Key Characteristics for Effective Teaching: Subject Qualifications or Something Else?

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# Abstract

This research explored whether it was subject qualifications, or other behaviours or characteristics, that were key to teacher effectiveness. It also provided a response to government rhetoric that claims that the most effective teachers are those with the best subject specialist qualifications (DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011; DfE, 2016a; Foster, 2018; Teach First, 2018). This response is based on the findings of interpretivist research that explored stakeholder views and representations, through interviews and examination of teacher job advertisements, in secondary and further education.

From the analysis of the data gathered, several themes emerged. The results of teacher subject qualifications were not a unique signal of teacher effectiveness for stakeholders. For educational leaders, these qualifications formed one aspect of the holistic view of the teacher that they are recruiting. Qualifications, to teachers and to educational leaders, formed only a partial proxy of knowledge required to teach. In acknowledging this, the research indicates that teacher passion is a more effective signal of teacher effectiveness than teacher qualifications. Therefore, a tripartite model of teacher passion, comprising facets of passion for teaching, passion for learning and passion for a teacher’s subject is presented.

Specifically, the centrality of passion and enthusiasm to teacher effectiveness has reiterated teaching as an intrinsically motivated profession in which subject qualification results are not a unique signal of effectiveness. This highlights the need for change, away from a policy focus in relation to teacher subject qualifications, towards one which views subject qualifications holistically. The passion centric model of teacher effectiveness is presented as a model to support this and to aid wider teacher recruitment decision making and policy.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the intention and contents of the thesis. It provides an overview of the research and states the research questions. It introduces the policy rationale, my own professional and personal interest and the emergence and evolution of the project as it now stands. It provides an overview of how the research contributes to the field of knowledge. It also illustrates the personal and professional context, the positionality of the study and the language and terminology that will be used throughout. This chapter concludes by providing a chapter by chapter guide to the content of the thesis.

## 1.1 Research Overview

This research aimed to explore whether it was subject qualifications, or other behaviours or characteristics, that were key to teacher effectiveness. It also provided a response to government rhetoric that claims that the most effective teachers are those with the best subject specialist qualifications (DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011; DfE, 2016a; Foster, 2018; Teach First, 2018).

The extensive research of literature undertaken provides little evidence to support the view of qualifications being key for teacher effectiveness. Slater, Davies and Burgess (2012) found that ‘*observed teachers’ characteristics explain very little of the differences in estimated teacher effectiveness’* (2012, p629). In addition, Bardach and Klassen (2020), in their review of the literature, found that cognitive abilities were not a good predicter of teacher effectiveness. In contrast, however, Goldhaber (1996), Cara and de Coulon (2008) and Shuls & Trivitt (2015) found that teacher qualifications were key to student outcomes in specific subject areas. Within the context of this research a response to such rhetoric and inconsistent findings is given. In doing so, it addresses the extent to which teacher subject specialist qualifications are an indicator, or signal, of teacher effectiveness. It does this by using an interpretivist approach that explores perceptions through the lens of teachers and those involved in teacher recruitment and evaluation in both secondary and further education (FE). It aligns to the recognition by Bardach and Klassen (2020) of the prevalence of teacher evaluation by supervisors, mentors and faculty as a measure of effectiveness. The cross-sector research explored in this thesis will provide a novel insight into both education sectors. It will also allow any thematic commonality or dissonance in relation to teacher effectiveness and qualifications to be explored.

As an interpretivist exploration, this study moves away from viewing teacher effectiveness in terms of student test or examination results. Instead, it draws conclusions and makes recommendations based on interviews with teachers and educational leaders. In doing so, it explores teacher and leader views of teacher effectiveness in three secondary schools and three colleges of further education. In addition, this research utilises document examination, in the form of the content of advertised teacher job vacancies. This aimed to provide a wider view of teacher recruitment beyond the geographical location utilised for the sample and gain access to public representation of school and college values.

### 1.1.1 Research Questions

The study explores the relevance of subject specialist qualifications to teacher effectiveness within secondary and further education. To achieve this, the research explores several areas: the role of qualifications in recruitment; teacher educational and professional biographies and teachers’ and leaders’ perceptions in relation to teacher effectiveness. In doing so it utilises a sample group of teachers (n=18) and educational leaders (n=6).

The overall research question in this study is: **What are the key characteristics for effective teaching – subject qualifications or something else?** Figure 1.1 shows the research questions that emerged from this.These evolved following an initial broad exploration of perceptions of teacher effectiveness. They were refined based upon of the emergence of characteristics rather than behaviours in the research findings (see Chapter 6).

This research will utilise 3 lenses as also noted in Figure 1.1 alongside their associated research questions. These are explored further in Chapter 4.

Figure 1.1: Lenses Utilised in the Research and Accompanying Research Questions

**What are the key characteristics for effective teaching – subject qualifications or something else?**

**Teacher Job advertisements**

**RQ1**: What expectations of subject qualifications are evidenced by stakeholders within recruitment processes and decision making?

**Educational Leader Interviews**

**RQ4:** How do stakeholders define, describe and represent teacher effectiveness?

**Teacher Interviews**

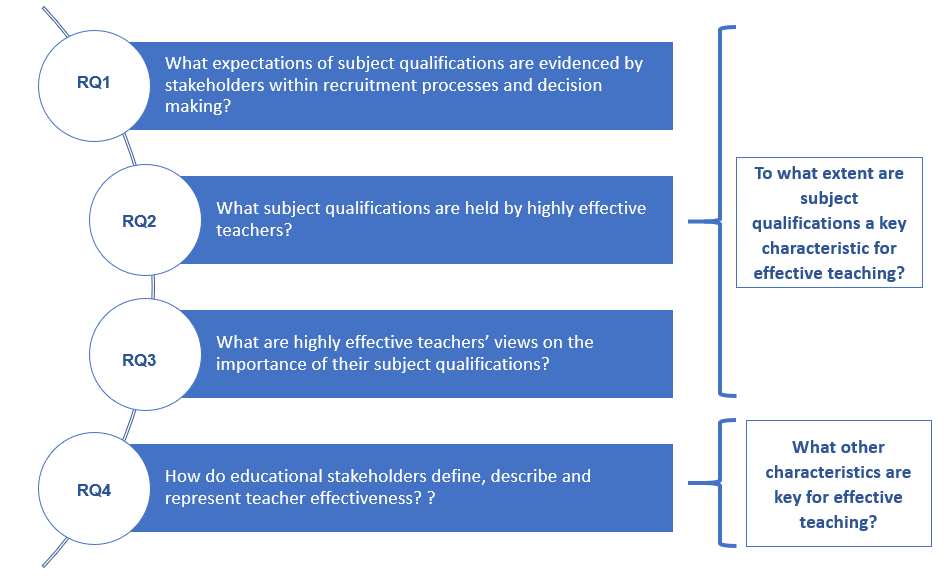
**RQ2**: What subject qualifications are held by highly effective teachers?

**RQ3**: What are highly effective teachers’ views on the importance of their qualifications

**3 Lenses**

The refinement from a broad view of teacher effectiveness to correspond with the research findings resulted in a research question which comprised two strands to the research. One of these strands explored subject qualifications and one explored characteristics, with sub questions evidenced in Figure 1.2

Figure 1.2: Research Questions Grouped by Qualifications or Characteristics



### 1.1.2 Definition of Terms

This study explores subject qualifications as a signal of teacher effectiveness. Prior to exploring this in more detail it is important to ensure clarity in the terminology that has been used.

The research spans secondary and further education (FE) from 2016 to 2020. Secondary education refers to teachers who are teaching in school-based settings with students who are aged 11-16 (school years 7 to 11). Further education refers to teachers who are teaching in colleges of further education or sixth form colleges with students aged 16+[[1]](#footnote-2). The 16+ sector is interchangeably referred to as Further Education and Skills, Post Compulsory Education and Training (PCET) or just Further Education (FE). Further Education (FE) will be the terminology used throughout this thesis for consistency. In a similar vein, whilst teachers in FE have a greater tendency to use ‘learners’ and those in secondary schools are more likely to use the term ‘students’, to ensure clarity, ‘students’ is the term used throughout.

Given the interpretivist nature of the study, views and definitions of teacher effectiveness were defined by the participants themselves and will be documented in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6. These findings will be analysed in Chapter 7. The review of literature (Appendix A) explored this in further detail, drawing on the variety of terminology used within the literature and Interchangeable terms including ‘great’, ‘best’ or ‘effective’ teachers. In order to standardise the language used ‘effective’ teachers will be used throughout this thesis. However, any discussions relating to the teachers interviewed will refer to ‘highly effective’ as this categorisation formed the basis of their educational leader referral.

## 1.2 Professional and Personal Influences on the Research

In undertaking a Doctorate in Education (EdD), it is essential that I am reflexive at the outset (Basit, 2010) (see Chapter 4 - Section 4.2.2). Furthermore, in order to provide transparency, I must reflect upon and acknowledge personal and professional influences on the research. Doing so allows me, as a reflective practitioner to effectively scrutinise the research design at all stages to identify any possible personal or professional contamination.

### 1.2.1 A Personal Perspective

The starting point for this research is my professional observational experience as an ITE practitioner, and my own experience as an FE practitioner. In summary, I joined the teaching profession and subsequently academia as a second chance learner, having left school at 16. I entered the workforce via a government funded Youth Training Scheme and, after several years in employment, commenced a different journey with the Open University. This was a pathway towards a degree that took seven years of part time study alongside a full-time job working in customer service for a local bank. In the final year of study, the bereavement of a close family member and all of the picking up of other family members that so often happens impacted on my degree classification. So, instead of a ‘good’ degree (a 2:1 or better) (Smith and White, 2005), a 2:2, an ‘ok’ degree, was the culmination of my 7 years labour, alongside the knowledge that family were put first. Like one of the interviewees in my research this result has been carried millstone-like through my career, encouraging me to go further, push harder and be much better than the classification would suggest. This progression, through Masters’ Degree by Research (MRes) to EdD continues to drive me forward. My professional progression – a move into teaching in FE followed my degree. This saw me grow as a teacher, being recognised as an outstanding teacher, mentoring colleagues and supporting new teachers before formally moving into teacher education in 2006.

