “testing tool” (an app) in order to assess and record students learning outcome. The participants were given <b>education policy updates</b> as well. For example, information about launch of Nursery sections in state primary schools and E-Content and <b>new assessment strategy</b> such as Testing Tool and so on. Majority of the training was <b>lectured based</b>. The presenters used slides to provide information to the participants. They encouraged the participants to share their ideas and practice. Only few of them were interactive who shared their ideas and practice. However, majority of them were identified to be passive learners. It was identified that this <b>training did not include the topics in relation to leadership and management</b>. It mainly focused on teaching and learning. Also, this training <b>lacked impact evaluation...</b></p>	

## Appendix 9: Schedule for focus group 1

<b>Focus group schedule for CPD team</b>
<p><i>Start with initial briefing</i></p> <p><i>Articulate ground rules</i></p> <p>⇒ Can we start with your brief introduction?</p> <p>⇒ Could you please explain your roles and responsibilities as a training team member?</p> <p>⇒ Tell me about CPD organised at district/state level for the primary school headteachers relevant to their job role? (leadership &amp; management)</p> <p>⇒ How are training the team members recruited? Is there any specific criteria/ qualification to be a BMT/CMT?</p> <p>⇒ Who trains the CPD team?</p> <p>⇒ What training do you receive at the state or national levels?</p> <p>⇒ Do you face any challenges while delivering 3 days formal training?</p> <p>⇒ Do you ever modify the formal training? in terms of context, individual learning needs/ priorities</p> <p><i>Thank you for your valuable time and input. I will get back to you later if I have any further queries.</i></p>



## Appendix 10: Schedule for focus group 2

<b>Focus group schedule for CHTs</b>
<p><i>Start with initial briefing</i></p> <p><i>Articulate ground rules</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>⇒ Can we start with your brief introduction?</li><li>⇒ Could you please explain your roles and responsibilities as a CHT?</li><li>⇒ What kind of support do you provide to the primary school headteachers?</li><li>⇒ How is the CHT recruited? Is there any specific criteria/qualification to be a CHT?</li><li>⇒ How often do you participate in CPD activities?</li><li>⇒ What training do you receive at the state/nation level?</li><li>⇒ Is there anything else you would like to share with me?</li></ul> <p><i>Thank you for your valuable time and input. I will get back to you later if I have any further queries.</i></p>

## Appendix 11: Sample of initial coding of the data

<p><b>JK: How long have you been a headteacher?</b></p>	
<p>HT13: 10 years.</p>	
<p><b>JK: How long have you been at a headteacher's post in this school?</b></p>	
<p>HT13: I have been on a headteacher's post for 10 years. This is my first appointment as a headteacher</p>	<p>Experienced headteacher</p>
<p><b>JK: How many years of teaching experience altogether do you have?</b></p>	
<p>HT13: I have 30 years of teaching experience altogether. I am 56 years old now.</p>	<p>Extensive teaching experience</p>
<p><b>JK: How did you become a headteacher? what was the procedure?</b></p>	
<p>HT13: It was seniority base departmental promotion. After I completed about 20 years of teaching as an assistant teacher, I was promoted to be a headteacher.</p>	<p>Seniority base recruitment</p>
<p><b>JK: Is there any specific qualification or training required to be a headteacher?</b></p>	
<p>HT13: No, there is no such qualification to be a headteacher in a state primary school. But to be an assistant teacher in a primary school the candidate must have elementary teacher training (ETT), a two-year diploma. Teaching experience is must to be a headteacher. After I did my ETT successfully and I got appointed as an assistant teacher in a state primary school. I always wanted to be teacher. My dream came true.</p>	<p>No mandatory qualification for HT Teaching experience must Mandatory qualification for teachers</p>
<p><b>JK: How often do you participate in CPD activities?</b></p>	
<p>HT13: There is no special CPD for state primary headteachers. However, there is a 3 days training organised under Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab project annually and it is mandatory for all the primary headteachers and assistant teachers to attend this training. In addition, these are state level online Edusat meetings organised by Mr. Krishan Kumar State Secretary School Education but headteachers and centre headteachers are rarely invited. Information about new educational projects, new schemes, apps and policy changes is provided to the high authority officials during these meetings. These officials are responsible to update the other staff in education such as centre headteachers and headteachers and others. I also have 2-3 meetings in a year with my School Management Committee (SMC) to consider issues of concern if any.</p>	<p>3 days formal mandatory training; Annual based Identical training for HT and teachers Edusat meetings SMC meetings (SMC is similar to governing body in English school)</p>
<p><b>JK: Thank you. Does School Management Committee (SMC) plays any role in your CPD in any way?</b></p>	<p>SMC no role in HT's CPD</p>

HT13: Not at all. The main purpose of (SMC) School Management Committee is to manage grants for school. For instance, if I feel that my school's building needs to be improved I prepare my proposal and forward it to the committee members to consider. If all the members agreed the proposal is signed and passed to the system. If we are lucky enough our school is given grant. They don't have anything to do with staff's professional development. The School Management Committee (SMC) consists of 13 members and they are not very well-educated people. But I have to report them and convince them most of the time to do the right for our school.

