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ABSTRACT

Over the past decade, the United Kingdom's central government education-reform program has created new leadership and management tasks. Key questions have arisen about how leaders will work to achieve the core purpose of their schools. This paper is based on a review of 15 major research studies that examined the impact of recent educational reforms on schools in the United Kingdom. The projects were funded by the Economic and Social Research Council, a central government agency. The paper summarizes some of the key findings from the projects and highlights the main implications for school leadership and management. It discusses themes related to the three research questions: (1) How have central government reforms affected school leadership and management? (2) What management problems have arisen in connection with central government reforms? and (3) What lessons may be learned about improving the effectiveness of school leadership and management? Findings indicate that there is greater mutual dependence between those responsible for and those affected by management; school leaders face a widening range of ethical dilemmas; changes in implementation strategies have made planning and evaluation difficult; and inequitable funding imposes constraints on managers of schools with the least resources. It is recommended that managers focus simultaneously on improving management procedures and on improving teaching and learning. External support, particularly training, is important for people engaged in new work relationships. (Contains 21 references.) (LMI)

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Leading and Managing Schools in the Post-Reform Era

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Introduction

This paper is based on a review of 15 major research studies which looked at the impact of recent educational reforms on schools in the United Kingdom. Similar changes are occurring in the US and other countries, and we believe important messages can be drawn out about the changing role of school leaders.

The projects were funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), a central government agency, in response to proposals from University academics which sought to examine various aspects of reform. The ESRC also commissioned the present authors to review the projects (Wallace and Weindling, 1997)¹.

This AERA paper summarises some of the key findings from the projects, and highlights the main implications for school leadership and management.

School Leadership and Management: The UK Context

(It should be noted that traditionally in the UK, the term 'school management' has been used to include both leadership and management functions. We use both terms somewhat interchangeably, and wish to alert readers to this fact).

Simply stated, school leadership isn't what it used to be. Management tasks for school leaders, their colleagues on the teaching staff and governors, must be achieved with and through other adults in order that the school runs effectively. The advent of the central government education reform programme in the UK over the past decade has created new leadership and management tasks alongside significant changes in many that existed before. As the dust whisked up by reform begins to settle, key questions arise about how leaders now work to achieve the core purpose of their schools: to promote students' learning and social development of the highest possible quality. How have central government reforms affected the way schools are managed? What management problems have arisen as a result? How can school leadership be made more effective? Research can offer practical ideas based on evidence to inform the thinking and practice of the managers who will be leading schools into the twenty first century.

The main UK central government reforms and associated changes are summarised in Box 1.

¹ Wallace, M. and Weindling, D. (1997) *Managing Schools in the Post-Reform Era: messages of recent research*. Available from the ESRC, Polaris House, North Star Avenue, Swindon SN2 1UJ, England

Box 1

Changes related to central government reforms with variable impact on school management include:

- A National Curriculum for all pupils aged 5-16
- Assessment of all children at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16
- Publication of National Curriculum assessment, public examination results and truancy rates in the form of school 'league tables'
- A national system of regular external school inspection entailing publication of inspection reports by The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED)
- An increased proportion of parents and local community representatives on governing bodies
- Headteachers and governors taking responsibility for financial management and the appointment and dismissal of staff under the Local Management of Schools (LMS) initiative
- More open enrolment of pupils to promote greater parental choice
- The ability for schools to opt out of local education authority (LEA) control and become grant maintained (GM), funded directly by central government
- A code of practice governing provision for pupils with special educational needs
- New arrangements for supporting pupils from minority ethnic groups
- Promotion of specialisation through the creation of City Technology Colleges (CTC)
- The expectation that each school will have an annually updated school development plan (SDP)
- A budget for staff development with an annual entitlement of five training days available for in-service training
- Biennial appraisal of all teaching staff (equivalent to teacher evaluation in the US)
- A national system for assessment and training for aspiring and new headteachers
- The requirement that LEAs develop local schemes within central government reforms such as LMS and appraisal and support schools with implementation of all reforms
- Pressure on LEAs to remove surplus capacity in schools

The reforms are intended to raise standards through:

- regulating the work of schools via a national framework for the curriculum and its assessment, coupled with regular inspection;
- publicising more information about the performance of schools, including national assessment outcomes, inspectors' judgements about the quality of schooling, and public examination results;
- altering the balance of power between teaching staff, local government and other groups with a stake in the education of pupils in each locality;
- increasing the range of decisions, inside set limits, that school managers can make;
- creating conditions encouraging competition between neighbouring establishments and giving parents greater choice of different kinds of school;
- promoting a coherent approach to the development of staff as teachers and managers, and their contribution to improving the institution as a whole.

In consequence, what it means to lead and manage a school effectively and who makes such judgements have shifted dramatically. Influencing the quality of pupil learning is as important as ever - but what is learned, how it is measured, and who makes judgements of quality have changed. The ability to 'add value' for pupils has to be achieved within the limits of the school budget, since pupil numbers are directly linked to financial resources, and often in competition against other schools. School managers now face important ethical (as well as technical) questions about how to carry out the management tasks related to the reforms.

While research cannot provide simple answers to such complex dilemmas, it can prompt practitioners and policy makers to reflect on what makes for effective management practice. Each of the 15 projects under review explored various aspects of the reforms, but it should be borne in mind that they varied in their focus, theoretical orientation, scale and methods, and the findings reflect the point during the evolution of the reforms when investigations were carried out. The sources of evidence for any study are inevitably limited, but each addresses issues with enduring relevance for management practice and, when taken together, significant broader themes can be identified. The summary of each project is based on the final research report and any subsequent publications. Our focus was restricted to highlighting findings with relevance to school managers in today's context, and considering what practical action may need to be taken.

Some investigations address directly how the process of teaching and learning is managed, looking at aspects of the curriculum and its assessment and at meeting pupils' needs. Others are linked more closely to promoting the conditions for effective teaching and learning to take place. These studies examine ways that senior staff and governors work, experience of operating in a marketplace, management of resources, and development of the school as a whole.

For each project we provide a summary of some of the main findings and their implications for management and leadership at school, LEA and government levels, where appropriate. This is followed by an overview of the main themes which emerged from the research.

Disclaimer

The suggestions for school management in this paper have been made by the authors in consultation with the researchers whose projects are reported here. These ideas represent the authors' view, therefore, and not the official position of the ESRC.

The Findings and Management Implications of the Projects

In this section we summarise some of the findings and their management implications from each of the 15 projects. An outline of the projects' methodology is provided in the Appendix, and a list of publications is also given at the end of the paper.

National Assessment (Brown and Gipps)

This project looked at the way that classroom teachers in a sample of primary schools used the test results from the National Curriculum Assessment.