The impact of this biography on my research has therefore influenced the emergence and evolution of my research at each stage from that initial reflective question: '*If I am an outstanding teacher with an ‘OK degree’, what about all of the other teachers?’*

### 1.2.2 An Opportunity for Professional Impact

Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur recognise that choosing to undertake a doctorate is a ‘*huge step [requiring] a vast commitment to several years of research and study’* (2006, p3). However, for me it was the natural next step professionally. Mellors-Bourne, Robinson and Metcalfe note that the EdD allows candidates ‘*to make a significant original contribution to professional practice through research’* (2016, piii)*.* This corresponds to my own decision to take this route and the importance of linking the doctorate to my own professional practice.

My journey thus far has led me to my professional role as a teacher educator, a teacher and also as an author of a range of textbooks for teachers in FE. As a teacher educator my day to day work all revolves around working with trainee teachers. This moves from the application and interview stage, identifying candidates with the potential to be effective teachers, through to monitoring and development of trainee teachers. As an experienced teacher educator my decision to embark on a Doctorate in Education became not just about the product - a qualification to signal academic achievement. It was also about the process - a research apprenticeship forming ongoing professional development. In doing so, it would ‘*not only contribute to knowledge but have a significant impact on [my] professional practice’* (ibid).

### 1.2.3 How I Came Upon the Topic

The choice of topic for my doctoral research, was one that took some time to identify. It comprised wrong turns seeking out and dismissing potential topics that would fire my enthusiasm. Whatever choice was made, it was important that it had clear relevance to my professional practice as an academic who is involved with varying aspects of teacher effectiveness.

The initial scoping allowed me to start to focus further on the formulation of my research question, however this focus and clarity of purpose did not come easily. The decision-making processes took me full circle to the start of the EdD programme and to the first written assignment. It was that assignment that critically examined an aspect of government policy and provided the seed of an idea worthy of germination – teacher subject specialist qualifications. The assignment examined The Schools White Paper (2010) - The Importance of Teaching. It was a paper which was heralded by the government as a *'radical reform programme that puts teachers at the heart of school’* (DfE, 2010). It emphasised actions aimed at improving the quality of teaching and in particular linked to the recruitment of trainee teachers. The White Paper also noted the decision to cease ITT funding for graduates who did not have at least a 2:2 degree. As a practitioner in Initial Teacher Education (ITE) this was of personal and professional interest to me. My own professional experience has identified outstanding trainee teachers who did not have the prerequisite degree class. I had similarly noted inadequate teachers with first class degrees. Beyond this, my own educational experiences had a role in supplementing this interest and so, the seedling was planted. My research would explore the subject qualifications of teachers that could be positioned within teacher characteristics, which in turn could be positioned within teacher effectiveness (See Figure 1.3)

Figure 1.3: Nesting of Teacher Characteristics and Subject Qualifications Within Teacher Effectiveness

## 1.3 The Literature Review

Having refined the topic to teacher subject qualifications, the literature review laid the foundations for the research. The literature review was more than a ‘*hurdle to be overcome’* (Hart, 2018, p13). It allowed me to identify what was known about the research area, the key contributors and the opportunities for new research. The literature review is included in Appendix A. It explores the body of knowledge underpinning the research, the policy context and theoretical frameworks heading into the research. All of which are extended within the body of this thesis as noted by the thesis structure in Section 1.4.

## 1.4 The Structure of the Thesis

**Chapter Two – Theoretical Frameworks**

Chapter Two presents the theoretical frameworks identified in the early stages of the research in three areas: Coe, Aloisi, Higgins and Major’s (2014) Model of **Teacher Effectiveness,** Models of **Teacher Knowledge** (Schulman, 1986; 1987; Turner-Bisset, 1999, 2001) and **Qualifications as Signals** (Spence, 1973). It continues by considering relevant frameworks in relation to themes that emerged *out of* the research. In doing so it presents an alternative model of **Teacher Effectiveness** (Stronge, 2007). It concludes by presenting models of **Work Passion** (Vallerand and Houlforth, 2003; Vallerand, 2008, 2012; Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet and Guay, 2008; Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt and Diehl, 2009).

**Chapter Three – Policy Context**

Chapter Three analyses the extent to which teacher subject qualifications are represented in government policy and develops upon broad policy identified and explored within the assessed literature review (Appendix A). It commences with policy for secondary teachers and continues with policy for teachers in further education.

**Chapter Four - Methodology**

Chapter Four analyses all aspects of the research design, building from the ontological and epistemological position. In doing so, it considers the aims and objectives, research questions, sample used and ethical implications. It reviews the use of an interpretivist, qualitative approach supported by a quantitative element that explores the extent to which teacher qualifications are a signal of subsequent effectiveness. The chapter considers research that encompasses interviews with educational leaders and teachers in secondary and further education (FE). It also reviews the use of document analysis (in the form of teacher job vacancies) across England.

**Chapter Five – Findings – Representations of Teacher Subject Qualifications**

Chapter Five states the research findings in relation to teacher subject qualifications. It introduces narrative to consider elements that will be critically analysed alongside findings in relation to teacher characteristics in Chapter Seven – Discussion and Analysis.

**Chapter Six – Findings – Representations of Teacher Characteristics**

Chapter Six states the research findings in relation to teacher characteristics. It introduces narrative to consider elements that will be critically analysed alongside findings in relation to teacher subject qualifications in Chapter Seven– Discussion and Analysis.

**Chapter Seven – Discussion and Analysis**

Chapter Seven explores representations of teacher subject qualifications and characteristics. It commences with consideration of teacher subject qualifications as a proxy of knowledge or a signal of effectiveness. It continues to consider qualifications as providing wider skills. It concludes with consideration of key characteristics in the holistic view of the teacher. In doing so, it explores notions of the teacher as person or praxis and concludes with consideration of the key role of passion and enthusiasm in teacher effectiveness.

**Chapter Eight – Conclusion and Recommendations**

Chapter Eight considers how the research questions have been met and makes recommendations for further research and professional practice. It details the contribution to knowledge provided by this research. It concludes by documenting professional reflections in relation to the journey travelled from the start of this research to the submission of the thesis.

## 1.5 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the intention and contents of the thesis. It has provided an overview of the research and has stated the research questions. It has introduced the policy rationale, my own professional and personal interest and the emergence and evolution of the project as it now stands. It has provided an overview of how the research contributes to the field of knowledge. It has also illustrated the personal and professional context, the positionality of the study and the language and terminology that will be used throughout. This chapter has concluded by providing a chapter by chapter guide to the content of the thesis.

The following chapter will present theoretical frameworks identified in the early stages of the research and heading into the research. It will conclude by considering relevant frameworks in relation to themes that emerged out of the research.

# Chapter 2: Theoretical Frameworks

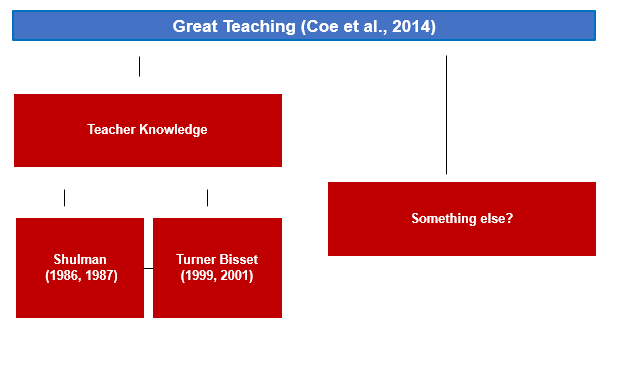
The preceding chapter provided an overview of the research area and set the scene for the research. This chapter presents the theoretical frameworks identified in the early stages of the research in three areas: Coe et al.’s (2014) Model of **‘Great Teaching’**,Models of **Teacher Knowledge** (Schulman, 1986, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 1999, 2001) and **Qualifications as Signals** (Spence, 1973). It continues by considering relevant frameworks in relation to themes that emerged *out of* the research; an alternative model of **Teacher Effectiveness** (Stronge, 2007) and theories of **Work Passion** (Vallerand and Houlforth, 2003; Vallerand, 2008, 2012; Carbonneau et al., 2008; Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, and Diehl, 2009). Exploration of these frameworks provides an all-encompassing conceptual basis for analysis, discussion and future recommendations. Chapter 7 signposts to this chapter.

Theoretical frameworks provide an underpinning for a doctoral thesis thus allowing positioning of the research within relevant fields. Their influence is considered in terms of two dimensions by Trafford and Lesham (2008) being how the research is defined and the chosen methodological approach. The frameworks explored within this chapter have been carefully selected and aligned to the ontological stance (Chapter 4 – Section 4.1.1) that effective teaching reaches beyond student results and outcomes.

## 2.1 Expect the Expected - Heading in – Initial Theoretical frameworks

This study into teacher subject qualifications and effectiveness is underpinned by theoretical frameworks identified in the early stages of the research in three areas, psychological, in terms of models of teacher knowledge (Schulman, 1986, 1987; Turner Bisset, 1999, 2001); Economic, in terms of qualifications as signals (Spence, 1973) and educational, in terms of Coe et al.’s framework of great teaching (2014). These frameworks sit within the overarching area of teacher effectiveness.

Figure 2.1: Theoretical Frameworks Heading into the Research



### 2.1.1 Teacher Effectiveness – Six Components of Great teaching

Teacher effectiveness may be viewed through the outcome driven model synthesised by Coe et al. to whom great teaching ‘*is defined as that which leads to improved student progress’* (2014, p2)*.* This view aligns with government policy, reports and regulatory expectations at the time of the research being undertaken (for example, DfE, 2010; DfE, 2016a) and explored in Chapter 3. Government and educational policy at this time was one which was solely outcome driven. This is evidenced though the Ofsted Frameworks (Ofsted, 2015a; Ofsted 2015b) and utilisation of school and college data in evaluating overall educational effectiveness. Chapter 3 – Section 3.2 explores more recent shifting in policy through changes to bursary funding and a move from the solely outcome driven view of inspection judgements.

Coe et al. (2014) acknowledge the problematic nature of defining teacher effectiveness in devising their framework, but commit to an outcome driven model:

*‘The research keeps coming back to this critical point: student progress is the yardstick by which teacher quality should be assessed. Ultimately, for a judgement about whether teaching is effective, to be seen as trustworthy, it must be checked against the progress being made by students’* (2014, p2).