**JK: Are current arrangements for CPD delivery suitable to your needs and other commitments?**

HT13: The mandatory training provided by Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab is not sufficient for a HT's role in the modern era of advanced technology. These trainings are good for learning new teaching techniques. I have been in teaching field around 30 years and I know how to teach my students and how do they learn best. But I really need to learn how to run my school being a headteacher with limited resources. I don't have any training relevant to my job role. Being a primary headteacher I have to maintain 4-5 types of registers such as accounts, mid-day meal, grants and funding etc. But no management training is available for headteachers to do their jobs competently. When I get stuck with any specific task, I call my family members, friends and other community members to assist me. Sometimes, I have to visit their place to learn a particular task. I also ask help from my staff, but they have also so much to do. I know many of the HTs struggle to cope with. For example, now we have to do a lot of paperwork but many of us are incompetent to do that. During my ETT diploma, I studied about school management. When I joined as a headteacher, I didn't have any guidelines. No induction was provided. I didn't know what and how to do my job accurately. But the system needs results. They don't care anything else. Their role is to assign you a job without any support and you are responsible for everything going in your school. that's it!

**JK: Thank you. How are your professional development needs identified/prioritised?**

HT13: It is sad to tell you that headteacher's professional development training is an ignored area in the state primary schools. The system doesn't consider it important. The system expects the HTs to do everything accurately without providing them any kind of training relevant to their job role. If anything goes wrong in a school, headteacher is held solely responsible.

**JK: How the topics and objectives of your CPD trainings are set?**

HT13: By the officials in the Department of School Education. The training members BMTs (Block Master Trainers) and CMTs (Cluster Master Trainers) are given state level trainings in Chandigarh. They deliver the same trainings for the primary HTs and ATs at district level. They are not allowed to make any changes in the topics and objectives.

SMC consists of 13 members

SMC members lack expertise

Formal CPD inappropriate for HT

Main focus pedagogy

HT seeks informal help

Workloads  
Skills gained from teacher training

System's ignorance to HT's PD

System's indifference to HTs plight

Needs analysis process missing

Top down approach

Individual needs undermined

**JK: How CPD is delivered?**

HT13: As I mentioned earlier that the training team members are provided state level training in Chandigarh. They are given resources such as TLM samples and slides to deliver this training further at district level. **This 3 days mandatory training is lecture based basically. But some of the presenters if they are creative enough make these trainings very interactive and enjoyable.** They design some activities for the participants. **There can be official visit** during these 3 days trainings. District Education Officers, Block Primary Education Officers and District co-ordinator can **pay surprise visits to examine these trainings.**

Lectured based  
  
Sometimes interactive  
  
Official visits  
Quality check

**JK: Does the training/CPD provided to you adequately address your needs?**

HT13: Not really. As I mentioned earlier this mandatory training is not relevant to a HT's role. During my ETT diploma I studied few chapters on school management and they were useful. **There must be an organised training which is practical and relevant to school management and leadership. I know not all the HTs would like to attend extra training because of their work loads. But the system should relieve them for few days to motivate them to go for some extra training.** In addition to school management and leadership, **training on using E-content, E-Punjab portal, school apps and registers would be beneficial** for the HTs. It will help them to do their job efficiently in time without depending on others.

Management and leadership training required (HT voice)  
  
Extra training depreciate due to workloads  
  
ICT training

**JK: Thanks. Do you think these training/ CPD are being provided have an impact on your role as a Headteacher?**

HT13: It is a good question. **I really need to think about the impact of this training on me as a headteacher.** This training is not relevant to my job role as a headteacher of a primary school.

CPD impact not known;  
Ignored area

**JK: Do you have any inspections?**

HT13: Yes, my school has **surprise inspections many times a year. They expect everything to be in place. For instance, 100% staff and student attendance, 100% complete registers. They can ask for anything and any record. They observe teachers and students. They can interview teachers and students. All the schools are sent a morning slide with aims and objectives. It instructs us what needs to be taught in all subjects (English, Maths, Science and so on). Every day we need to make sure we follow all the instructions and do work accordingly. We make sure we achieve all the aims and objectives set in the morning slides. The inspection team expects us to follow these slides strictly. We can do also extra work if we have enough time. Every morning has a new slide. Sometimes, the students need more than a day to do all the tasks in slides. But we can't help it. We have no choice. It is really difficult most of the times because all the students are not of same levels. If they find we are not following these slides and we are not providing facilities to our students, we are in trouble. If they are kind to us or we are lucky an action plan is**

Surprise inspections  
  
System demands  
  
Additional activities  
  
Unrealistic targets  
  
Power issues

given to be completed in a specific period of time. The inspection team visit again to check whether the action plan is done else the HT can be suspended on the spot or licence of the school can be revoked. It is common in the state primary schools these days.

**JK: Thank you, does National education policy affect your CPD in any way? If yes, how?**

HT13: Yes, the topics of these three days seminars are set on the basis of the education policy. For example, resent new government policy initiatives such as using apps such as ‘testing tool’ for assessing students’ levels of learning and starting nursery section in primary state schools were introduced and these were the main topics of discussion during these seminars. However, these seminars do not provide training on the topics relevant to a headteacher’s role such as school leadership and management. They are more about providing instructions and policy updates. It is sad that the policy makers do not consider headteacher’s professional development training important or they really have no idea about it. I would say it is an ignored area in Punjab in particular. The policy makers need to be educated about the importance of a HT’s continuing professional development.

**JK: Thank you. I have finished. Do you have any questions?**

HT13: No, thank you.