- **Types of Teacher**

It was possible to identify three 'ideal type' of teacher in relation to their practice with assessment, and their beliefs about the nature of teaching and learning. There were roughly equal numbers of teachers in each category (though some teachers could be placed in more than one group).

Systematic planners

These teachers had readily incorporated national assessment into their curriculum planning; they assessed and updated student records frequently; teaching and assessment were closely related.

Evidence gatherers

Teachers in this group were keen to satisfy the requirements of National Assessment and felt the need to assess on the basis of evidence rather than intuition. However, they were not ready to use detailed feedback to inform their planning and simply completed the records using evidence of the children's work that they had gathered.

Intuitives

They resisted the implementation of a system of assessment, in particular a nationally imposed scheme. They reluctantly completed the end of year record, but claimed this presented no problems because they knew their children. Some of these teachers were committed to child-centred ideologies, others simply found it difficult to alter tried and tested methods they had developed which did not relate to the national framework.

- **Use of results**

Many teachers found the assessment records useful in targeting areas of the curriculum, either for individual students or the whole class. There was evidence that the tests had some effect on teachers' practice and changes in curriculum focus.

Many of the headteachers used the data to identify areas for school development. After 1994 many heads welcomed the testing after their initial fear and resistance, although they were still concerned about the additional workload and stress and the staff.

Management Implications

Headteachers need to promote the systematic use of national assessment data as a means of improving teaching and learning. The data can be used to identify priority areas for the School Development Plan.

Teachers should be encouraged to use the information to plan aspects of the curriculum, examine the grouping of children, and make individual pupil diagnoses where possible. This applies both to teachers doing the assessment, and to teachers who will take the pupils in the following year. Simple systems need to be established to communicate the information.

National Curriculum in Small Schools (Galton et. al.)

The researchers were interested in how small rural primary schools coped with the National Curriculum and the extent to which they worked collaboratively in clusters.

- Stages of collaboration

A previous study had identified three main stages in schools' approaches to collaboration:

Initiation

Teachers were largely concerned with the practical advantages of collaboration set against the personal costs of time and effort. Only if the balance of advantage favoured collaboration did they become enthusiastically involved in joint projects.

Consolidation

These schools did their best to make collaborative work effective, but relied largely on outside support for direction.

Re-orientation

Only at this stage did the schools begin to take full ownership for the cluster process. Whether to engage in a particular activity was now taken with the pupils interests, and particularly the impact on their learning, in mind.

In the present study a fourth level emerged. This consisted of a group of 'cluster independent' schools who felt capable of delivering the National Curriculum without support from other schools.

- School clusters

About 90% of the small schools were found to belong to some form of cluster or co-operative group, most commonly consisting of about half a dozen schools.

Termly headteacher meetings were common and teacher support groups took place at least twice a year (half the schools met at least six times a year). A widespread strategy was to hold shared inservice and training (INSET) days. Joint policies and documents existed in half the schools, but they varied with the LEA: only one authority required clusters to produce joint plan. LEA 'pump-priming' funds had accelerated progress towards the re-orientation stage. In these clusters there was joint planning, INSET and some exchange of teachers.

The headteachers felt that clustering had greatly contributed to the schools' capacity to cope with the demands of the National Curriculum.

Management Implications

Heads of small rural schools need to consider the benefits of a collaborative approach by working with a cluster of schools. The research provides evidence for the value of a cluster approach, but incremental development is probably required.

Effort is required to manage the work of the cluster, it will not work on its own. It needs time, attention, a strategic approach and a co-ordinator. A key is to maximise the benefits of collaboration while retaining the appropriate level of school autonomy.

School and Department Effectiveness (Sammons et. al.)

This project was a major study of effectiveness at secondary school and department levels. The output variable was the GCSE, a national exam in different curriculum subjects, which students take at age 16.

- Differences between schools and departments

The analysis of data from the 94 schools showed that there are important (educational and statistical) differences between schools in their relative effectiveness in promoting GCSE performance, after taking account of student background and prior attainment. The differences between the most and least effective school was twelve GCSE points - equivalent to more than two extra Grade C passes. For eleven of the 94 schools the difference exceeded ten points.

There was a general tendency for schools which were effective in one subject to be effective in others as well, but the associations were stronger for some subjects. In some schools particular departments were therefore markedly more, or less, effective than others. However, in the effective schools and departments all students were likely to

perform relatively well, and some groups (including those from higher socio-economic status backgrounds) performed especially well. In contrast, all the students in ineffective schools and departments were likely to perform relatively poorly, but this was less marked for some ethnic groups.

In any single year only about 25-30% of the schools could be categorised as significantly more or less effective in overall performance and subject results than the majority. School effectiveness was best seen as a combination of school and departmental effectiveness.

- Factors associated with effectiveness

The research identified a number of inter-dependent factors (similar to those previously found in previous studies of school effectiveness) which provide pointers concerning the mechanisms of school and departmental effectiveness. The broad factors were:

High expectations: Strong academic emphasis: Shared vision and goals: Clear leadership at school and department levels: An effective school management team (SMT): Consistency in approach: Quality of teaching: Student-centred approach: and Parental support and involvement.

Factors found to be particularly important in the case studies were: the history of the school and department and the impact of change; high teacher expectations; an academic emphasis - including examination entry policy and monitoring; shared vision and goals; the leadership skills of the headteacher and heads of department; an effective SMT; the quality of teaching; and parental involvement and support.

In a later analysis three broad aspects of culture were found to account for the variation in academic effectiveness: Order (behaviour policy and practice), task achievement (academic emphasis), and relationships (a student-focused approach). In academically more effective schools the school and departmental cultures mirror and reinforce one another. The findings strongly suggest that effective secondary schools are not simply schools with effective teachers, there are important departmental and whole school factors operating in addition to those in the classroom.

Management Implications

Heads, senior staff and heads of department must work to establish a consistent approach across all the subject departments. Leading departments need to be encouraged to provide examples of good practice to others.

The key leadership role of the head of department must be supported by the senior management team and developed through high quality inservice education and training. Departments need to be provided with comparative examination data for use in reviewing and improving practice.

All schools should undertake their own 'value added' analysis or use an outside service to assess pupils' progress. This correlates individual pupil data from standardised tests against their attainment at GCSE or A level.

Central government should consider whether the publication of performance tables (league tables) ought to be continued. One of the main conclusions of the study was that the ranking of school results (whether using raw or value-added data) is *not* justified, because fine distinctions between schools in terms of their relative effectiveness are not statistically valid.

Effective Schools and Less Able Pupils (Brown and Riddell)

This was a tightly focused school effectiveness study which consisted of case studies of four 'outlier' schools and how they worked with less able students.

- Socio-economic status and effectiveness

Compared with the two low SES schools the two high SES schools had pupils with high achievement and more confidence in their readiness to work and could count on more support from parents. The school management could target learning support on the relatively small proportion of pupils with substantial problems. In stark contrast, the low SES schools saw disruptive behaviour as a major feature influencing their thinking about support for the high proportion of low achievers. Much greater efforts on the part of school management were required to establish contact and obtain support from parents.