This view, and any definition of effective teaching, therefore, conveys a message with regards to the overall aims of education as perceived by the person presenting the definition. As Ko, Sammons and Bakkum recognise, ‘*the objectives of education and definitions of quality and effectiveness of education are closely connected’* (2014, p11)*.* The outcome driven model has received criticism in terms of requiring teachers to ‘teach to the test’ in an environment of high stakes testing and increasing teacher accountability (Robinson and Dervin, 2019). This is further recognised by Ro who acknowledges, following a review of the literature, that high stakes accountability, ‘*reduces and confines teacher learning and professionalism to exam-oriented teaching’* (2019, p87). Beyond the impact of high stakes accountability on teacher professionalism, outcome driven models contrast with the Richardson and Watt, (2006) and Thomson and Palermo’s (2014) consideration of altruistic and intrinsic aspects of many teachers in relation to why they entered the profession

Despite the criticisms of an outcome driven view of teacher effectiveness, such a view naturally fits with the outcome driven nature of the education system in England. This is recognised by Coe et al. (2014) who accept that great teaching is determined by government policy*.*  They suggest, in their review of research into effective teaching thatgreat teaching has six components as shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Six Components of Great Teaching (Coe et al., 2014)

1. Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK)
2. Quality of instruction
3. Classroom climate
4. Classroom management
5. Teacher beliefs
6. Professional behaviours

Coe et al.’s (2014) model (as documented further in Appendix C) draws on effective teaching both within and beyond the classroom. It commences with pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) which draws directly on the framework proposed by Shulman (1986, 1987) (see Section 2.1.2 of this chapter). It acknowledges the importance not only of depth of knowledge but a teacher’s understanding about how students think about the subject. PCK focuses on metacognitive aspects. The second element of quality of instruction focusses on the pedagogical aspects that include a teacher’s questioning and assessment techniques and how they support and scaffold learning. From these pedagogical aspects, the model moves to consider classroom climate and aspects of motivation, engagement and teacher-student interaction. The classroom management component of the model considers the more practical aspects of how the classroom is used in teaching. This ranges from consideration of classroom layout, resource use and behaviour management strategies. The final two components of Coe et al.’s (2014) model consider aspects of teaching that cross the boundaries between classroom and non-classroom elements. The teacher belief component encompasses the reasoning behind the decisions that teachers make and the way that they think about teaching. However, the final component, of professional behaviours looks beyond the classroom to wider duties, reflective practice and engagement in continuing professional development. Whilst recognising that great teaching has these six components, Coe et al. (2014) note that only pedagogical content knowledge (see Section 2.1.2) and quality of instruction have strong evidence of impact on student outcomes. The suggestion here is not that the other elements impact the learner on a wider, more holistic scale, but for the remaining elements, that the evidence is not so strong.

The notion of outcomes forming the key measure of teacher effectiveness fits with policy expectations at the time of Coe et al.’s (2014) model and the commencement of this research. However, a recent shift in Ofsted policy is evidenced in the Educational Inspection Framework (Ofsted, 2019a). This sees a move from the dominance of outcomes to an overall quality of education. It therefore suggests that an outcome driven model may require adaptation to meet the current needs of educational organisations.

The review undertaken by Coe et al. (2014) draws on extensive literature from both the USA and UK. However, what is not clear from their report is whether the model and the research that it builds upon is focussed at any specific sector of education. This appears to be a ‘one size fits all’ model for students of any age, in any subject and with any specific needs. Examination of the language used within their report does refer to both schools, including elementary (US primary) and colleges. Therefore, it is assumed that this model of teacher effectiveness is aimed at an age range up to college (FE) based teaching. This can further be inferred through consideration of the location of the literature utilised in formulating their model. The USA and Canada adopt a K-12 educational system in which students attend school up to the age of 18. The broadness of such a model recognises the similarities between teaching in a school and teaching in a college, rather than considering them as separate entities. It therefore has key relevance to anyone undertaking cross sector research.

### 2.1.2 Models of Teacher Knowledge - Shulman’s Model of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (1986,1987)

Government policy in relation to teacher subject knowledge as represented through subject specialist qualifications is explored in Chapter 3. Subject knowledge is also represented through theoretical frameworks. The dominant theorist in terms of this teacher knowledge is Lee Shulman (1986, 1987) who recognises teaching as a learned profession. He does, however, suggest that teacher knowledge is not merely defined by subject knowledge alone. Shulman continues to form a cornerstone of research into teacher knowledge (See for example, Scherer, Tondeur, Siddiq and Baran, 2018; Tröbst, Kleickmann, Heinze, Bernholt, Rink and Kunter and Iserbyt, Ward, and Li, 2017). Shulman (1987) suggests categories of knowledge base that are the minimum knowledge required by an effective teacher (see Figure 2.3). In more recent work. Shulman (2004) continues to explore the relevance of these bases.

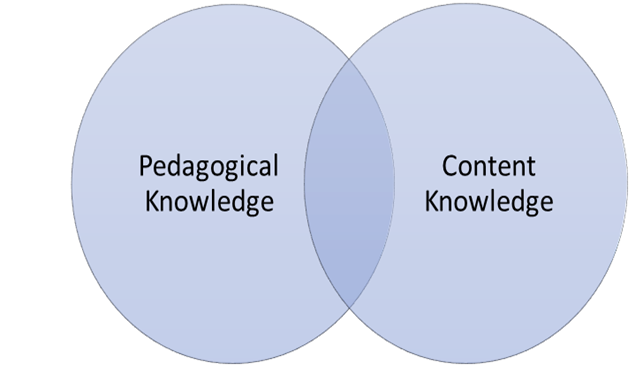
Figure 2.3: Shulman’s (1987) Knowledge Bases

* Content knowledge
* General pedagogical knowledge
* Curriculum knowledge
* Pedagogical content knowledge
* Knowledge of learners’ and their characteristics
* Knowledge of educational contexts
* Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds

(Shulman. 1987, p8)

In identifying these knowledge bases, Shulman recognises their transient nature: ‘*A knowledge base for teaching is not fixed and final’* (1987, p12) and suggests that his bases represent *‘only the most rudimentary place-holders’* (ibid). The extent to which the subject knowledge is evidenced through teacher subject qualifications extends beyond those bases that specifically mention content knowledge. In doing so, they encompass the knowledge gained through engagement in learning and education. These are considered in Section 2.1.3 alongside the knowledge bases identified by Turner-Bisset (1999) and analysed in relation to the research findings in Chapter 7.

Figure 2.4: Representation of Positioning of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) (Shulman, 1987)



**PCK**

When considering aspects of content knowledge, Shulman (1987) established that teacher subject or content knowledge (what is taught) is intertwined with pedagogical knowledge (how a subject is taught). In noting that these two aspects, were distinct Shulman (1987) proposed that Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) was formed at their intersect and was pivotal to teaching (see Figure 2.4). Shulman recognises that the source of content knowledge is ‘*scholarship in the content disciplines’* (2004, p228) and notes that this scholarship is not just retention of knowledge, facts and figures but also links to meta knowledge. This meta knowledge comprises the *‘historical and philosophical scholarship on the nature of knowledge in those fields of studies’* (ibid). Shulman (1987) also notes that subject knowledge must be demonstrated by teacher applicants. He does not, however consider how this knowledge may be represented, whether by subject specialist degrees or wider representations of subject knowledge and cognitive ability. These may range from USA Grade Point Average (GPA[[2]](#footnote-3)) as noted by D’Agostino and Powers (2009) to SAT and ACT College entrance tests, noted by Bardach and Klassen (2010) and Praxis tests[[3]](#footnote-4) (Shuls and Trivitt, 2015).

More recently, Shulman (2004) acknowledged US educational reform and higher entry criteria to the teaching profession, and noted the need to raise standards. However, he expressed concern that his knowledge bases should not lead to teaching being ‘*reduced to knowledge transmission’* (2004, p3). Teaching, to Shulman, despite his knowledge base focus, is about more than knowledge alone:

*‘We must be careful that the knowledge base approach does not produce an overly technical image of teaching, a scientific enterprise that has lost its soul. The serious problems in medicine and other health professions arise when doctors treat the disease rather than the person’* (ibid).

### 2.1.3 Models of Teacher Knowledge: Turner-Bisset – Knowledge Bases for Teaching (1999, 2001)

Just as Shulman (1987) predicted, his model of PCK and consideration of knowledge bases laid the foundation for a range of further research. Turner-Bisset's adaptation (1999) builds on Shulman’s (1987) knowledge bases (see Table 2.1) and draws on notions of teacher standards, the cornerstone of teacher practice. Whilst Turner Bisset’s knowledge bases were derived following research into primary school teaching, the application of her model has been extended to both secondary education and FE (see for example Rice and Kitchel, 2016; Schmidt, 2017).

Turner-Bisset views teacher knowledge as a paradigm that teaching may occupy. She further suggests that teaching should be viewed in terms of knowledge bases and the wider view of knowledge, incorporating ‘*concepts, facts, processes, skills, beliefs and attitudes’* (2001, p159). She recognises that the extent of a teacher’s PCK in the various knowledge bases varies according to the subject being taught. In doing so, she notes that teachers have been shown to teach well in one subject and only just adequately or inadequately in others.

Turner-Bisset acknowledges different categorisations of teaching including those of effective teaching, good teaching or creative teaching. She makes clear links between teacher knowledge and effectiveness and presents a new conceptualisation of ‘*expert teaching*’(2001, p1).Here she proposes a new paradigm against those noted by Squires (1999) of ‘*teaching as a craft; teaching as an applied science; teaching as a system; teaching as reflective practice and teaching as competence’* (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p3).