**JK: Is there anything we have not covered during this interview? Any suggestions/feedback?**

HT13: Yes, All the state primary school HTs are working hard and they are doing their best to improve their schools. I have spent around Rs 250,000 from my own pocket to maintain my school for example I spent money on repairing building, constructing toilets, arranging drinking water, wall painting, creating TLMs, building a handwash block for students and so on. I know some of my other colleagues doing the same. The state schools, primary in particular are not given much funding. If the system wants the best from the primary HTs, they must be exempted of teaching and other unnecessary duties such as elections, voter cards and surveys. It affects school education and takes it backward. This time could be utilised to improve teaching and learning in schools. Basic education is not considered important in India. This is the reason that all the state primary school HTs and ATs are allocated unnecessary duties as I mentioned earlier. The system thinks that primary education is very easy and it does not require more time so the staff can be used to do other stuff. We also have families to look after. The system must consider the amount of stress HTs are going through. A headteacher has a number of responsibilities to fulfil. I don’t have any clerk and peon in my school. I do all the paperwork myself. I also go to students’ homes if they don’t attend school regularly. I come to my school at 4:00 am and go back at 5:00 pm. I clean my school myself. Some of my students also help me. My school had 99% result in 2017-2018. No school in the State of Punjab achieved A Grade so far. Since 2008, every year at least one of my school students goes to Navodaya Vidyalayas and it is a great achievement for my school. We arrange

Fear

Education policy shapes CPD

Policy drives CPD

CPD policy

Punjab

Hardworking

Primary schools lack govt. funding

Money from own pocket

Extra workload;

Election duties;

Voter cards;

Surveys

Primary education undermined

HT’s well-being

Lack of basic resources

Long working hours

Work life balance

Outstanding results

free evening coaching classes for students to prepare them for Navodaya Vidyalaya selection test. In addition, I arrange summer and winter camps every year. They are organised during holidays. We don't do any studies but extra-curricular activities such as talent finding, clay modelling, health and nutrition, yoga, painting, calligraphy, dance and music and so on. We also celebrate all the festivals. I do my best. The quality of education can be improved if the corruption in education is removed. The corruption can be controlled if honest and well qualified people are recruited in the education department.

Mr. Krishan Kumar state secretary school education is very good and hard-working person (current). He was removed from the post before by the system. Many of the HTs and ATs were very happy because they don't like to work hard and sincerely. This is the poor mentality of the government employees sometimes. A good person can't survive in the system. Another evil thing is bribing. I don't need to explain it. It is understandable. Corruption is everywhere in all the departments specifically in government sector.

***JK: Thank you very much for your valuable time. I will get back to you later if I have any further queries.***

HT13: Anytime, you are most welcome. I wish you all the best for your PhD project.

Achievements

Values

Extracurricular activities

Corruption

Attitudes

## Appendix 12: Sample of searching themes in data for RQ4

<p>HT1 Punjab female</p>	<p>If there is any new policy introduced by the government, all the primary headteachers (HTs) and assistant teachers(ATs) are given training during seminars [three days formal training]. For example, in the beginning of 2018, the government made it compulsory to start a Nursery [pre-primary education] in every state primary school. Now, we are required to use digital apps as well such as ‘testing tool’[criteria-based assessment strategy], ‘E-content’ [online teaching resources] and ‘E-Punjab portal’ [school’s online profile]. We have been given guidelines on how to use these apps during seminars. We were also suggested to have a separate classroom, a toy corner, a doll house and a collection of charts and rhyme books for Nursery students.</p>	<p>Policy initiatives key drivers; shapes CPD curriculum/content</p> <p>system demands</p> <p>guidelines not training</p>
<p>HT2 Punjab female</p>	<p>It [education policy] does affect the training we are provided with. The aims and objectives of the training [three days seminar] are set on the basis of national education policy. As I mentioned before, whenever any new policy initiative is introduced, we are given updates and inadequate training. As I gave you an example of recent initiative of Nursery education in state primary schools and the use of apps, E-content [online teaching resources], E-Punjab portal [school’s online profile] and ‘testing tool’ [criteria-based assessment strategy].</p> <p>Most of the times I learn things by doing again and again and I learn from my mistakes. If I get stuck, for example using computer and apps I ask my staff, family or friends to help me to do the job... I find quite interesting to learn new skills myself by practicing again and again until I learn. I learn from my mistakes. but sometimes it is very frustrating to learn without appropriate support</p>	<p>Policy key driver; Shapes CPD content</p> <p>Updates Inadequate training</p> <p>Learning by doing Experiential learning Adaptability Seek informal support; Passion for learning Frustration</p>
<p>HT3 Punjab female</p>	<p>We were given guidelines on how to organise a pre-primary section for students in our schools and how to use digital apps such as E-content, E-Punjab portal and testing tool for students’ assessment during seminars organised recently. These topics were selected on the basis of recent government education policy introduced. We don’t have any involvement in deciding our own training. I would like to suggest that headteachers must be involved while planning their professional training. We should be given the opportunity to discuss the concerns and issues we are facing in our schools. It can be done by conducting surveys or via open discussions with school headteachers...</p>	<p>guidelines not training</p> <p>policy key driver; policy shapes CPD content</p> <p>top down approach; needs analysis process missing</p>
<p>HT5 Punjab female</p>	<p>It [three days formal training] is useful to learn new teaching techniques For example, I learned how to use TLM [Teaching learning materials] to make teaching-learning effective for my students. But this training is not sufficient for my role as a headteacher. As a HT I have to do many admin tasks and I have the responsibility to maintain several types of registers. To be honest I don’t have sufficient knowledge in some of the areas and to do my work I have to depend on my other staff, my family members, friends and children’s parents. For some of the tasks I requested people to visit me again and again because</p>	<p>main focus pedagogy</p> <p>insufficient training</p> <p>seeks informal help; adaptability;</p>