The lower achieving pupils' self-esteem and confidence were higher in the more effective schools. In these schools the senior management teams' focus on support had clear links with participatory leadership, teamwork and pupils rights, responsibilities and involvement in decision making. There was a greater emphasis in the less effective schools on global progress rather than specific concepts of attainment. In the more effective schools staff were concerned with pupils' affective growth as well as academic goals.

- Key factors

The prior history of the school had a major effect on its culture and affected current decision making and the degree of parental choice. There was no evidence that various management initiatives, such as school development planning or marketing strategies, were improving schools' effectiveness. It was important to have and communicate *realistic* expectations (in the least effective school stated expectations were excessively high). In the more effective schools more emphasis was placed on individual pupils' specific strengths and weaknesses, and on more realistic but positive judgements about progress. Senior management supported these by establishing coherent systems of pupil guidance.

Management Implications

For senior management to use the findings on school effectiveness for improvement, the school's history and particular social circumstances have to be taken into account. The most effective structures and strategies for improving the learning of low achievers are likely to vary quite markedly among schools serving communities of different socio-economic status.

Headteachers, senior staff and heads of department have constantly to encourage high, but realistic, teacher expectations, and pupil self-esteem.

LEA inspectors and consultants need to be more aware of the school context when providing support for school improvement. There is no simple blueprint and the strategies have to be tailored to the particular school.

Exclusion from Primary School (Hayden)

The exclusion of students from primary schools, either for short or prolonged periods of time, has been a growing cause for concern. This project used both quantitative and qualitative methods to study how LEAs and schools dealt with exclusion.

- Number of exclusions

The central government's reporting system, in which data were collected over the two year period 1990/91 and 1991/92; showed an increase in the number of permanent exclusions from all schools. About one in eight were exclusions from primary schools. Data from OFSTED inspections also indicated that the number of exclusions was rising.

In the present study there were 3,644 primary exclusions (of all types) during 1992/93 in the 43 LEAs who supplied data. Twelve per cent of these were permanent exclusions. Ninety per cent were boys and the numbers increased with age. It was difficult to obtain accurate data on ethnic background as not all LEAs recorded this, but information from 15 LEAs suggested that Afro-Caribbean children were more likely to be excluded. The figures produced national estimates of 1,215 permanent exclusions from primary schools from the year 1992/93 and 1,253 for 1993/94.

- Factors associated with exclusion

The most common reason for exclusion was physical aggression, usually towards other children, accounting for 55% of the cases.

The case studies showed that many of the excluded children were also the subject of other interventions. Thus 27% had a formal statement of need (usually for emotional and behavioural difficulties), and 35% were involved with social services in some way. Only four of the 38 case study children lived with both their parents and violent or neglectful family relationships were frequently reported.

Headteachers often had to deal with children who were sent out of the classroom and with parental complaints. They also had to decide whether the school budget could allow provision of additional support in the form of a teaching assistant.

- Behavioural support services

These exist in many LEAs and there are a plethora of projects funded by the central government Educational Support Grants. These are all welcomed by classroom teachers, but there is insufficient support to deal effectively with the children (especially those who are permanently excluded).

Management Implications

Headteachers and governors need to develop a policy for dealing with pupil exclusion which would specify the circumstances under which particular procedures would be initiated.

It is likely that other agencies will be involved in supporting excluded children and their families. Central government, LEAs, schools and social services need to develop a multi-agency approach to ensure that this support is fully effective.

Local Management of Schools and Provision for Special Needs Pupils (Evans et. al.)

All UK schools now have site-based management in the form of LMS. This study looked at how they resourced and managed the support for children with special educational needs.

- Resourcing of SEN

The survey showed that the majority of LEAs were allocating SEN resources to schools according to the numbers of free school meals, which was used as a measure of social deprivation, although in some authorities other factors were added. Several of the case study LEAs were developing an audit of SEN within schools as an improved means of deciding funding.

There was a reduction in the funds and staffing for SEN available centrally from LEAs and a shift of resources to the schools. There was growing awareness of the need to make choices between allocating funds to individual pupils through statements or to schools through the formula. Eighty per cent of LEAs who responded said that the number of statements had increased, but they had less funds for students with less severe needs who did not have statements - a vicious circle had developed.

Schools felt that the funding was not sufficient to meet the special needs of all their pupils and they saw statements as a source of extra resourcing. In the absence of clear criteria from the LEA about which pupils should be statemented, the schools had developed their own.

- Practice in Schools

Most case study secondary schools had disbanded SEN departments and moved to in-class support. In some schools the amount of time for SEN support had been cut, or teachers had been replaced by assistants. Primary schools tended to see themselves as disadvantaged in providing for SEN because of the differences in formula funding between the phases of schooling. They had less flexibility to employ specialist teachers than in secondary schools.

Management Implications

Schools should re-examine their strategies and structures to improve SEN support. As part of this review, headteachers should ensure the full involvement of the special needs co-ordinator in decision making about the allocation of resources and the forms of support for SEN. Governors need to play a greater role in monitoring the use of resources.

LEAs must review their current methods of funding and support for SEN. Both LEAs and schools saw the merits of a school-based audit of need for the allocation of funds.

Central government needs to examine the amount of resourcing and its allocation at each of the three levels of the individual pupil, school and LEA.

The Role of Senior Management Teams in Secondary Schools (Wallace and Hall)

All secondary schools (and many primary schools) have a senior management team, consisting of the headteacher and a number of senior staff, to share the leadership and management tasks. This project conducted detailed case studies to examine how these SMT functioned.

- **Headteachers and the team approach to management**

A team approach offered the potential for effective management of multiple reforms because decisions made by the group normally took more factors into account than a decision made by the headteacher alone. In adopting a team approach heads risked losing some power as individual managers by empowering other SMT members if consensus could not be reached, but if successful, it could foster a strong culture of teamwork. The strategy could thus be seen as one of 'high gain' for heads if the team worked well, but 'high strain' if it did not.

The heads believed in a team approach because of the value they placed on consultation, group problem solving and the camaraderie of the team. The heads chose other team members, and held regular meetings. They fostered a 'culture of teamwork' embodying shared values and beliefs about working together.

- **Tensions**

The culture of teamwork included a belief that all members should contribute as equals in decision making. But tension arose at times because from the hierarchical differences in status and authority between headteacher, deputies and senior teachers. Divided loyalty was a problem for some team members, especially the senior teachers.