Shulman (1987) and Turner-Bisset (2001) both recognise teaching as a knowledge-based profession. However, Turner-Bisset’s research is more closely related to teaching in England. In noting a knowledge-based profession, she notes a disparity between teaching practice and teacher standards. She comments that school teacher standards are ‘*impoverished’* and suggests instead, ‘*a more sophisticated theoretical underpinning of teaching’* (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p39) by the application of her own model of knowledge bases for teaching. In doing so she presents an alternative to what she views as ‘*itemised standards and the lists of qualities, skills and dispositions which dominate the findings from research into effective teaching’* (ibid). Whilst not considering teacher subject qualifications, she echoes government policy at the time of her research as documented in Chapter 3. This view, of the need to ‘*attract the most able and talented people we possibly can into the profession’* (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p162) was reinforced in terms of policy into the second decade of the 21st century (For example, DfE, 2010; DfE, 2016a)

Turner-Bisset’s (1999) knowledge bases for teaching map across to and build on the work of Shulman (1987). All but one of Shulman’s (1987) bases are present in the eleven bases proposed by Turner-Bisset (1999). However, there are clear variances and also nuances between the two sets of knowledge bases. In Turner-Bisset’s (1999) model, PCK – seen as a separate base within Shulman’s model, is viewed differently. It is viewed both in terms of general pedagogical knowledge and also as an overarching theme. This overarching theme encompasses all Turner-Bisset’s newly synthesised knowledge bases. Content knowledge, noted as a single base with recognition of both content and philosophical aspects in Shulman’s (1987) model, is specifically subdivided by Turner-Bisset (1999) into ‘*substantive’* and ‘*syntactic knowledge’*. Similarly, Shulman’s knowledge base of *‘knowledge of learners and their characteristics’* (1987, p8) is subdivided in Turner-Bisset’s model to comprise ‘*knowledge of learners: empirical (social)’* and ‘*knowledge of learners’ (cognitive)’* (2001, p15) in order to accommodate *‘contextual factors’* (ibid). Table 2.1 compares the Shulman’s (1987) and Turner-Bisset’s (1999) models and forms the basis for further analysis in relation to the research findings in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1

Table 2.1: Aligning Turner-Bisset’s (1999) and Shulman’s (1987) Knowledge Bases

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Knowledge Base**(**Turner-Bisset, 1999)** | **Corresponding Knowledge Base**  **(Shulman, 1987)** |
| Substantive subject knowledge | Content knowledge |
| Syntactic subject knowledge | Content knowledge |
| Beliefs about the subject | No equivalent |
| Curriculum knowledge | Curriculum knowledge |
| General pedagogical knowledge | General pedagogical knowledge |
| Knowledge / models of teaching | General pedagogical knowledge |
| Knowledge of learners: cognitive | Knowledge of learners and their characteristics |
| Knowledge of learners: empirical (social) | Knowledge of learners and their characteristics |
| Knowledge of self | No equivalent |
| Knowledge of educational contexts | Knowledge of educational contexts |
| Knowledge of educational ends, purpose and values | Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds |
| Pedagogical Content Knowledge | Pedagogical Content Knowledge |

Aspects of knowledge bases may be formulated as a consequence of teachers’ experiences (Turner-Bisset, 1999, 2001). For example, ‘*general pedagogical knowledge’* may be gained from teaching practice. Similarly, ‘*knowledges of models and teaching’* and ‘*knowledge* *of learning contexts’* may be derived from teachers own educational experiences (ibid). In addition, ‘*knowledge of self’* may be derived from a teacher’s ability to reflect on their experiences. The derivation of substantive and syntactic knowledge though is not so clear. Whilst they are formulated as a consequence of engagement with academic disciplines, Turner-Bisset suggests that to be effective, teachers need to engage more deeply with a subject:

*‘The mere process of engaging in consideration of the essential substance of a subject, its organising paradigms and key concepts and in the syntactic structures of how knowledge, understanding or art are produced within the subject, may force one to look at the subject differently, and to comprehend it in ways which may have been hidden before’* (2001, p46)

This is explored further in relation to the research findings in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1 and 7.2.

### 2.1.4 Signalling Effect of Qualifications

There is a complex interplay of issues in relation to teacher knowledge and effectiveness in this research. This is in part due to the contribution of Michael Spence’s (1973) economic lens and quantitative exploration of capital which has key government policy and budgetary implications (see Chapter 3 for a review of relevant policy). Whilst introduced nearly 50 years ago, his model continues to be widely cited and influential today in diverse economic and employment areas. This ranges from the economics of education (Machin and Vignoles, 2018) to the use of social media data in employment decisions (Acquisti and Fong, 2019).

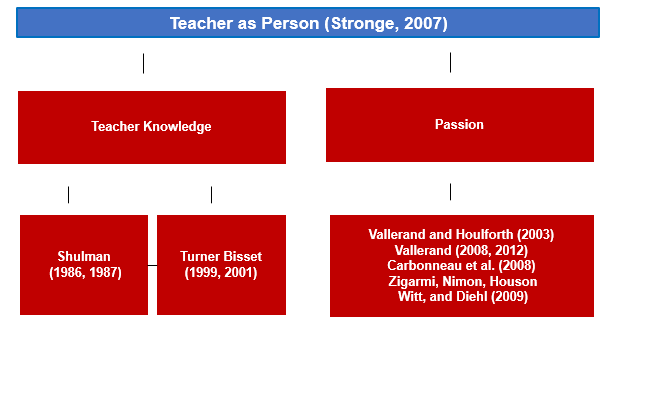
Spence suggests that hiring someone is to purchase ‘*a lottery’* (1973, p356) and that the wage paid is the cost of the lottery. Therefore, a recruitment decision is based on unknown worker productivity. Despite this recruitment lottery, Spence (1973) purports that there are aspects of a potential employee that can be known. These comprise observable characteristics and can take two forms, as fixed and alterable characteristics. Fixed characteristics comprise those that an employee is unable to change, for example, age, gender, race etc and are collectively termed as ‘*indices’* (Spence, 1973, p357). Alterable characteristics, for example education level and qualifications are termed as ‘*signals’* (ibid). These indices and signals are identifiable at the recruitment stage with signals providing an insight into the potential productivity of the applicant. This therefore enables categorisation of the potential effectiveness of the employee, which Spence refers to as their ‘*productivity’* (Spence, 1973, p358). Qualifications act as an indicator of employee productivity because their signalling effect is based on the premise that high productivity individuals will gain qualifications at less financial and personal cost in terms of effort. Given this, more able applicants are the ones who gain the better qualifications.

The ability to determine the worth or otherwise of varying characteristics is developed over time by an employer dependent upon their needs. Signals and indices are therefore considered ‘*as parameters in shifting probability distributions that define an employers’ beliefs’.* (Spence, 1973, pp357-8). By drawing on this he suggests an experienced employer will, over time gather information regarding different characteristics. Spence (1973) states that this will be based upon the extent to which different characteristics can be seen to correspond with increased productivity. The employer, therefore, will attain a set of beliefs about the productivity of an applicant with a given set of indices and signals. The reality of decision making in terms of teacher employment, however, is not solely at the behest of the employer. The signalling effect of a teacher’s qualifications and the flow or otherwise of teachers with specific characteristics into the workplace may be both dependent on local and national employer needs. Similarly, they may be a consequence of the array of policy influences as discussed in Chapter 3. Therefore, the research undertaken herein draws on the views of employers at a local or micro level. However, decisions made regarding recruitment of trainee teachers are still influenced by government policy and funding opportunities to new applicants at a macro level. Spence’s model includes ‘*a feedback loop in which employer expectations lead to offered wages to various levels of education, which in turn lead to investment in education by individuals’* (1973, p359) andis also dependent on maintaining equilibrium and feedback from employers. Whilst this is possible at a local level, such policy interference and influence prevent the model from adapting to suit the changing markets. It therefore fails to take on board the experience and knowledge of local employers.

Spence (1973) considers education as a multidimensional quantity, for example, years of education, institution attended, and grades achieved. He acknowledges productivity in terms of worker outputs. Types of employee outputs will vary from job to job, ranging from production outputs, customer satisfaction and work quality. Spence’s (1973) output driven view of an employee’s worth, therefore, when applied to the teaching profession will correspond to measures of teacher effectiveness.

Spence notes that an individual *will invest in education if there is sufficient return offered by the wage schedule* (1973, p358). This suggests that people undertake education for monetary, rather than intrinsic gain. Teachers in Science, Technology Engineering and Maths (STEM) courses are increasingly difficult to recruit (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.2) and this could be linked to the fact that graduates in these subject areas see a greater return with other career opportunities. However, this view of extrinsically motivated applicants, contradicts some aspects of policy and wider views. (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.2). For example, the DfE (1998) emphasise the intrinsic rewards of teaching whilst simultaneously incentivising entrance to the profession via bursaries. This is explored in relation to the research findings in Chapter 7 - Section 7.2.2).

## 2.2 Expect the Unexpected – Theoretical Frameworks Related to the Research Findings

Figure 2.5: Theoretical Frameworks in Relation to the Research Findings

The theoretical frameworks heading into the research were based upon the thought processes, exploration of extant literature and development of research questions. The frameworks considered in this section are those that were required and acknowledged from the data and the themes that emerged during and following data analysis. Frameworks of teacher knowledge (Shulman, 1986, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 1999, 2001) were still pertinent. However, it was the unanticipated aspects resulting from this interpretivist approach that personalised the experiences, values and beliefs of the teachers and leaders interviewed. This allowed exploration of frameworks in order to categorise or group together the themes that emerged. An overarching theme of teacher affective characteristics and teacher as person (Stronge, 2007) emerged from the research. This contrasted with the predominantly praxis view of teacher effectiveness of Coe et al.’s (2014) model that was utilised heading into the research. Within this view of teacher as person, themes of passion and enthusiasm also emerged. This necessitated the inclusion of frameworks of work passion (Vallerand and Houlforth, 2003; Vallerand, 2008, 2012; Carbonneau et al., 2008; Zigarmi et al., 2009). These are explored in relation to the research findings in in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.

### 2.2.1 Teacher as Person

Stronge (2007), in synthesising the literature in relation to teacher qualities and attributes provides a model which combines praxis and person but retains the focus on teacher as person. In doing so he acknowledges that defining an effective teacher is a difficult task. He comments that *‘If a single method for developing an effective teacher existed, such a teacher would be in every classroom’* (2007, pix).In this recognition Stronge does concede that there are ‘*common attributes that characterize effective teachers’* (ibid) and presents five checklists for effective teaching. Whilst encompassing teacher praxis in his checklists, the first of his checklists (Figure 2.6) separates the praxis from the teacher with a checklist of teacher as person).

Figure 2.6: Effective teacher Checklists (Stronge, 2007)

1. The teacher as person
2. Classroom management and organisation
3. Planning and organising for Instruction
4. Implementing instruction
5. Monitoring student progress and potential

These checklists comprise qualities as subcategories which are further subdivided to document specific aspects within each quality which Stronge (2007) refers to as indicators (see Appendix B for a breakdown of all qualities and indicators). In presenting this person focussed view in his initial checklist, Stronge (2007) presents the impact of teacher as person and the psychological impact a teacher can have in enhancing student achievement. He also acknowledges that in stakeholder representations of teacher effectiveness, pedagogical practice and praxis are present. However, a key focus is on ‘*teachers’ affective characteristics, or social and emotional behaviours more than pedagogical practice’* (2007, p22). Stronge (ibid) acknowledges that these affective characteristics are difficult to quantify. This may suggest a reason for their emergence in interpretivist rather than in positivist research (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.1).