	<p>I cannot learn things fast at this age. For example, I do not know much about computers and I find difficult to use digital apps recently introduced [E-content, e-Punjab portal, testing tool], but in order to meet systemic requirements I need to use these apps. I am required to update my schools' profile on E-Punjab portal on regular basis and if I fail to do so, I will be in trouble.</p> <p>The reason of my frustration is that the system doesn't consider age factor and they do not arrange special trainings for the headteachers to meet their needs. I am also not allowed to ask my teachers to help me as the system says the teachers are there to teach not to do other jobs. So, what is the solution?</p>	<p>development level learning styles age factor</p> <p>need ICT training</p> <p>fear for losing job well-being power issues</p> <p>customised CPD</p>
HT6 Punjab male	<p>We are given three days seminar by Padho Punjab, Padhao Punjab project [state project initiative]. This training is designed on the basis of education policy initiatives. For example, in addition to pre-primary education as I mentioned previously, we are now also required to make use of digital apps such as 'testing tool' and 'E-content' for teaching and learning purposes. During the training [three days seminar], we were given training on how to use them.</p>	<p>Policy key driver</p>
HT10 Punjab female	<p>The three days mandatory training is designed according to the changes or amendments in the education policy... for example, we were given policy updates and guidelines to start pre-primary classes in our schools... But as I mentioned earlier, practically this policy cannot be implemented successfully in my school due to lack of resources, funds and time. I am asked to have a doll house, book corner, charts and toys and so on but how is it possible without money.</p> <p>This training is not relevant to a HT's role. HTs are expected to be expert in their field as they have many years of teaching experience. But the system needs to understand that usually ATs are promoted to be headteachers after they complete around 18 to 20 years of teaching experience. The modern era is of advanced technology and many of HTs including me are not capable to cope with. It is not easy for everybody to learn computers fast especially when they are in their 50s and above. The system must find other ways to help us. Some of the schools have ICT teachers, but not all the schools have ICT teachers to help HTs.</p>	<p>Policy key driver; It shapes CPD content</p> <p>Policy updates; guidelines</p> <p>unachievable targets; inadequate resources; time; school funding</p> <p>training doesn't offer what is required</p> <p>high expectations from HTs seniority base recruitment HT lacks ICT skills</p> <p>age factor</p>
HT11 Punjab female	<p>As a headteacher I have to do a number of tasks. I need to make sure all the information about my school is up to date on E-Punjab portal as required. I need to ensure all the registers are completed and well maintained. I need to ensure my students have all the basic facilities such as infrastructure, adequate water, sanitation and hygiene conditions. I also have to arrange meetings with NRIs, NGOs and other donors who can support my school financially. I need to make contacts with parents and community members so that I can increase and maintain enrolment number in my school. I don't have time to go for this 3 days training as well. I don't think it is worth to attend these seminars. Whatever we are suggested to do in these training, that is possible only if I have resources, funding, enough time</p>	<p>Heavy workload Accountability</p> <p>Lack of adequate resources</p> <p>Different streams of funding Individual factors Adaptability</p> <p>Policy &amp; practice Disappointment;</p>



	<p>and good number of students in my school. When we are given training to use some kind of TLMs, we must be provided with the material the next day. But the system takes too much time (around 15-20 days) to send that material to our schools. By the time we forget, how to use that material. Many of my students don't have books, because the system delays in printing sufficient books. I have to make sure, I arrange books for my students from old students so that they do no lag behind.</p> <p>I feel there is no need of this mandatory training for the headteachers. What is your opinion? Isn't waste of time! HTs must be exempt of attending these seminars because they have a lot to do.</p> <p>I think yes, it does affect the 3 days mandatory training. The aims and objectives of these trainings are set according to the changes or amendments in the education policy.</p> <p>I am busy all day. I request the system not to assign a HT after school duties such as BLO (booth level officer), election duties and surveys. We must be given enough funding to meet our basic needs, so that we do not need to find donors. That time can be utilised to improve our students' learning and school's betterment.</p>	<p>HT's perception of formal CPD; Lack of adequate resources Functional factors Individual factors</p> <p>Awareness Values; Beliefs</p> <p>HT's perception of CPD</p> <p>Policy key driver; Policy shapes formal CPD</p> <p>Extra workloads; Election duties; Surveys; Lack of school funding (HT's voice) Negative impact</p>
<p>HT12 Punjab male</p>	<p>They [inspection team] come to find faults. They are rude and treat us as like we are offenders. They must check facilities in our school before asking any questions. They need to consider the context and size of my school before expecting results. How can they expect me to enrol 1000 students if there are only 500 students to join primary school in our locality. How is it possible to use digital apps without Internet connection and appropriate training or support. They set non-achievable targets. This is very very stressful.</p> <p>The officers [inspection team] want all the students to come in proper uniform but how can we arrange uniform without sufficient funding. They want all the students to obtain good marks but majority of the students don't have books. The government usually delays in printing books. Somehow, with the help of some donors we got painted our school walls to use them as TLMs [teaching learning materials]. We tried to put all syllabus on the school walls so that children can learn when they come to school even if they don't have books.</p>	<p>Power issues</p> <p>high expectations from HT; lack of support</p> <p>mental health; well being</p> <p>unachievable targets</p> <p>adaptability</p>
<p>HT13 Punjab male</p>	<p>Being a primary headteacher I have to maintain 4-5 types of registers such as accounts, mid-day meal, grants and funding etc. But no management training is available for headteachers to do their jobs competently. When I get stuck with any specific task, I call my family members, friends and other community members to assist me. Sometimes, I have to visit their place to learn a particular task. I also ask help from my staff, but they have also so much to do. I know many of the HTs struggle to</p>	<p>Lack of management training</p> <p>Lacks competence</p> <p>Seeks informal help Adaptability</p> <p>Lacks skills</p>