- **The work of the SMT**

Heads drew up the agendas in consultation with SMT members and chaired the meetings. Decisions were normally made by discussion until all members were in agreement. Heads were reluctant to 'pull rank' when disagreement arose, but would do so if they were uncomfortable with a decision proposed by other members. Regular contact with other staff and the governors through various meetings enabled information to be fed into the SMT and the outcome of their decisions to be fed back. Governors tended to support proposals from the SMT, rather than take initiatives themselves.

Management Implications

The head has to assess the current readiness of the team to work collaboratively and decide whether to play safe by keeping tight control of the work of the SMT. Limited involvement offers 'low strain' for heads because other SMT members are not empowered to take initiatives but 'low gain' as their potential contribution remains largely untapped. Over time the head should work towards a more a collaborative approach which offers the possibilities of high gain but the risk of high strain.

Heads play the key role in developing and sustaining a culture of teamwork. When selecting new members of the team an important criterion is the ability to subjugate personal interest for the benefit of the school. Headteachers and team members must learn to accept the inherent conflict in the SMT, and this needs to be made explicit.

Central government and LEAs should foster training and consultancy support for whole senior management teams. (Currently the emphasis is on training individuals.)

School Governing Bodies (Deem and Brehony)

As part of site-based management and accountability, each school has a group of governors, consisting of volunteers from the local community, the headteacher and elected members of the staff and parents, who have legal responsibility for the oversight of the school. They are involved in a wide range of functions, including the financial management and appointment of staff. The project followed a number of school governing bodies over a four year period.

- **Role of Governing Bodies**

The task of governors under LMS is very demanding and time consuming. Governors often do not know what the remit of their role is. Most governing bodies meet more than once a term, in addition to holding several sub-group meetings, and the average length of a meeting was two and a half hours. The governors concentrated on the issues of finance, resources, staffing and buildings, rather than teaching and learning issues. Few possessed the knowledge and skills needed to oversee the administration of schools.

- **Power, Influence and Control**

Middle-class white males were found to be dominant in governing body activities, including holding the office of chairperson and convening key sub-committees. Parent, women, teacher and ethnic minority governors tended to play a more minor role. Co-opted and LEA governors played a key role, with business people dominating the finance sub-groups. They were critical of what they saw as the insulation of schools from the 'real world' (the business world). Heads maintained considerable control over the agendas and decision-making of the governing bodies. Many governors simply agreed (sometimes with modifications) to what the heads wanted.

The findings suggested that legislative changes in school governance had not so far resulted in considerable transfer of power from heads, and LEA governors to parents, and co-opted governors.

- **The Culture of Governing Bodies**

Across the ten schools governing body relationships with the heads and schools ranged from harmony to conflict.

The governing bodies gradually developed organisational cultures of their own. Each governing body differed from the others in the ways it conducted meetings, its predominant mood, seating arrangements, extent of member participation and philosophical outlook.

Management Implications

The headteacher and chair of governors should ensure that each member of the governing body plays an appropriate role and is encouraged to participate both in formal meetings and in less formal activities. They should explicitly develop a culture of teamwork and express values about working collectively. The effectiveness of the structural links between the sub-groups and the whole governing body should be assessed periodically as should the links between the sub-groups and the decision-making groups in the school itself.

Further training is needed for governors in order to enhance the contribution of all groups for the benefit of the school. An effective working relationship between the head and the governors (particularly the chairperson) is crucial, and training should focus on the relevant teamwork skills. Heads can foster and support the development of individual governors and governing bodies can also gain from learning how other governing bodies operate.

Central government should clarify the boundary between the roles of the headteacher and other teaching staff and those of the governing body in overseeing and managing the school. There remains a role for elected regional bodies in overseeing the work of governing bodies and ensuring they discharge their duties effectively.

Schools and the Education Market (Ball et. al.)

An important part of the new legislation and reform has been the attempt to create an education market through mechanisms such as, more open enrolment and school finance directly linked to student numbers. This project examined the effects of the reforms on schools and parents.

- **Parents**

Some parents were becoming more active in exercising the possibilities of choice (where this was available). Middle-class parents were most likely to manipulate the increasingly complex systems of choice and they tended to choose the more elite, cosmopolitan (usually over-subscribed) schools. By contrast, working-class families were more likely to prefer the local school. In part this reflected their limited knowledge of other schools and economic and familial constraints, but locality was also seen as a positive factor for many working class parents. Some immigrant and refugee families were especially disadvantaged in the marketplace.

- Schools

The market positions of individual schools are to a significant extent determined by local geography, demography, institutional histories and LEA policies. This means that a school's subscription level is an unreliable indicator of its quality.

None of the case study schools felt they could ignore the marketplace. A perception of volatility and fashion in parental choice encouraged a sense of anxiety in even the over-subscribed schools. Prospectuses were glossier and open evenings, press releases, newspaper advertising and school performances were now part of school marketing strategies. Schools were paying more attention to what they thought parents wanted. But only a few had conducted any market research, and the responsiveness of most schools was based on impressions or the emulation of rival schools. In metropolitan areas, where competition is most severe, previous systems of co-operation between schools had been severely curtailed and replaced by a climate of suspicion.

The publication of examination league tables and other performance indicators means schools were increasingly keen to attract able and motivated students. Generally, the role of special educational needs (SEN) work in schools was being played down. Schools which had histories of excellence in SEN work were concerned that they would be seen by parents as caring rather than academic.

There were exceptions to the trends mentioned because school responses to the market were influenced by a range of local and school-specific factors as well as the market framework established by legislation. Some local contexts support and exacerbate the effects of the legislative framework, others interrupt and modify it.

Management Implications

Headteachers and governors need to consider the range of different parents in the area and to take into account the likelihood that middle class and working class parents may have different reasons for choosing the school.

There is an ethical question about how far a school should serve all parents and children in the local community and the degree to which it should respond to the pressure resulting from publication of performance (or league) tables to recruit more able pupils. A balance needs to be struck, and the issue of the entitlement of all children must be considered at both the school level and by central government.

Parental Choice and Schools Response to the Education Market (Glatter et. al.)

The project also looked at how schools and parents were reacting to the changes in legislation and impact of the market.

- Factors affecting parents' choice

Parents' views varied as to what most influenced their choice of school. According to the 1993 survey data child-centred themes (such as the child's preference for a school, and a friend being there) featured strongly, and were the main reason in nine of the schools. For some parents (particularly those wanting a selective grammar school, or the most popular comprehensive) the school's standard of academic education and its reputation were especially important. Parents were concerned about aspects of pastoral care. Distance between the school and home and convenience of travel were also significant factors in parental choice.

- Schools' Response

All the schools studied were responding to parental choice and competition by an increased emphasis on various forms of promotion, such as improved brochures and better links with primary schools. Although they were concerned about what other schools in the locality were doing, most were not undertaking full 'environmental scanning' or using systematic methods of finding out what parents wanted. However, the interest in market research was growing.