Stronge’s checklist of teacher as person comprises seven qualities (see Figure 2.7) representing affective aspects (see Appendix B for their associated indicators). In considering his quality of *Caring*, Stronge (2007) links the need for caring to elementary teachers. However, the research upon which he justifies the importance of caring as a key quality extends beyond this to secondary education. (see for example Astor, Meyer and Behre, 1999; Collinson, 1996). For Stronge, a teacher who has caring qualities must also demonstrate that quality to students. In considering the indicator of ‘*show fairness and respect’* (Stronge, 2007, p25) the same is true; the teacher as person must demonstrate the quality to the student. They must ‘*emphasise, model and [practise] fairness and respect’’* (ibid).Interactions with students, according to Stronge are not just generic interactions noted in his summary table but must encompass both social and academic interactions.

Figure 2.7: Qualities of Teacher as Person (Stronge, 2007)

1. Caring
2. Shows fairness and respect
3. Interactions with students
4. Enthusiasm
5. Motivation
6. Dedication to teaching
7. Reflective practice

In Stronge’s (2007) consideration of enthusiasm and motivation, a recognition of commonality between the two is implied through his discourse, though these are tabulated separately. For Stronge (2007) a teacher must not only ensure student motivation but also demonstrate that same motivation and enthusiasm. This should be not only for teaching, but also involve learning outside of school and having joy in the subject matter.

Affective aspects of a teacher continue in the sixth of Stronge’s (2007) qualities. Dedication to teaching extends beyond teaching to interlink with notions of developing professionally in terms of a *‘commitment to student learning and to personal learning’* (Stronge, 2007, p29).Stronge, through this model accepts the view of a teacher’s own education as important for their own personal development and returns offered to them. He refers to an ‘*investment in their own education’* (ibid) and considers professional development as an investment.

Reflective practice is the final of Stronge’s (2007) teacher as person qualities and encompasses not only teacher reflection but acting on reflection. This quality also acknowledges the importance of high standards, performance and high expectations. Here there are clear links made between the impact of teacher as person on teaching praxis. In a later version of his model, Stronge (2018) replaces the teacher as person checklist with professionalism, moving the position of the checklist from a primary position at the fore of the checklists to a position at the end of the checklists. What is not clear however is whether the position of each checklist in the model is significant. Despite this change in relation to positionality, there is little change between the person and professionalism practice checklist. There are three clear exceptions to this consistency in qualities in relation to teacher as person checklist. The first is the merging of ‘*enthusiasm’* and ‘*motivation’* (Stronge, 2007, p110) to *‘enthusiasm and motivation about [student] learning’* (Stronge, 2018, p274). Whilst disparate in the original checklists, these qualities were, as noted earlier in this section, combined in the discourse for the 2007 model. The second exception to the 2007 checklist is the addition of a collaboration and communication quality. The reasoning behind this move from teacher as person to professionalism, suggests a move towards the focus of the teaching professional rather than a focus on a holistic person-centred view of a teacher. However, this is contradicted by Stronge himself who still considers the teacher as the ‘*whole person…not teacher skills alone, not teacher dispositions alone*’ (2018, p3). It may be however, that in this revised model, the whole person is the whole teacher and there is a separation between the person outside of and the person inside of teaching. This is suggested by Stronge in his comment that ‘*professionalism encompasses key characteristics reflecting a teacher’s dispositions, goals and purposes, and values and beliefs that affect teaching effectiveness’* (2018, p213).The final exception to the 2007 teacher qualities lies in an examination of the indicators within the reflective practice quality. Here there is a much greater focus on the teacher as a learner. This learning ranges from ‘*self-directed learning*, ‘*setting own personal development goals’* and ‘*engaging in learning activities outside the classroom’* (Stronge, 2018, 275-276) (see Appendix B).

### 2.2.2 Work Passion

The emergence of passion for life activities and interests is attributed to Vallerand, Houlfort and Forest (2003) and Vallerand (2008) who noted the lack of research in relation to passion beyond that of psychological views of romantic passion. This recognition has continued, with Perrewé, Hochwarter, Ferris, McAllister and Harris considering work passion to be an emerging construct whilst being a ‘*highly sought-after, yet poorly understood (and cultivated), worker attribute’* (2014, p145).Despite this, however, there are broad definitions available in relation to passion for life activities and interest. According to Vallerand, Blanchard, Mageau, Koestner, Ratelle, Léonard, Gagné and Marsolais, passion is:

‘*a strong inclination toward an activity that people like, that they find important, and in which they invest time and energy’* (2003, p756)

In their research, Vallerand and Houlfort (2003), found that most employees have passion for their work, with this being fairly evenly split between harmonious and obsessive passion. This dinstinction, between harmonious and obsessive passion is key to their conceptuallisations of work passion. Vallerand (2008) suggests that people will eventually show a preference for some activities or interests and develop their engagement to such an extent that they will become ‘*passionate or self-defining activities’* (2008, p2).The passion applied to these activities will be either obsessive or homonious. In doing so, the activities will become *‘so self defining that they represent central features of ones identity’* (ibid). The distinction, however relates to whether a choice continues to be made in relation to the activity, rather than a compulsion. Obsessive passion relates to a ‘*a controlled internalisation of the activity into one’s identity’* (Vallerand, 2008, p2)*.* Whereas harmonious passion is a consequence of ‘*autonomous internalisation of the activity into the person’s identity’* (ibid). Vallerand considers that ‘*whether passions make life worth living depends on the type of passion’* (2008, p757). Harmonious passion, is preferable over obsessive passion due to the retention of control, rather than causing ‘*rigid persistence, and conflict with other actvities in one’s life*’ (Vallerand, 2008). Key to this, therefore, is the notion of whether the person controls the passion or the passion controls the person (Vallerand and Houlforth, 2003). The negative impact of obsessive passion is acknowledged by Vallerand and Houlfort (2003). They cite Koeske and Kelly, (1995) and Raedeke, Granzyk and Warren (2000) in noting that the engagement evidenced by obsessively passionate workers can lead to physical and emotional health problems. Similarly, Perrewé et al. (2014) note the ‘*dark side of work passion’* and cite Cardon, Wincent, Singh and Drnovsek (2009) who suggest that passion ‘*has been associated with aggressive behaviour including the pursuit of goals, the elimination of barriers, and the accumulation of job-related materials and support’* (2014, p147).

Whilst Vallerand suggests that passion is linked to engagement in activities, he suggests that it can have a clear role in performance and resilience:

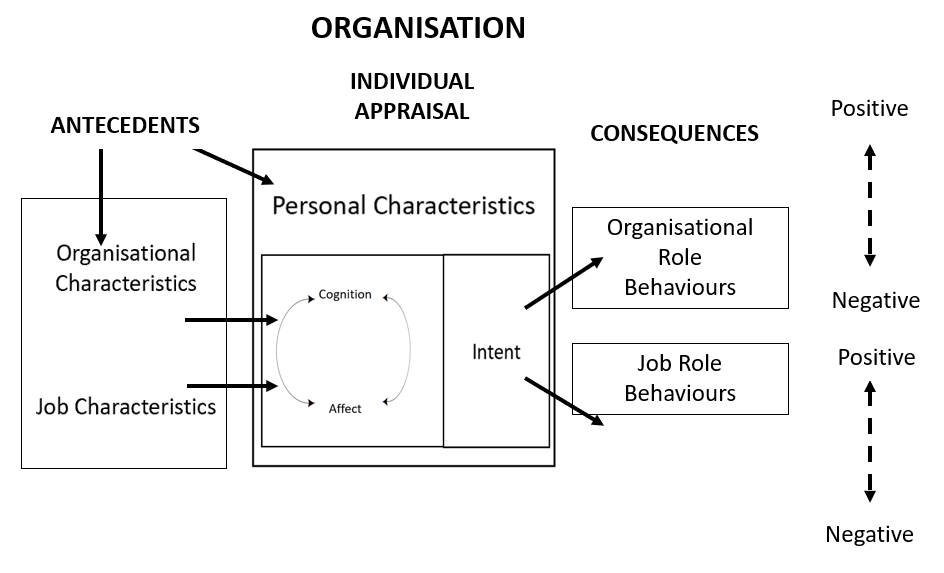
*‘If one is to engage in [an] activity for long hours over several years and perhaps a lifetime, one must love the activity dearly and pursue engagement especially when times are rough’.* (Vallerand, 2008, p6)

Research in relation to work passion builds on self determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985), whereby people seek to address ‘*basic psychological needs of autonomy…competence… and relatedness’* (Vallerand, 2008, p1). Passion, however is not only directed to activities, with Perrewé et al. acknowledging that individuals ‘*may direct their passion toward specific activities [or] certain individuals or groups’* (2014, p146).

Acknowledging the role of passion inthe workplace, Zigarmi et al. suggests that ‘*passion’* is a much closer fit than notions of ‘*engagement’* (2009, p311). They pre-empt any criticism of the terminology in terms of ‘*visions of irrationality and inappropriateness for the workplace’* (2009, p312)with reference to Descartes (1649; 1972). In doing so, they recognise that passion ‘*characterises strong emotions with inherent positive behavioural tendencies’* (Zigarmi et al., 2009, p311)*.* Alongside this, they provide their definition evidencing how they perceive work passion:

*‘Employee work passion is an individual’s persistent, emotionally positive, meaning-based, state of wellbeing stemming from reoccurring cognitive and affective appraisals of various job and organizational situations that results in consistent, constructive work intentions and behaviours.* (ibid)

Zigarmi et al. (2009) draw upon a comonality of themes and elements evident and suggest that engagement is a multidimensional construct. They propose a work passion model based on ‘*a triad of* *cognition, affect and intention’* (2009, p319) and suggest its relevance for human resource professionals. The model they propose addresses any shortcomings evidenced in prior research in terms of lack of consideration of any antecedents or consequences (ibid)*.* Instead, these form influencing and resulting aspects of an individuals’ overall view of their work / workplace. Their model is documented in Figure 2.8.

Figure 2.8: Work Passion Model (Zigarmi et al., 2009)

Zigarmi et al. (2009, p319) note that an individual’s own overall view of their work draws upon aspects of ‘*cognition, affect and intent’. They also acknowledge* that affect is an aspect of passion engagement that is rarely researched. They note that when it is researched affect relates to how employees describe the conditions in which they work and their future work intentions. When affect is measured, it is usually through Positive and Negative Affective Scales (PANAS[[4]](#footnote-5)). It is affect that forms the passion aspect of this model, supported by cognition, being logical thoughts and decision-making processes. The two aspects (cognition and affect) interlink to construct intent which then influences organisational and job role behaviours.