	<p><b>cope with.</b> For example, now we have to do a lot of paperwork but many of us are incompetent to do that...</p> <p><b>Not at all [no role in PD]. The main purpose of (SMC)School Management Committee is to manage grants for school.</b> For instance, if I feel that my school's building needs to be improved I prepare my proposal and forward it to the committee members to consider. If all the members agreed the proposal is signed and passed to the system. If we are lucky enough our school is given grant. They don't have anything to do with staff's professional development. The School Management Committee (SMC) consists of 13 members and they are not very well-educated people. But I have to report them and convince them most of the time to do the right for our school.</p> <p>Yes, my school has <b>surprise inspections many times a year. They expect everything to be in place. For instance, 100% staff and student attendance, 100% complete registers. They can ask for anything and any record. They observe teachers and students. They can interview teachers and students. All the schools are sent a morning slide with aims and objectives. It instructs us what needs to be taught in all subjects (English, Maths, Science and so on). Every day we need to make sure we follow all the instructions and do work accordingly. We make sure we achieve all the aims and objectives set in the morning slides. The inspection team expects us to follow these slides strictly. We can do also extra work if we have enough time. Every morning has a new slide. Sometimes, the students need more than a day to do all the tasks in slides. But we can't help it. We have no choice. It is really difficult most of the times because all the students are not of same levels. If they find we are not following these slides and we are not providing facilities to our students, we are in trouble. If they are kind to us or we are lucky an action plan is given to be completed in a specific period of time. The inspection team visit again to check whether the action plan is done else the HT can be suspended on the spot or licence of the school can be revoked. It is common in the state primary schools these days.</b></p> <p>the state primary school HTs and ATs are allocated unnecessary duties [election duties, surveys] as I mentioned earlier. The system thinks that primary education is very easy and it does not require more time so the staff can be used to do other stuff. We also have families to look after. <b>The system must consider the amount of stress HTs are going through. A headteacher has a number of responsibilities to fulfil. I don't have any clerk and peon in my school.</b> I do all the paperwork myself. I also go to students' homes if they don't attend school regularly. <b>I come to my school at 4:00 am and go back at 5:00 pm. I clean my school myself.</b> Some of my students also help me</p>	<p>SMC manage grants</p> <p>SMC no role in PD of staff (identical to governing body in English schools]</p> <p>SMC consists of 13 members</p> <p>Lacks expertise</p> <p>Surprised inspections System demands</p> <p>Additional activities</p> <p>Unrealistic targets</p> <p>Power issues</p> <p>Fear of losing job</p> <p>Extra workloads Mental health Well-being Lacks basic resources Functional factors</p> <p>Long working hours Work life balance</p>
HT14 Punjab male	The state secretary education Mr Krishan Kumar requires all the headteachers to update all the <b>information online every day without failure. But there are many headteachers who are not</b>	Lacks ICT skills