Some of the schools had made more substantive changes, which were to some extent a response to the quasi-market, in terms of school organisation, the curriculum and teaching methods. Examples included opting for grant maintained status, the introduction of banding, and changes to homework policy. Headteachers were more likely than other staff to acknowledge the need to be responsive to parents.

- Limited interaction

Data analysed at the time of writing do not indicate a very strong interaction between parental choice and school change as envisaged by market advocates. Market pressures in themselves had not led to more differentiation between schools. Nor had parental choice created major changes to the local hierarchy of schools -although it was possible for a school to move up a few places in the pecking order. Aspects of the local context, such as the school's geographic position and reputation, have a stronger effect on parental choice.

Management Implications

Heads must assess how far the school is in a competitive area and how volatile pupil enrolment is. This analysis will indicate how far the school is affected by the quasi-market.

A more systematic approach to examining what parents want is needed in most schools. Care should be taken to involve a representative cross-section of parents and a balance may be needed between responding to parent preferences and adhering to certain educational values. Schools should develop a range of marketing strategies. Periodic reviews are required as the situation changes and these should form an element in the school's strategic planning.

Heads should consider the possibility of more substantive curricular and organisational changes in response to parents' views.

Groups of schools could collaborate as an alternative to individual competition in the quasi-market. A small number of such consortia exists in various parts of the country.

Central government should consider the relevance of the market approach to education. The various constraints mean that at best it is a quasi-market and there is little evidence that it is improving the quality of education in any way.

Local Management of Schools and Formula Funding (Levacic)

Schools are now funded on a formula based on the number of students. This has increased the range of responsibilities for headteachers and governors, and reduced the direct influence of the LEA or district.

- Staffing and efficiency

Most school managers were able to respond positively to the challenges of LMS, though it was more difficult for those in very small primary schools. Schools had made considerable efforts to become more efficient and cost effective in running their premises. Some schools were becoming more flexible in the use of teaching and support staff. However, evidence of the positive impact of LMS on teaching and learning was far more tentative than the evidence for its cost effectiveness.

- Impact on headteachers

The time demands of LMS had changed the role of the headteacher into that of enabling the work of teachers through obtaining and managing resources. The change was not simply due to the addition of financial management, but to the greater complexity of managing schools in the quasi-market. The head must now attend to both technical functions and the organisational culture of the school.

While the totality of the task was less complex for primary schools, the smaller number of staff available to perform the tasks meant the head had less scope for delegation. Almost all primary heads undertook the budget manager role. As a consequence of this and the National Curriculum, it appeared that primary deputies were taking on a major responsibility for curriculum management and it had also been dispersed to other postholders. Another consequence was that school secretaries or finance officers were crucial in providing heads with administrative support, but not all primary heads received sufficient support.

There was a marked trend in secondary schools for the enhanced responsibilities to mean a greater dispersal of management roles among more staff, and a reduction in the number of deputy posts, and hence a movement to a flatter hierarchy in some schools.

LMS had been implemented with considerable success, due largely to the efforts of LEAs and the staff and governors in schools. The initiative was approved by the majority of heads, and LEAs had succeeded in funding their schools through formulae. However, the system of central government funding for the local provision of education was widely seen to be in need of reform in order to relate funding more closely to schools' resourcing needs.

Management Implications

The devolution of the budget under LMS has had major implications for headteachers. All heads now have to manage the budget cost effectively. They must consider how far to involve governors and other staff in financial decision making. Budget management requires time and effort and all heads need to consider how much of the work they could devolve to a secretary or bursar, while still retaining an overview.

Under LMS, heads now have to rely more on delegation to other staff to manage aspects of the curriculum. This has major implications for the work of heads of department and primary post holders. The selection and training of these key people becomes even more important in helping them to fulfil their new roles.

There is an urgent need for central government to consider the present system of LMS formulae and address the disparities between funding in different LEAs, between the maintained and the GM sectors, and between primary and secondary schools. The formulae are complex and not easily understood by teachers, governors or parents.

Associate Staffing in City Technology Colleges (Mortimore et. al.)

A small number of schools have become City Technology Colleges with increased funding and resources for technology. This project followed an earlier study which had looked at how other schools were using new forms of staffing.

- **A range of new posts**

Education reforms have led to a demand for posts to assist in provision of the curriculum and to support the increasingly complex management and administration of schools. The CTCs had introduced new posts such as directors of finance, information technology managers, and tutor-technicians. Senior managers were opportunistic in their recruitment and deployment of staff to meet specific needs.

- **Cost effectiveness**

Interview data showed that many people in the CTCs considered the new posts to be cost-effective. The post-holders brought expertise to the college in such areas as marketing information, premises management, and design skills which could save money by doing things in-house or by taking responsibilities from senior teachers. An analysis by the research team showed that about three quarters of the posts were cost effective.

Amongst the main benefits from the new posts were first, better learning opportunities for the students - by a combination of the teacher's academic expertise and the post-holder's commercial or industrial expertise. Second, they allowed teachers more time for their professional pedagogic role. Third, postholders offered additional skills and expertise. Fourth, more positive attitudes and morale were engendered within the teaching staff. Finally, certain posts led to improved links with industry.

Disbenefits were reported in some cases. They included teachers' lack of understanding of what the post-holders did and the possible negative impact on their own professional role and post-holders lack of understanding of teachers' educational philosophy. Second, pressure and stress of working in high profile institutions. Third, coping with dual roles that could conflict. Fourth, lack of clarity of expectations and responsibilities of some new roles by post-holders and teachers. Fifth, a lack of management support could lead to problems for postholders in establishing themselves in their innovatory role.

Most of the benefits and disbenefits were similar to those found in the previous study of associate posts in LEA schools, albeit with some differences in priority.

Management Implications

Headteachers and governors now have greater flexibility in the deployment of staff other than teachers. An analysis of tasks should be carried out to determine how additional posts could be used to support the teaching and administrative work of the school.

Schools should decide how to deploy the additional staffing for maximum effect, bearing in mind that the research showed that most of the new posts were cost effective.

As the posts are introduced, a planned programme of induction is needed for both the new people and the staff who will work with them to clarify expectation of, and boundaries to the posts, in order to avoid inappropriate or exploitative use of associate staff.

School Development Planning in Primary Schools (MacGilchrist et. al.)

All schools are now required to have written development plans showing their various initiatives for a three or five year period. The study was designed to examine the form and function of these SDPs in a number of primary schools.

- Types of school development plan (SDP)

Four types of plan were found, representing a continuum from the least to the most effective.

The rhetorical plan. This version was poorly led and managed. No financial resources or inservice training were built in and the impact was negative. The plan was not a working document and neither the head nor other staff felt a sense of ownership.

The singular plan. This type of plan was used as a tool by the head to improve the efficiency of the school with minimal staff involvement. It did not include resources or professional development and monitoring and evaluation of implementation was weak.