The cognition aspect of Zigarmi et al.’s (2009) model recognises the varying levels of cognition from solely description to higher order thinking. Cognition also recognises the value aspects of thinking, for example a teacher answering a question that involves making a judgement about the quality of an aspect of the workplace. Zigarmi et al. (2009) suggestion caution in conflating cognition and intention and acknowledge the contribution of Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and Bagozzi and Yi (1989). In doing so, they maintain that the primary ingredient in the concept of work passion is intention. They suggest that this is because there is strong evidence to suggest that the degree to which intentions are well formed shapes the way affect influences behaviour.

The application of work passion to aspects of teaching was recognised by Carbonneau et al. who commented that ‘*passion for teaching is an important concept to consider in education’* (2008, p99). In acknowledging this, they adapted and applied Vallerand and Houlfort’s (2003) dualistic passion scale to teaching. They examined interpersonal (in the form of teacher perceived student classroom behaviours) and intrapersonal outcomes (in the form of work satisfaction and burnout). In doing so, they found that positive changes in harmonious passion led to increased work satisfaction and decreases in burnout. This intrapersonal aspect of teacher passion application, for example in terms of job satisfaction and teacher wellbeing, dominates the literature (see for example Fernet, Lavigne, Vallerand, and Austin, 2014; Moe et al., 2016).

## 2.3 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the theoretical frameworks identified in the early stages of the research, those in relation to Coe et al.’s (2014) Model of **‘Great Teaching’**,Models of **Teacher Knowledge** (Schulman, 1986, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 1999, 2001) and **Qualifications as Signals** (Spence, 1973). It has concluded by considering relevant frameworks that were identified from themes that emerged out of the research. These comprised an alternative model of **Teacher Effectiveness** in terms of teacher as person (Stronge, 2007) and **Work Passion** (Vallerand and Houlforth, 2003; Vallerand, 2008, 2012; Carbonneau et al., 2008; Zigarmi, et al., 2009). The following chapter will explore the extent to which teacher subject qualifications for teachers in secondary education and FE are represented in government policy.

# Chapter 3: Policy Context

The preceding chapter considered the theoretical frameworks that were identified as being relevant prior to the research and those that were acknowledged following analysis of the research findings. This chapter analyses the extent to which teacher subject qualifications are represented in government policy, legislation and reports in secondary and further education (FE). It develops upon the current policy context, for example (DfE, 2010; DfE 2016a), that was explored in the reviewed literature (Appendix A). It commences with consideration of the establishment of the tripartite educational system. It then follows with an historical exploration of the representation of secondary teacher qualifications in policy before concluding with consideration of policy in relation to subject qualifications for FE teachers. Tables 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 summarise the key aspects of policy in relation to these subject qualifications.

## 3.1 Setting the Scene

The origins and evolution of policy in relation to teachers’ qualifications in both secondary and further education can be viewed following a pivotal moment in relation to education in England and Wales. The planning for post war reform in education was evidenced in two prominent reports from 1944 (Dent, 1977). The McNair Report (1944) on the Training of Teachers preceded the Royal Assent of the Education Act of 1944 (commonly referred to as the Butler Act) by just three months (Dent, 1977) and recognised proposed educational reforms. The Butler Act (1944) was fundamental in the establishment of a tripartite education system – of secondary education for all within England and Wales. This act identified ‘*inadequacies within further education’* (Machin, Hindmarch, Murray and Richardson, 2020, p5) and established secondary education in three forms: grammar schools, secondary modern schools and technical schools. This formal recognition of FE in legislation acknowledged the move to a sector which would expand to offer full time courses (Goldstone, 2019).

## 3.2 Policy and Reports for Secondary Teacher Qualifications – an Historical Exploration

Table 3.1 provides a summary chronology of policy, legislation and reports in relation to teacher subject qualifications in order to provide insight into their representation over time. This section will explore these insights in further detail in order to set the scene for further analysis in Chapter 7.

The McNair Report (1944) marked the introduction of the tripartite education system, under the Churchill war ministry coalition government. In doing so, it noted that, whilst there were no prescribed qualifications of secondary school teachers, the majority (78%) were graduates. This established teaching as predominantly a graduate profession with salary scales reflecting whether teachers were or were not graduates. However, the report also recognised that many good teachers would be lost to the profession if teaching was restricted solely to graduates. Any view of teaching as predominantly a graduate profession, however, is attributed to the assumption of subject mastery. Given the time elapsed since the early stages of teachers’ secondary education, a degree may not affirm mastery of the secondary curriculum (Partington, 1999).

A conflict of views in relation to the importance of qualifications is evidenced in ever shifting government policy and in times of teacher shortage. The emergency teacher scheme, introduced following the second world war until 1951, waived the need for (primarily) ex-service people to have the qualifications deemed necessary to enter the profession (Dent, 1977). This addressed the need for post war employment in addition to addressing teacher shortages. The selection process for the scheme was deemed to be rigorous and consequently ‘*many of [the recruits] proved above average teachers and more than a few first class’* (Dent, 1977, p127).There was, however, recognition that the scheme was not without its shortcomings and produced ‘*a higher proportion of weak teachers than among those produced by permanent training colleges’*(ibid).

The shortages that the emergency teacher scheme sought to overcome were no longer an issue by the late 1950s and early 1960s. Consequently, the policy rhetoric in relation to highly qualified teachers emerged again. This was through in an influential ministry of education Her Majesty’s Inspectorate (HMI) booklet that emphasised that ‘*academic work [gave] teachers standing and confidence to take their place beside graduates’* (Keating, 2010, p14). However, under the Conservative government of Edward Heath, the James report whilst recognising that a degree ‘*is the most natural and proper form’* of entry to the teacher training stated that ‘*it by no means follows that it is the one most desirable for all’* (1972, p41), This recognition, of a degree not always being the required route into teaching is evidenced by the data in relation to numbers of graduate teachers in the profession. In the 1977 Education in Schools Consultative Document, through the Labour government, the desire for teaching to be an all graduate profession was stressed. Alongside this came the recognition that just over one quarter of all teachers at that time were graduates (DfES, 1977). By 1983, the graduate / non-graduate split for secondary teachers was almost even, with one hundred and twenty-eight thousand graduates and one hundred and seventeen thousand non-graduates (DfES, 1983).

The presence of a degree, however, only provides one aspect of the qualification, with degree classification forming another. This provides the need to consider the distribution of each class of degree in terms of wider issues of equality. Teachers have historically been drawn from a narrow social stratum that may not be representative of the students that they teach. This was noted in 1977 through the Education in Schools Consultative Document. In this, the government explored opportunities for alternative entry routes into the profession. This was aimed at ‘*those who belong to the ethnic minorities or who have had experience of the problems of inner-city areas as well as those with a wide variety of industrial or commercial experience’* (DfES, 1977, p26). Shirley Williams, the Secretary of State further recognised the limitations of entrants to the profession having ‘*inadequate experience and understanding of the world outside of education’* (ibid, p27)*.* At the same time, the 1977 HMI Ten Good Schools Report recognised that common characteristics including ‘*the initial qualifications of teachers, the length of experience or their years of service to school [were] not necessarily prime factors in a school’s success’* (1977, p29).

The characteristics of an effective teacher beyond qualifications were further recognised under the Conservative government led by Margaret Thatcher, in the 1983 Teaching Quality report:

*‘Qualifications and training alone do not make a good teacher. Personality, character and commitment are as important as the specific knowledge and skills that are used in the day to day tasks of teaching* (DFES, 1983, p7)*.*

The 1985 White Paper, Better Schools (DFES, 1985, p44) recognised wider experience. It emphasised the extent to which ‘*prior experience / employment and work with children and young people was valued’* in teacher applicants. It also acknowledged that the heterogenous nature of students required teachers of varied skill sets. The DFE (1992) Circular 9/92 extended qualifications expectations to include requirements for GCSEs in maths and English at grade C or above. This expectation holds to the year of writing (2020). It was however, supplemented in 2001 by the Initial Teacher Training Skills Tests which teachers must pass before gaining entry onto a teaching course. DfE (1992) Circular 9/92 also identifiedcompetenciesrequired of training teachers. In these competencies there was an expectation of ‘*the knowledge, concepts and skills of their specialist subjects and of the place of these subjects in the school curriculum’* (DfE, 1992, p4)*.*

The importance of degrees was reiterated in the 1994 Education Act and following this, policy expectations and government rhetoric have extended from graduate entry to reference of the ‘*best’* or ‘*most able’* graduates. For example, under the Labour Government led by Tony Blair in the Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change Green Paper (DfEE, 1998a). This emphasis in relation to varying levels of graduateness has permeated through policy to the present day (2020). Given this, one could question whether the increased focus on the need for a degree aligns with the ongoing growth in undergraduate student numbers (Universities UK, 2015; Universities UK, 2018). It is the Meeting the Challenge Green Paper (DfEE, 1998a) that introduces the notion of financial incentives to entice applicants in shortage areas. However, it does not specify the application of degree classifications to any funding regime. This was to emerge in 2012 with the introduction of degree classification specific bursaries (Teaching Agency, 2012). These are explored in relation to the research findings in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.

This extrinsic reward or a financial incentive in the form of a bursary contrasts with the emphasis that *‘teaching has obvious intrinsic rewards’* (DfEE*,* 1998a*)*. Moving beyond the 1998 Green Paper, the general competencies outlined in DfE Circular 9/92 was superseded in DfEE Circular 4/98 and further specified teacher qualifications. In doing so, this suggests an assumption of correlation between degree level qualification and teacher effectiveness:

*[teachers must]* ‘*have a secure knowledge and understanding of the concepts and skills in their specialist subject(s) at a standard equivalent to degree level to enable them to teach it confidently and accurately* (DfEE, 1998b, p9).

This focus on the ‘best’ qualifications continues in 2001 under the Labour government, with the Schools - Achieving Success White Paper that preceded the 2002 Education Act and aimed to ‘*attract into teaching the highest quality of new graduates’* (DfES, 2001, p60)*.*

The Qualifying to Teach Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training (Teacher Training Agency, 2002*)* replaced circular 4/98 and general teaching competencies that were laid out in 1992 (Arthur, Davison, and Lewis, 2005, pvi). These standards once more reinforced an expectation of all teacher applicants to have subject knowledge to degree level. It set out ‘*a rigorous set of expectations [in terms of*] *the minimum legal requirement* *of newly qualified teachers’*, reinforcing this with the need for teachers to be ‘*confident and authoritative in the subjects they teach’* (2002*,* p6). The standards also set out the need for teachers to be, not only motivated, but to be autonomous in developing their professional practice.