	<p>competent to do all these tasks. The fact is that they are not well qualified for their job. Many of the primary headteachers do not know English and if they have to learn English at this age, they need a lot of time. Our BPEO [block primary education officer] is also metric pass. The problem with our education system is that all the promotions are done on seniority basis. The knowledge and qualification of the candidate is not considered but experience. Experience plays an important role, but professional competence is also essential to cope with modern education system.</p> <p>The policy makers don't consider the size, location and community [local community members] of the schools. They expect all the schools to implement every policy and produce the same results. How is it possible!</p> <p>The state schools are reduced to the scheduled caste and below poverty line students. Even a middle-class parent doesn't want to send their children to the state school because these schools lack basic facilities and school buildings are not safe. Former education minister Mrs Aruna Chaudhary in an interview on media mentioned that 80 government school buildings in Punjab are unsafe, 303 state middle schools have no play grounds and 1029 state middle schools have no libraries. Since the Right to Education Act (April 2010) came into force, a steep decline (50%) in student enrolment in the government schools has been noticed.</p> <p>In October 2018, Punjab Government decided to close 800 schools each having less than 20 students. My school was declared unsafe in 2012. But I was given a specific time to save my school by increasing the number of students. I decided to visit each home in my village and encourage parents to send their children schools. The poor villagers were unable to get books, bags and uniform for their children. I asked for financial help from my family, community, NRI friends and gram panchayat to rebuild this school. I have no gardener, no peon and no sweeper in my school. I and some of my community people (parents, friends, students) stay until 10 pm and clean my school. My school won state level award under Swachh Bharat programme. There were total 106 schools including private and government but my school achieved this award.</p> <p>The system should consider the amount of stress HTs are going through to survive in their jobs. A headteacher has a number of responsibilities to fulfil. I don't have any clerk in my school. I do all the paperwork myself. The system must provide support to all the state primary HTs so that they can make state schools better than the private schools where all the children regardless their financial status can achieve the best education. They must provide specific training for HTs so that they don't have to depend on others to do their daily tasks.</p>	<p>Low qualified</p> <p>Seniority based recruitment; Policy issues</p> <p>Policy issues</p> <p>State schools for poor</p> <p>Lacks basic facilities</p> <p>Unsafe buildings</p> <p>Low enrollment RTE act focus on increasing enrolment rather quality education (Pratham education report reference)</p> <p>Headteachers have to work under pressure to survive Performativity Accountability Adaptability Low enrollment</p> <p>Inadequate funding; Different streams of funding; Lacks basic resources Achievements ; Well-being; Lacks basic resources; Private schools; State schools;</p> <p>Customised CPD</p>
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<p>CHT1 Punjab female</p>	<p>I would also like to add that plans [government education policies] cannot be put into practice without resources and sufficient funding. The system wants to change everything overnight. They want smart schools, wonderful buildings with modern infrastructure, excellent results, 100% attendance, increased enrolment, extra-curricular activities and well-equipped libraries but without any support. Many of the HTs and CHTs are working hard to raise funding on their own to survive. But not all have the same levels of energy and contacts. Specifically, women they cannot go door to door for help specifically who belong to Punjabi culture. In our culture, it is not considered respectful. Majority (around 80% and above) of HTs and CHTs is female in the state of Punjab. Sometimes I feel that I should leave this job and find some other job options but finding a new job is not easy now.</p>	<p>Policy and practice</p> <p>System demands; Without support Smart schools; Modern infrastructure; Well-equipped libraries; 100% attendance; Increased enrolment Inadequate school funding; Different streams of funding; Female HT's plight; Cultural values 80% female HTs</p>
<p>CHT3 Punjab female</p>	<p>When I was assigned as a centre headteacher, I was expected to do my job from the first day onwards without even knowing about my responsibilities [what I needed to do]. I was not given any training or induction. I came to know about my job role fully after 2 months only. I learned on my own. Things were forced on me. The system needs result. It put me under a huge pressure. I was very much stressed. I even cried. At some point, I was thinking about leaving this job. But my husband and my daughters consoled me and encouraged me to not to give up...If the system wants us to do everything on our own they need to be patient.</p>	<p>No induction; System's indifference to HT plight; Lacks support</p> <p>Mental well being; Work pressure; Power issue</p> <p>HTs voice; Survivor</p>
<p>CPD TM1 Punjab male</p>	<p>I have to deliver 3 days mandatory trainings at district level. I deliver these seminars for all the staff (headteachers and assistant teachers) of around 100 primary state schools I am responsible for. I usually have a group of 40 people. When one group finishes their training I deliver the same training to another group. In this way I ensure that all the staff attend this training. When training sessions are finished, we (my colleagues and I) have the responsibility to check whether the staff is putting the learned knowledge during training into practice in their own classrooms. We receive instructions from the state secretary school education Mr Krishan Kumar. We go for inspections in state primary schools. Most of the times we pay surprised visit to the schools. We write reports and send to the officials in the department of education. In addition, my team and I visit District Institute of Education Training (DIET) to deliver these 3 days training to the teacher training candidates. This is a part of their practical learning. When they actually join as teachers in primary state schools, in-service trainings are also provided for 3 days to refresh and update them.</p>	<p>Identical training for HTs and ATs Top-down approach</p> <p>One-size fits all approach; Contextual factors ignored</p> <p>School inspections; CPD impact evaluation</p> <p>Surprised visits/inspections School reports</p> <p>Similar training for trainee teachers; One-size fit all approach</p>
<p>CPD TM2 Punjab male</p>	<p>There is no specific training for the headteachers/centre headteachers to their job role such as management, leadership and ICT. There are many headteachers who don't know how to operate computers. To do their daily basis tasks, they have to depend on their IT staff or other sources (family and friends). Few years ago, there was computerised printable format. They used to take print out of certain forms and fill all the information and send to the state secretary education. But now</p>	<p>Leadership &amp; management CPD missing</p> <p>HTs lack ICT skills; Seek help from others</p>