The co-operative plan. Teachers were involved in the planning process. The plan was multipurpose, serving school-wide improvements and professional development. Management of planning was shared among key staff and included the financial considerations. Positive results on whole school management and teacher development could be discerned, though improvement in the learning opportunities for pupils could not be detected.

The corporate plan. In this plan school development, teacher development and children's development were successfully linked. The planning process was open and provided leadership roles amongst the senior managers. It promoted a strong sense of ownership across the school. The main focus for improvement was the classroom. The implementation of the plan was well managed and evaluation strategies were being developed.

In the nine case study schools, one had a rhetorical plan and another had a singular type of plan. Five schools had a co-operative plan and two had corporate plans. However, the researchers stressed that progress for an individual school was not linear, and schools new to the process could achieve corporate planning without having to work through the other types of plan.

- Implementation

Schools with co-operative and corporate plans showed greater sophistication in the strategies used to implement the plans. However, only the corporate plan led to improvements in learning opportunities for pupils. Corporate planning schools were associated with greater pupil industry and co-operation, and pupils were given more responsibilities and a more active role in exercising choice.

- Monitoring and evaluation

This was the weakest aspect of all types of plans. Few schools developed success criteria at the formulation stage of the plan, and with the exception of the corporate plan, there was an absence of regular monitoring or developed evaluation strategies.

Management Implications

Heads should aim to achieve a corporate school development plan. This requires pupil progress and achievement to be the central focus of the plan and a commitment by staff to improve their practice in the classroom. Governors should be involved in the formulation of the plan rather than just approving an end product. LEA link inspectors provide a valuable external and wider perspective which can help the school from being too introspective.

Most schools need to give additional thought to their methods of auditing (gathering specific data on pupils), monitoring (checking that things are going as planned), and evaluation (assessing the impact of the initiatives). Targets and success criteria should be developed as an integral part of the plan.

Central government should consider how LEAs could be given an enhanced role in facilitating school development planning. LEAs need to develop a support structure to assist schools with their SDP's. The new DFEE publications on target setting provide useful examples for schools.

Grant Maintained Schools (Fitz and Halpin)

One of the options in the reforms is for schools to leave LEA control and become grant maintained with direct funding from central government. Just over a 1000 of the 25,000 schools in the UK have chosen this option. The project has followed the first wave of schools over a five year period.

- Success of GM policy

In terms of the numbers of schools becoming Grant Maintained, the policy had not been as successful as central government had anticipated. After five years just over 1000 schools had GM status. This was the equivalent of about 15% of secondary and approximately 2% of primary schools. The main reason given initially for opting out, cited by 80% of the schools, was concern over proposed closure or re-designation. In subsequent years the main reason became the desire to obtain preferential funding and greater control over finance.

- Effects on LEAs

The GM policy has had considerable impact on some LEAs where their planning function has been inhibited or frustrated by schools threatening to opt out or achieving GM status. The policy, in combination with LMS, had forced LEAs to reconsider their relationships with all schools.

- Effects on Parents

GM status does not widen parental choice. In some areas where GM status preserves selective education, it may lead to a restriction for parents as a whole. The case studies suggested that GM status has little effect on schools perceived desirability. The most that could be said was that it consolidated already existing patterns of parental preference. The LEA schools had not become the poor relation in the local hierarchy of secondary schools.

- Effects on Schools

The headteachers of the GM schools had been the chief catalysts in the opting out process: seeking information, and persuading governors, staff and parents of the merits of GM status. Headteachers are still the key people in both GM and LEA schools who receive and interpret policy on behalf of their schools. None of the heads wanted to see a return to the old system of LEA control. They believed that the schools were better managed, more efficient, and they now had a greater capacity to respond to short and long term challenges.

Self-governance, in the form of GM status, has had limited impact on the organisational features of schools. Any organisational gains for GM schools arose from advantageous funding which enabled them to create additional administrative and teacher support posts.

GM schools had not made substantially different curricular or other innovations from the LEA schools. None of the GM schools were using the freedom of opting out to engage in wide ranging consultation with parents about their preferences and concerns. The authors conclude that opting out has not led to the development of schools which are manifestly different from LEA schools.

Management Implications

Heads and governors in LEA maintained schools have to consider under what circumstances opting out offers benefits over their present status. The role of the head does not seem to be very different in each type of school. More creative use could be made in GM schools of the additional freedom and resourcing to improve teaching and learning. Both types of schools should consider engaging in more extensive market research and consultation to find out their parents wishes and concerns.

LEAs have to re-examine their notions of partnership with all the schools in the locality and decide which services they will offer and what forms of strategic support they can provide.

Bearing in mind that only a minority of schools decided to go GM and that there seem to be relatively little difference between LEA and GM schools, central government should consider whether and how far to pursue the policy of opting out.

LEA and OFSTED Inspections (Gray and Wilcox)

All schools now have an external inspection, lasting three to five days depending on the size of the school, by a team of trained inspectors who use a national framework to examine all aspects of the school. The school and governors are given verbal feedback by the inspectors and the report is published. About 2% of all inspections has resulted in a school being identified as failing and requiring 'special measures'. A further 10-15% of schools have been seen as having serious weaknesses. All schools have to produce an action plan showing their responses to the inspection report. This project studied the impact of the first inspections on schools.

- Inspection and school improvement

Most heads and teachers claimed that inspection produced no great surprises, but the data suggested that this was not always the case. The most obvious example was the school which OFSTED considered had failed and required 'special measures', which had not been expected by the staff. On the positive side the inspection could boost teacher morale through public recognition of what the school had achieved, and it could confirm priorities for future development. There were however, doubts whether a full inspection was the most cost effective way of promoting school improvement.

- Key issues and action planning

Most of the schools were given about half a dozen 'key issues' by OFSTED inspectors. However, the implications of a single issue could range widely: some were quite specific, others were more substantial.

In primary schools the most frequently occurring recommendations related to management and administration; school development planning; and specific aspects of the curriculum. In secondary schools teaching and learning issues were more frequent. In both types of school common areas requiring action were assessment; curriculum delivery and curriculum documentation.

- Problems of implementation

The schools varied in the extent to which they had been able to implement the inspection recommendations. About 9-12 months after inspection a start had been made on about four out of five recommendations, but only about a quarter had been substantially implemented. At the end of the fieldwork (18-21 months later), something had been done in relation to six out of seven of the issues. But no school had fully implemented more than two thirds of the recommendations and most had implemented half or less.

The lowest levels of implementation were for issues concerning teaching and learning (about one in six of the recommendations) and curriculum delivery (about one in seven). Producing discernible improvements in children's learning was a much slower and more uncertain process than that of changing planning and management procedures. None of the schools, in the time scale of the project, was able to cite any evidence of improvement in pupil outcomes.