The focus on teachers with the best qualifications continues under the Blairite Labour government in the 2005 White Paper – Higher Standards – Better Schools which lauds the growth in ‘*numbers of well qualified graduates’* (Education and Skills Committee, 2005, p15)*.* Following this, under the Labour government of Gordon Brown, the 2008 Excellence and Fairness in Public Services noted concern that ‘*not enough of the most able graduates went into teaching’* (Cabinet Office, 2008, p27). Whilst 2008 saw a further revision of QTS teacher standards, a focus remained on confidence in the teacher’s subject. Positioned alongside these standards was the code of practice for registered teachers (General Teaching Council for England, 2009). Here, just as in the 2002 QTS standards, there was an emphasis on ongoing teacher (and student) learning. Professional development formed a key element of these standards, specifically in relation to developing teaching practice and a willingness to engage in feedback from others in order to do so.

2005/2006 saw the move from generic to subject dependent bursaries for secondary teachers. These were available in all subjects, though a higher bursary (£7000 rather than £6000) was available to teachers in maths or science, providing *‘more generous financial incentives to teach the so-called shortage subjects, such as maths and science, as part of a fresh national drive to fill classroom vacancies’* (Smithers, 2005, np). Bursaries extended to English, drama, information and communications technology, design and technology, modern languages, religious education and music in 2006 /2007. The bursaries did, however, remain independent of degree classification.

A further drive to ‘*invest heavily in seeking to recruit the best graduates as teachers’* (DCSF, 2009, p24)was evident in the 2009 White Paper – Your Child, Your Schools, our Future: Building a 21st Century Schools System. Similarly, the 2010 White Paper – The Importance of Teaching (DfE, 2010) put weight behind the argument of attracting the highest qualified graduates into teaching. This White Paper also suggests that the awarding institution is important too. In noting this, disappointment is stressed that ‘*only two per cent of graduates obtaining first class honours degrees from Russell Group universities go on to train to become teachers within six months of graduating from university’* (DfE, 2010, p19).

The Coalition (Conservative and Liberal Democrat) government justified their approach to funding aimed at graduates with higher level qualifications by saying *‘the best education systems in the world draw their teachers from among the top graduates* (DfE, 2010, p12). Of these, Korea and Finland, with strong PISA data, are most quoted. An initial assumption may be that England’s education system must have similarities in order to support the comparison. However, the education systems differ markedly, for example, in Korea a ‘*very high proportion of students… attend afterschool tutoring programs’* (NCEE, 2020a, np). Differences are also evidenced in relation to teacher salary with Korean teachers earning 25% more than their fellow OECD countries (Sahlberg, 2010). Dissimilarities are also present when considering the Finnish education system. This is a system in which schools and teachers have greater autonomy and their professional expertise is trusted (ibid). Furthermore, children only complete 9 years of compulsory education in the Finish system and teachers must complete a master’s degree in order to enter the profession (NCEE, 2020b)

The view of the importance of degree class, however, was challenged by the Education Committee (Stuart, 2012, p18). The committee acknowledged that evidence provided to them by Ofsted confirms the lack of any firm evidence to link degree class and teacher performance. This is further supported by Keele University in evidence provided to the committee, who concur and note some of their best teachers had degree classifications of 2:2 or lower (Stuart, 2012)*.* Acknowledging this evidence, the committee challenged the use of degree class as the determinant of bursary eligibility. Despite this, however, the focus on qualifications continued and a move to degree classification specific bursaries ensued in 2012. This evidenced a restriction of funding for lower classification degrees dependent upon subject. (See Table 3.2). This is explored in relation to the research findings in Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2

Consideration of teacher knowledge is evidenced through teacher professional standards. The most current version of standards for teachers in schools was published in 2011 with the introduction updated in June 2013. These are considered the ‘*minimum level of practice expected of trainees and teachers from the point of being awarded qualified teacher status (QTS)’* (DfE, 2013, p3). Here the emphasis again is on both subject and curriculum knowledge and an expectation of teachers having wider engagement with their subject. This contrasts with the later removal of the requirement to have wider experience at the point of application to teacher training (DfE, 2018a). In these standards teachers are required, not only to motivate students in their subject but also *‘demonstrate a critical understanding of developments in the subject and curriculum areas and promote the value of scholarship’* (DfE, 2011, p11). Professional development and willingness to engage in feedback from others continues to be a theme – just as in the 2008 QTS standards. 2019 saw a key policy change in relation to the teachers’ skills tests that were introduced in 2001 with the announcement of their removal (NASUWT, 2019).

Table 3.1: Policy, Reports and Regulations for Secondary Teacher Subject Qualifications (Developed from Gillard (2018) and expanded upon)

| Year | Policy / Report | Key Relevant Points |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1943 | Emergency Teaching Scheme | * Post war plan to admit teachers without typical academic qualifications |
| 1944 | McNair Report | * Noted no prescribed qualifications of secondary school teachers * 78% of teachers were graduates * Teaching established as a graduate profession whilst noting many good teachers would be lost if the profession were restricted to graduates only * Salary scales reflected whether teachers were graduates |
| 1960s | Ministry of Education HMI Booklet | * Emphasised the need for an academic background to ensure the status of the profession |
| 1972 | James Report | * Acknowledged that whilst a degree would be the typical route into teaching, it was not necessarily the most appropriate route for all teachers |
| 1977 | Education in Schools Consultative Document | * Expressed the desire for teaching to be an all graduate profession * One quarter of teachers were graduates |
| 1977 | 10 Good Schools Report | * Acknowledged that teacher qualifications were not an indicator of school success |
| 1983 | Teaching Quality Report | * Graduate / non-graduate split almost even in the profession   + 128,000 graduates; 117,000 non-graduates * Wider teacher characteristics acknowledged as important as knowledge in teacher effectiveness |
| 1985 | White Paper – Better Schools | * Acknowledged importance of teachers’ wider experience working with children * Acknowledged that heterogeneity of students required varying teacher characteristics |
| 1992 | DfE Circular 9/92 - Initial Teacher Training (secondary phase) | * Teacher qualifications extended to require GCSE in maths and English * Emphasised expectation of teachers having knowledge and curriculum positionality of their subject |
| 1998 | Meeting the Challenge of Change Green Paper | * Emphasis on the ‘*best’* graduates (DfEE, 1998a, p43) |
| 1998 | DfEE Circular 4/98 Teaching: High Status, High Standards | * Degree level qualification specified and related to strength of subject knowledge * Initial Teacher Training (ITT) Skills Tests to be introduced from 2001 |
| 2000 | The Education (Bursaries for School Teacher Training Pilot Scheme) (England) Regulations | * Secondary teacher training bursaries Introduced |
| 2001 | Schools Achieving Success White Paper | * Emphasis on recruiting ‘*highest quality’* graduates (DfES, 2001, p60) |
| 2002 | Professional Standards for Quaified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training | * Reinforced the need for a degree * Wider knowledge beyond subject specialism introduced – literacy and numeracy |
| 2005 | Training Bursaries and Golden Hellos | * Move from generic to subject specialist bursaries * Focussed on shortage subjects |
| 2005 | White Paper – Higher Standards – Better Schools | * Lauds growth in ‘*numbers of well qualified graduates’* (Education and Skills Committee, 2005, p15) |
| 2008 | Excellence and Fairness: Achieving World Class Public Services | * Reiterates desire for ‘*most able graduates’* (Cabinet Office, 2008, p27) |
| 2008 | Updated QTS Standards | * Teachers expected to effectively use maths, ICT and literacy to support their practice |
| 2009 | Code of Practice and Conduct for Registered Teachers | * Emphasis on ongoing teacher learning |
| 2009 | Your Child, Your Schools, our Future: Building a 21st Century Schools’ System | * Clear focus on investment in the ‘*best graduates’* (DCSF, 2009, p24) |
| 2010 | The Importance of Teaching: The Schools White Paper | * Referred to desirable recruitment in terms of the highest achieving graduates |
| 2011 | Training our Next Generation of Outstanding Teachers | * Aimed to increase qualification levels to highest performing countries * Aimed to raise the bar into initial teacher training * Focussed investments to attract the *'very best graduates’* (DfE, 2011) |
| 2011 | Teachers’ Standards (Introduction updated in 2013) | * Emphasis onstrong knowledge of both teachers’ subject and the relevant curriculum * Expectation of teachers having wider engagement with their subject |
| 2012 | Great Teachers, Attracting Training and Retaining the Best | * Acknowledged no evidence to support the focus on best degrees * Acknowledged outstanding teachers with lower class degrees * Recognised the importance of qualities beyond qualifications * Concern expressed about the requirement for a 2.2 degree as lower bound for bursaries |
| 2012 | Funding: ITT - Academic year 2012 to 2013 | * Move to degree classification-based bursaries for secondary teachers   (See Table 3.2) |
| 2016 | Educational Excellence Everywhere | * A focus on recruiting teachers with higher classification degrees * Lauded those with first class degrees |
| 2016 | Evidence on the Extent and Impact of Teachers Taking Lessons they are not Qualified in | * Finds that most teaching is delivered by teachers with qualifications higher than Level 3 |
| 2017 | Training New Teachers, Third Report of Session 2016-17 | * Noted a problem in inferring teacher quality through numbers of teachers with good degrees |
| 2018 | Statutory Guidance: Initial Teacher Training: Criteria and Supporting Advice | * Removed requirement for applicants to teacher training to have wider experience |
| 2019 | Education Inspection Framework (EIF) | * Introduction of the combined school and college EIF (Ofsted, 2019a) with a focus on overall quality of educationas opposed to student outcomes |
| 2019 | Department for Education (DfE) | * The removal of the need for applicants to teacher training to pass skills tests. |

| Year | 2: 2 Degrees | | 3rd Class Degrees |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 2012/13 | 2:2 degrees only funded in maths, physics, languages, chemistry | Bursaries not available for 3rd Class degrees | |
| 2013/14 | 2:2 degrees only funded in maths, physics, languages, chemistry | Bursaries not available for 3rd Class degrees | |
| 2014/15 | 2:2 degrees only funded in maths, physics, languages, chemistry and computing | Bursaries for 3rd Class degrees in physics and maths available | |
| 2015/16 | Wider application of funding for 2:2 degrees (physics, maths, computing, geography, languages, chemistry, biology, design technology and music) | Bursaries for 3rd Class degrees in physics and maths available | |
| 2016/17 | 2:2 degrees only funded in physics, maths, computing, geography, languages, chemistry, biology | No 3rd Class degree bursaries offered | |
| 2017/18 | 2:2 degrees only funded in physics, maths, computing, geography, languages, chemistry, biology and design technology | No 3rd Class degree bursaries offered | |
| 2018/19 | 2:2 degrees only funded in physics, maths, computing, geography, languages, chemistry, biology and English | No 3rd Class degree bursaries offered | |
| 2019/20 | 2:2 degrees funded in all subjects | No 3rd Class degree bursaries offered | |
| 2020/21 | 2:2 Degrees funded in all subjects – bursary amount not specific to degree class with additional early career payments once in teaching | No 3rd Class degree bursaries offered | |