	<p>everything is online. Therefore, all the headteachers must know how to use computer. In addition to their admin job, all the headteachers are required to teach in their schools. They have to deliver at least 12 sessions in a week. These 3 days district level mandatory training is useful for the headteachers to deliver their subjects.</p>	<p>HTs teach and lead; 12 sessions teach a week Formal CPD useful for teaching; Main focus pedagogy</p>
HT8 Midlands female	<p>yes it does...national policy directs my CPD. I have to be very careful about what expectations are being placed on me as a headteacher. I need to make sure that I'm able to fulfil those expectations. I go for training, I attend webinars, conferences and have professional dialogue with my colleagues. One of the issues with education policy is that it keeps on changing...it needs a kind of stability...political context influences our education policy. The frustration is that education ministers keep on changing which results in so many education policies. We headteachers just start working on one policy and by the time we implement one... they change the policy. It's frustrating and very disappointing and I think this impacts all the schools in the country.</p>	<p>Policy key driver</p> <p>Performativity; Accountability</p> <p>Individual factors</p> <p>Shifting policy context</p> <p>Frustration; Disappointment; Negative impact</p>
HT7 Midlands female	<p>Very much so... for example Ofsted new framework in 2019, I will attend courses for this. England's changing education landscape and move to academisation I did the NPQEL to prepare me for this and it's given me the background information about the role of the executive leader. So they very much influence me and I think you'd be a fool if you didn't. You have to move with what's happening nationally and what's on offer locally. If the local authority have bought in an expert in somebody who specialises in something for instance we engaged in a phonic programme this is the third year now we will be going to in it. it had a positive impact in other schools. I did my research before engaging in it and I could see that it was working elsewhere. So yes if there is a good quality support of there you need to get it so you compare favourably schools within Leicester but more importantly that you are performing well against schools nationally...you've got to prepare the best provision for the children.</p>	<p>Policy key driver</p> <p>Individual factors</p> <p>Self-awareness</p> <p>Accountability; Performativity; Adaptability</p> <p>Values</p>
HT6 Midlands male	<p>absolutely we are driven by what the national agenda is, unfortunately we are not like Australia I think where, Australia I think the model is government, you know the administrative don't really get involved in education. Education is separate no matter which government comes in and out, education is protected...the issue we have here is if the Labour gonna come in they're gonna get rid of SATs and do that. If Conservatives in they're gonna do something else, you know we're constantly flipping back and forth and the agenda is constantly changing. Ofsted, the new HMI inspector Amanda Spielman is very very different to Sir Michael Wilshaw for example. Again the debate has changed immensely, you know Michael Wilshaw was about data, data, data... Amanda Spielman actually knows it's not all about data it's about curriculum. So the debate has changed. In ten years time the debate will change again, so we're very much driven by what the national agenda is.</p>	<p>Policy key driver</p> <p>Shifting policy context impact</p> <p>Functional factors</p>

	<p>Within our group [development group] we provide support for each other, collaboration with each other and actually that is very important sometimes I think <b>more important than organising CPD</b>. So, there is one conferences we organise every year, last year was well-being conference, this year going to be on the curriculum because of the changes in the framework. Ofsted's new framework coming in September focuses on curriculum, behaviour and development so that would be very useful for my CPD.</p>	<p>Collaborative CPD CoPs</p> <p>Performativity</p>
<p>HT5 Midlands male</p>	<p>the fact that the policy keeps changing means I have to be vigilant and aware of the expectations being placed on me, being placed on school, so I have to make sure that I am ready for any change which is coming to effect. Yes I can go back to the Sex and Relationship Education that needs to be ready in new Ofsted inspection framework which is currently under consultation. I need to be ready for that come September and that has driven some of my CPD this year because of national policy. As I mentioned Prevent Radicalisation, Safeguarding and the so many other things which either the local authority say we have to do, but most importantly the DfE, for example, foundation will be benchmarked again. They tried it a four years ago, it was a disaster. Now they are going to reintroduce testing and foundation from September. So I need to be ready and my staff need to be ready to be able to Benchmark to test the children in foundation and that's the national policy so we need to be ready for that.</p> <p>Twelve years ago there were lots of training being run by the local authority and there was more money in education and so they would put on lots of training for heads and lots of training for teachers, they would cover the cost of supply teaching in schools. But as funding has decreased somewhat, well a lot and its very much part of national funding crisis, schools have to be very strict about which training you can attend, which training you need to attend, which training is relevant to your school improvement plan and that's what I was saying earlier if it's not relevant to your school improvement plan (SIP) then you know it's luxury really to be able to attend because there is just no time and there is just no money to sign up to these courses either.</p>	<p>Performativity; Accountability; Self-awareness</p> <p>Policy impact Functional factors Individual factors</p> <p>Policy impact Functional factors</p> <p>School funding cuts Adaptability Performativity; SIP/SDP key driver</p> <p>Lack of time; Lack of money; CPD is luxury</p>
<p>HT4 Midlands female</p>	<p>Schools are much very driven by national standards. I have to be watchful of what expectations are being placed on me as a school leader. I have to be prepared to lead that change. For instance, Sex and Relationship Education curriculum comes into effect in coming September and foundation will be benchmarked again. So I have to be ready for that and it has driven some of my CPD activities this year. I began asking my development group...a kind of who is doing what and how it will be achieved and so on.</p>	<p>Policy key driver Self-awareness</p> <p>Accountability Performativity CoP</p>