Management Implications

A major task for headteachers is to manage the whole OFSTED process before, during and after inspection. Preparation includes coping with heightened levels of staff anxiety both in the lead up period and during the inspection itself. Heads and governors need to utilise information from the inspection and plan how to implement what must now be done. It is important to integrate the OFSTED action plan with the school development plan. The research showed the importance of prioritising and pacing development initiatives. Key issues have to be broken down into manageable tasks and relevant resources provided. While structural and organisational changes can be achieved relatively quickly, substantial change is a long term process. Planning should allow for the probability that it will take several years to bring about major improvements in teaching and learning.

A fundamental problem with the current model of inspection is the separation of inspection from advice and support. The links need to be strengthened between the identification of issues, making judgements, and providing support for implementing the changes (especially for those schools in most need of improvement).

Central government should consider how to maximise the contribution that external inspection can make to improving all schools. It seems likely that different approaches may be needed in different contexts to achieve this.

School Leadership and Management: The Key Messages for Practitioners

In this section we draw together a number of broad themes which emerged from the research projects and suggest ways forward for realising the potential of school leadership and management to promote high quality education in the post-reform climate.

The three questions raised earlier will be addressed in turn.

What does the research have to say about how central government reforms have affected school leadership and management?

Six themes may be drawn from the findings:

- 1. Headteachers play a pivotal role in leadership and management*** - their authority for day to day running of the school means that they shoulder unique responsibility for orchestrating changes in response to reforms and harnessing the support of colleagues and governors to this end;
- 2. There have been changes in almost every management task area*** - whether they entail the requirement to carry out new tasks (like managing a budget and appraising staff) or to make changes in familiar ones (such as managing the curriculum and catering for pupils with special educational needs);
- 3. A new and varied range of people are centrally involved in managing schools, with consequent changes in their working relationships*** - reforms altering the balance of authority between school staff, governors and LEA officials have made it imperative to forge new ways of working through a variety of partnerships, depending on local circumstances (within schools, as with senior management teams, between school staff and governors, among neighbouring schools, as in cluster arrangements, or between the various agencies associated with exclusion of pupils from schools);
- 4. There is greater mutual dependence between those responsible for and affected by management, requiring a substantial degree of participation*** - the various partners must not only make an input but must also develop the ability to collaborate in making and implementing decisions;
- 5. There is a positive role for LEAs in school leadership and management*** - from providing training and other services to LEA and grant maintained schools, through participation of LEA teams in OFSTED inspections, to offering support for management tasks like development planning and school improvement;
- 6. School leaders face a widening range of ethical dilemmas*** - whether relating to educational values (such as under what circumstances to exclude pupils), political values (like how far to seek a competitive edge by attracting pupils from neighbouring schools), or managerial values (for example how closely to involve governors in oversight of teaching and learning in the school).

Conversely, it is notable that, despite evidence of widespread implementation of the reforms, they have not necessarily achieved the stated central government aims. The way schools are managed in responding to these reforms has also influenced their impact: market research remains limited, even in urban areas where a quasi-market has been established; and the potential of grant

maintained schools to increase the diversity of educational opportunities has not been fully realised.

What management problems does the research indicate have arisen in connection with central government reforms?

There appear to be two management problems that go beyond specific difficulties associated with particular management tasks. The first is temporary, although it has affected a generation of pupils; the second may be more enduring:

- 1. Policy makers' strategy for introducing reforms has necessitated repeated changes in implementation activity in schools*** - the heavy load and frequent updating of policies, often unpredictable at school level, has made planning and monitoring of implementation difficult;
- 2. The novelty of such a multiplicity of reforms has meant that school managers are only gradually realising the possibilities they offer for new management practices*** - for example LMS allows increased flexibility over staffing, and there is now much more information available that can be used to assist efforts to improve schools.

What lessons may we learn from the research about improving the effectiveness of school leadership and management?

Several themes, some relating to the impact of reforms, are worthy of consideration by school managers and policy makers. The first four concern potentially constraining factors that must be taken into account:

- 1. Local and school contexts, including the recent history of management practice, have a highly significant effect on school management and improvement activity*** - it is important therefore to reflect on any general recommendations in the light of local circumstances and to avoid advocating universal 'quick-fix' solutions;
- 2. Managing change is a long, difficult and often unpredictable process*** - sufficient time must be allowed, whether implementing recommendations of an OFSTED inspection, developing voluntary school clusters, or promoting teamwork;
- 3. Effective school management implies addressing ethical dilemmas in the attempt to justify managerial actions*** - such as how far to encourage wide participation in decision making, or to remove educational injustice, as in the case of discrimination against pupils from certain ethnic backgrounds or with special educational needs;
- 4. Inequity of LMS funding between phases and types of school imposes constraints on managers of those that are least well resourced*** - primary sector LEA maintained schools have less flexibility over staffing and releasing managers during the school day than their secondary or grant maintained school counterparts.

The remaining themes suggest fruitful avenues to be explored in improving school leadership and management:

5. Managers should focus simultaneously on improving management procedures and improving teaching and learning - priority must be given both to developing the ability for school staff and other partners to work together towards shared goals, and to identifying and meeting the needs of all pupils;

6. The task of monitoring the performance of the school may benefit both from capitalising on the requirement to gather a variety of information and from collecting additional data - such as analysing assessment and examination data to inform teaching, tracking the implementation of school development plans, or conducting market research to gauge parents' concerns;

7. Where LMS allows flexibility over deployment of teaching and associate staff, a greater diversity of appointments may be made - including those, like bursars, who can offer direct support for managers;

8. External support, especially in the form of training, is particularly significant for those carrying out new tasks including collaborating in teams or partnerships - as in the case of heads of department to whom more is now delegated under LMS, governors whose awareness may need raising about the importance of avoiding sexism and racism, or senior staff managing the implementation of an action plan following inspection.

School leaders have much to learn as a result of central government reforms if they are to serve their schools well. One of the constants for most walks of life today is the presence of multiple change and, arguably, to meet this challenge we must move in the direction of becoming a 'learning society' where individuals and groups engage together in lifelong learning. The professional sphere of schooling is no exception. The individuals and groups who make up the partners in school management may expect to go through a more or less continual learning experience which can be facilitated both by formal training and informal support.

Headteachers are not only centrally responsible for school leadership and management, but they are also uniquely placed to foster the learning of other partners. Their aim should be to create a 'learning partnership' among staff, parents, pupils, governors, and representatives of other agencies with a stake in school management. A high priority must therefore be placed on identifying and meeting the learning needs of headteachers - especially those who are new to the job - in their role as both managers and facilitators of others' learning.

The central challenge for school leaders and managers is how to go about improving educational and management practice within a fast changing world. The related challenge for researchers is how to assist the learning partnership by asking searching questions, detecting patterns in evolving practice, and disseminating findings that may inform, challenge and stimulate reflection on managers' actions. The investigations reported here offer some insights from research into the ways that people have responded to leading and managing schools in the post-reform era.