<p>HT3 Midlands male</p>	<p>I constantly read on twitter about the latest national school news, guidance and new rules come all the time. I sit every night and think what we need to do now and what are we doing ... this is all about following Ofsted trends and this is what they look for. The frustration has been recently that there have been so many different education ministers and so many different education policies they will come out and you just start working on that and they change the policy again and I think that impacts significantly all the schools...</p> <p>I think being new in headship is beneficial at this point because some of the heads that have been in headship slightly longer than me are very tired of the fact that it keep changing all the times and I think the current education minister said that we need a period of stability. But whatever is expected we all do because at the end of the day we all need to do.</p> <p>In September, we have a new safeguarding policy and it does affect our CPD training and we all need to go for training and I need to make sure that my staff have new guidance on GDPR and the data protection things we are working a lot today and the various national trends we do and it does massively influence and what we do massively influences our school self-evaluation because we do have to look what Ofsted is looking for and you cannot get away from that and at the end of the day it is going to impact on the training of the staff and other things I need them to do because we do need to tick the boxes sometimes you know and yes it does significantly impact how we do things and I would say it impacts on the training I send my SLT [senior leadership team] as well. We need to make sure we are going to attend those trainings because they are expecting this to happen. We need to make sure that we stay up to date, doing right things and we are not left behind.</p>	<p>Self-awareness</p> <p>Performativity</p> <p>Policy impact</p> <p>New headship Policy impact; Accountability; Performativity Adaptability</p> <p>Policy impact Workloads</p> <p>Performativity; Accountability; Impact measuring tools; Impact evaluation</p>
<p>HT2 Midlands male</p>	<p>Obviously, schools are much very driven by standards and what we are measured on is very narrow. It is reading, writing and maths so a lot of the training will be on reading, writing and Maths. We have seen training much wider than this before. If you go 20 years back in Dudley, you would just pick up phone and you would have an advisor on every subject you would phone for. You could phone someone for Geography and say that I want some support for my year 2 teacher. Can you come and support and then they will come and support. Now they [local authority] don't even pick up the phone. The only support now available is for Maths and English assessment. The same thing is with training they all focus on English and Maths and assessment...</p> <p>In the past it was very much to go to the courses or buying someone in to give training to the house staff, but it is less now. When I came here in 2011, I used to manage training budget and I had 4 to 6 thousand pounds a year. But now the training budget is thousand pound a year which is very less now and when a course costs £200, one thousand pounds doesn't go far. What we do now, for example safeguarding one of my leads will go to the training and disseminate back the same training</p>	<p>Policy key driver Impact evaluation</p> <p>Diminishing LAs; Impact</p> <p>Huge school funding cuts</p> <p>Expensive CPD</p> <p>Adaptability Cascade CPD model</p>

	<p>to the rest of the staff. So they know that they are not going to attend but they also have to share those trainings with the rest of the staff at the school when they are back.</p>	
<p>HT1 Midlands female</p>	<p>Yes, it [national education policy] does affect [CPD]. Policy will direct CPD as I gave you an example of safeguarding training on 25<sup>th</sup> of May this year. Education policy needs stability. Whenever government or political parties change the education policy also changes. There is no stability. If education is separated from politics, education will have more stability. Education is politicised and it is not the case in this country only. It's worldwide... it seems that education is a football and the political leaders are players who play with it.</p> <p>The local authority is disappearing now and it is very sad. In the local authority, you will have people who would deliver trainings on mental health well-being. This is the major concern for the headteachers and there is nobody who can look after heads' mental health well-being</p>	<p>Policy key driver</p> <p>Shifting policy context impact</p> <p>Education is Football (metaphorical)</p> <p>Diminishing LAs impact</p> <p>Mental health major concern</p>



## Appendix 13: Sample of a thematic map



## Appendix 14: Ethical approval document

SEPD-SGEG-25May17-1617-M19

Unconfirmed

**The University of Huddersfield  
School of Education and Professional Development**

**Minutes of the School Graduate Education Group Meeting  
11 May 2017**

**Present:** Dr Liz Bennett, Dr Martin Purcell

**In attendance:** Virtual Meeting

**Action**

**SEPD-SGEG-25May17-1617-M19 RESEARCH PROPOSAL SUBMISSION**

**19.1 STUDENT NAME/AWARD - Jaspal Kaur**

**Main Supervisor:** Professor Paul Miller

**Title:**

Investigating Primary School Headteachers' Professional Development in England and India

**Advice**

In response to the submitted proposal, and in preparation for the first Progress Report, the reviewers offer the following advice:

It might be useful to re-visit your methodology, thinking in particular about your approach to drawing meaning from the data generated by interviews, especially as you propose interviewing participants on more than one occasion to generate deeper data. Reviewing texts on discourse or narrative analysis might help you frame your approach to generating themes emerging from the data.

Some more explication on the selection of the State of Punjab and the Borough of Birmingham would be useful, especially as these do not appear to be comparable geographically or politically. Greater clarity about the size of your sample, along with details about how participants are to be identified / recruited would be helpful.

**Ethics**

Reviewers' comments on how adequately ethical issues have been addressed in the proposal, and advice (if any):

**Is ethical approval granted? YES**

**It is the responsibility of the researcher to continually review the ethical position of their research in agreement with their supervisor.**

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**Recommended action: (reviewers please tick relevant action)**

- The proposal is approved in full and should be stored in the Student Record.
- The proposal plan should be amended as per advice then sent to Carolyn Newton, within 6 weeks, for storage in your Student Record
- The proposal ethics should be amended as per advice, within 6 weeks (full-time) or 12 weeks (part-time), and then sent to Carolyn Newton for submission to the School Research Integrity Committee for approval. Fieldwork cannot be commenced until ethics has been formally approved.

**Any amendments should be completed and submitted within the indicated timescales from the date of this document. Use the submission form and annotate accordingly re the focus of your amendments.**

□

Carolyn Newton  
Research and Marketing Administrator  
Date: 25 May 2017