Appendix

Summary of The Projects

Theme	Authors	Period	Sample	Methods
National Assessment	Brown, M. and Gipps, C.	1990-93	Yr.2 teachers in 32 primary schools. More detailed work in 6 schools.	Interviews with Heads, Yr.2 teachers and 4 LEA Assessment advisers. Observation of lessons. Questionnaires to Heads and Yr.2 teachers in 32 schools. Repeat visits to 6 case study schools. 'Quote sort' technique with teachers.
National Curriculum in Small Rural Schools	Galton, M. Comber, C. and Hargreaves, L.	1992-94	53 rural schools in 3 Midland LEAs. Case studies of 9 small primary schools.	Survey of 53 schools (Heads and Yr.3 teachers) Two rounds of interviews with heads, teachers and governors in the case studies. Interviews with LEA link inspectors. Use of Hall and Hord's 'Stages of Concern', and picture diaries for children to record types of lesson activity.
School and Department Effectiveness	Sammons, P. Thomas, S. Mortimore, P. and Smees, R.	1993-95	GCSE data on 18,000 students over 3 years in 94 schools in 8 Inner London LEAs. Case studies of 30 departments in 6 schools (selected as more effective, ineffective and those with a mixture of more and less effective departments).	Phase 1 - multilevel statistical analysis of GCSE data. Phase 2 - Interviews with heads, deputy heads, and five heads of department in each case study school. Phase 3 - Survey of 90 schools, total of 270 questionnaires for the headteachers and the heads of department of English and Maths.
Effective Schools and Less Able Pupils	Brown, S. Riddell, S. and Duffield, J.	1992-95	4 'outlier' schools (high and low Social Class and high and low effectiveness) in one Scottish LEA. 31 low attainment pupils as judged by teachers	Interviews with 29 SMT and Learning Support teachers. Observations of 204 English, Maths, and Science lessons for two classes in each school. Interviews with 40 subject teachers and 7 learning support teachers at the end of lessons. Interviews and observation of the 31 pupils.
Exclusion from Primary School	Hayden, C.	1993-95	Case studies of 3 LEAs and 38 of the 265 children excluded in the year.	National survey of LEAs (39 % response). Over 50 interviews with key personnel in the three LEAs and Social Services. Interviews and observations with the 38 case study children. Interviews with their parents/carers. Interviews and questionnaires for the heads and class teachers.

LMS and Provision for Special Needs	Evans, J. Lunt, I. Vincent, C. and Young, P.	1992-94	20 schools (primary and secondary) in 10 LEAs.	National survey of LEAs (40% response). Survey of 500 schools in 25 LEAs (40% response). Interviews with LEA officers, psychologists, advisers and councillors. Interviews with heads, SMT, Head of SEN and governors in the 20 schools.
Role of Senior Management Teams in Secondary Schools	Wallace, M. and Hall, V.	1991-92	The SMTs in 6 Secondary Schools.	Phase 1- Interviews with all members of 6 SMTs, 36 other staff, and 6 governors. Observations of 6 meetings. Phase 2 - More detailed work with two SMTs over a year. Interviews with SMT and staff. Observation of 47 SMT meetings and 35 other meetings. Work shadowing of each member of the SMTs for one day. Documentary analysis.
Governing Bodies	Deem, R. and Brehony, K. J.	1988-92	10 governing bodies in primary and secondary schools in 2 LEAs. (15 schools in pilot phase).	4 year longitudinal study. Observation of all meetings. Interviews with 43 governors and 10 heads. Surveys of 250 governors. Documentary analysis. Use of computerised database to analyse meetings.
Schools and the Education Market	Ball, S. Bowe, R. and Gewirtz, S.	1991-94	15 Secondary schools in 3 clusters in 3 LEAs.	Interviews with 137 parents of Yr.6 pupils before transfer to secondary school. 119 Interviews with heads, teachers and governors in 14 schools. interviews with LEA Officers. Observation of governor meetings, open evenings etc. Documentary analysis.
Parental Choice and Schools response to the Education Market	Glatter, R. Woods, P. A. and Bagley, C.	1990-92 1993-95	Phase 1. 3 Secondary schools in one town. Phase 2. 11 schools in 3 'competitive areas'.	Phase 1. 16 interviews with heads, teachers, governors, and 15 parent interviews. Survey of 262 parents of children transferring to secondary schools (66% response). Establishment of a national database of examples of school responses to parental choice and competition. Phase 2. Three annual surveys of Yr. 6 parents (responses over 75%). Interviews with heads, teachers and governors.
LMS and Formula Funding	Levacic, R.	1989-92	11 primary and secondary schools in one LEA. Pairs of 'winning and losing' schools in relation to changes in budget.	Financial analysis. Documentary analysis. Interviews with LEA Officers, school staff and governors, and observations of meetings.

Associate Staffing in City Technology Colleges	Mortimore, P. Mortimore, J. and Thomas, H.	1993-95	32 postholders in 8 CTCs.	Interviews with the postholders, their line managers, and up to four teachers in each of the colleges and with the principals, senior managers and governors. Total of 202 interviews. Observation of 13 postholders.
School Development Planning in Primary Schools	MacGilchrist, B Mortimore, P. Savage, J. and Beresford, C.	1992-94	National survey of LEAs. Case studies of 9 Primary schools in 3 LEAs.	Survey of all 135 LEAs in England, Scotland, Wales and N. Ireland (100% response). Interviews with, 9 heads, 18 teachers, 18 Governors (Chair and parent), and LEA Advisers. 6 periods of structured observation in 18 classes over 2 year period (Total of 108 observations).
Grant Maintained Schools	Fitz, J. and Halpin, D.	1989-94 (Two projects)	9 GM Secondary schools, 7 LEA schools and 2 Independent schools.	Interviews with DES Officials, Ministers, and LEA Officers. Questionnaire survey of 55 LEAs. Interviews with 24 Heads, 460 pupils and 216 parents in the GM and adjacent LEA and independent schools. Case studies of 9 GM schools, 7 LEA and 2 Independent schools. Survey of 242 teachers. Interviews with all heads, and 23 governors. Survey of 591 Yr.7 pupils in 13 of the schools and interviews with 284 Yr. 9, 10, and 11 pupils.
LEA and OFSTED Inspections	Gray, J. and Wilcox, B.	1992-94	24 case studies of 13 primary and 11 secondary schools in 6 LEAs.	National survey of LEAs (87% response). Three interviews over two year period with 22 LEA Chief Inspectors. Case study interviews with teachers and OFSTED Inspectors shortly after inspection, and again 9-12 months later. Further follow-up of the secondary schools 18-21 months after inspection.

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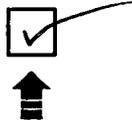
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