Table 3.2: Initial Teacher Training Bursaries – Secondary Teachers’ Bursary Distribution for less than good degrees

In contrast to the coalition government’s own rhetoric at the time, 2013 saw the reintroduction of an initiative to encourage ex-service people, who may not have degrees, into teaching. The 2013 Troops to Teachers initiative had echoes of the similar 1951 scheme which waived the need for ex-service people to have the qualifications deemed necessary to enter the profession. However, despite this, the legacy of the Importance of Teaching White Paper (DfE, 2010), which led to the removal of funding for applicants with lower class degrees, has continued. Applicants continue to receive increased funding (in the form of bursaries) depending upon on the classification of their degree (BIS, 2014; DfE, 2015) (see Table 3.2). These bursary decisions have evidenced fluctuations across both subject and degree result. Shortage areas such as maths did not escape fluctuations, with 3rd class maths degrees funded to the nature of £9000 in 2015/16 though not in 2016/17.

Following the dissolution of the coalition government, in 2016, the Conservative government gained majority power in 2015. Under this government, the DfE (2016b) further suggest that it is not possible to directly ascertain teachers’ subject knowledge. The DfE (2016b) suggest that post A Level, qualifications are utilised as a ‘*proxy measure’* (DfE, 2016b, p7)to overcome problems in ascertaining subject knowledge. However, they simultaneously recognise that subject knowledge may be gained in other ways including professional development. The DfE acknowledge that ‘*most secondary teaching in England is conducted by teachers with a relevant post A-level qualification’* (2016b, p7). There is variation in terms of subject, however, ranging from 79% of teachers having the required qualifications for teaching modern foreign languages (MFL) to 95.1% for teaching biology. The report acknowledges that MFL teachers may be native speakers and have the knowledge without the qualification (Ibid). However, in doing so, it assumes an understanding of potentially complex grammatical structures which cannot be gained solely through a teacher being a native speaker. This report concludes with reiteration of the need for a degree, but no consideration of classification: ‘*the narrowest definition [is] that teachers must have a degree in the subject they teach* (DfE, 2016b, p8).Despite this*,* in the Education Excellence Everywhere, White Paper, (DfE, 2016a) the underlying message of the need for teachers with the best qualifications perpetuates. It notes that a current strength of teaching as a profession is that it is ‘*attracting some of the best-qualified entrants ever*’ (DfES, 2016a, p11) and sets expectations of ITE providers to recruit ‘*well-qualified graduates’* (ibid, p31). In a parallel report, the House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts noted that ‘*whilst* *the proportion of trainees with good degrees has risen … this is a poor guide to overall teacher quality’* (2016d, p7)*.* However, whilst report recommendations suggest reviewing the impact of policies on teaching quality, no consideration is given to the focus on ‘good’ degrees in teacher recruitment. Similarly, there is no focus on degree classification in the repeated iterations of the annual census in relation to school workforce data (See for example, DfE, 2016c; DfE, 2018b; DfE, 2019). This data forms the basis of statistical analysis into the varying aspects of schools’ workforce*.* Examination of the data further suggests a disconnect between importance applied in relation to teacher recruitment and that noted in employed teachers.

Despite the incentives provided by means of a degree dependent bursary, the Department for Education (DfE), with a focus on ‘*quality’* of teacher applicants has failed to fill teacher training places for the past 5 years (House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts, 2016d, p3). The move to degree dependent bursaries, spans the same period. This is a finding worthy of further examination given The House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts criticism of the government’s lack of ‘*leadership* *or urgency’* (2016d, p37)in meeting these targets. They suggest that the government’s approach was *‘reactive and lacks coherence’* (ibid). The committee also recognise an issue in terms of shortage subject specialist teachers and note the importance of ongoing subject specialist CPD.

Whilst policy and government rhetoric still aims to recruit the ‘brightest’ teachers (Teach First, 2018), there has been a change in relation to expectations of teachers having prior experience (as noted in the 1985 Schools White Paper). This has been put aside with DfE (2018a, np) specifying that ‘*prior experience in a school was not required’* (2018, np)*.* This change under the Conservative government, has corresponded with some signs that degree class focussed incentivisation is waning too. This, specifically via the 2019/20 and 20/21 initial teacher training bursaries with equal funding available for all subject areas for graduates having at least a 2:2 degree (DfE, 2018c). This may be in response to the recognition that the impact of the bursaries was short-sighted. An evaluation of bursaries between 2009/10 and 2015/16, evidenced that trainees in receipt of larger bursaries were not as likely to remain in teaching than those on receipt of lesser value ones (DfE, 2018d). This supports the previously stated view of teaching as an intrinsically motivated profession (DfE, 1998).

## 3.3 Qualifications Policy for Further Education (FE) Teachers – an Historical Exploration

FE has origins in the emergence of the tripartite system of education following the 1944 Education Act. This Act provided focus and a statutory duty for Local Education Authorities to provide further education for the school leaving age and beyond. The key role for FE following this was one of training young people for the needs of industry. The legislation and policy following the 1944 Education Act (The Butler Act) are considered in this section and represented in Table 3.3. This summarises the key elements of policy in relation to expectations of FE teacher subject qualifications.

A division between the schools and the then named technical education sector was entrenched by the Butler Act. It emphasised the recruitment for the technical teacher based ‘*on the knowledge of subject and skills in his [sic] craft and industrial and commercial implications’* (1944, p113). The report encouraged the diversity of future recruitment from industry, commerce and professions to include skilled ‘*craftsmen* [sic] *with no* *recognised paper qualification’* (1944, p112). It also acknowledged that applicants may have a lower level of general education but could achieve the required minimum educational level through wider experience. The economic nature of teacher supply is acknowledged in this report which notes that the supply of technical teachers ‘*ebbed and flowed with prosperity and decline of industry’* (1944, p112)*.* It also recognised problems in recruiting people to the profession who had at ‘*least that minimum background of knowledge which would enable them to begin their work’* (ibid).

Table 3.3: Policy, Reports and Regulations for FE Teacher Subject Qualifications (Adapted from Machin et al. (2020) and Gillard (2018) and expanded upon)

| Year | Policy / Report | Key Relevant Points |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1944 | McNair Report | * Rejected any suggestion of an academic and vocational divide |
| 1944 | Butler Act | * Acknowledged breadth of subject qualifications of vocational teachers from degree level to none |
| 1957 | Willis Jackson Report | * Predominantly focussed on maths and science teachers * Referred to ‘well qualified’ teachers but also emphasised the importance of current experience for vocational teachers |
| 1966 | Russell Report | * Acknowledged that FE was heterogenous in terms of qualification levels of teachers |
| 1972 | James Report | * Recognised FE teacher experience and the differential between FE and secondary teacher backgrounds |
| 1983 | Teaching Quality Report | * Acknowledged that some student qualifications were offered in both secondary in FE in addition to similarities between sectors |
| 1999 | FENTO Standards | * First iteration of FE Teacher standards introduced – praxis focussed * Noted importance of ongoing professional development |
| 2001 | FE Bursaries Introduced | * FE Bursary introduced across all subject areas * Open to graduates and none graduates |
| 2002 | Success for All – Reforming Further Education and Training | * Aimed for a fully qualified workforce with up to date knowledge and skills |
| 2003 | Ofsted Report - ITT of FE Teachers | * Acknowledged greater heterogeneity in FE Teachers subject qualifications than in schools |
| 2004 | Equipping our Teachers for the Future | * Introduced LLUK who would supersede FENTO * Focus on subject and skill updating * Emergence of an emphasis on FE teacher subject qualifications (though very wide) |
| 2005 | Foster Report | * Focus on teacher technical excellence and the importance of teacher skills updating |
| 2006 | Raising Skills, Improving Life Chances | * Noted importance of teachers maintaining and updating knowledge and skills * Recognised experienced but underqualified Skills for Life teachers * Heralded introduction of 30 hours mandatory CPD |
| 2007 | LLUK Teacher Standards | * Emphasis on competence in a teacher’s area of specialism * Subject knowledge recognised in terms of maintaining currency |
| 2007 | The Further Education Teachers’ Qualifications Regulations (England) | * Legislated for (the short lived) mandating of teaching qualifications for FE teachers joining the sector after 2001 |
| 2009 | Teacher Training in Vocational Education and Training | * Noted the need for expert vocational teachers but no specific qualifications stated |
| 2012 | Lingfield Report | * Noted a difference in terms of knowledge and skills expectations between vocational FE teachers and teachers of SEND |
| 2013 | Further Education Initial Teacher Training Bursary | * Degree classification-based bursaries available to FE teachers in shortage areas |
| 2013 | LSIS - Qualifications Guidance for Awarding Organisations | * Only teachers taking a teacher training route to teach English Maths or ESOL were expected to have a relevant level 3 qualification |
| 2014 | Education and Training Foundation (ETF) Standards | * Replaced LLUK Standards * Divided into professional teacher skills, professional knowledge and understanding and professional values and attributes |
| 2011 | The Review of Vocational Education - The Wolf Report | * This report recommended that parity be given between FE teachers with QTLS and schoolteachers with QTS |
| 2017 | Introduction of Advanced Teacher Status | * Expectation of an ‘*exemplary degree of subject knowledge’* (ETF, 2020, np) and subject updating but no expectation of specific qualifications |
| 2019 | Education Inspection Framework (EIF) | * Introduction of the combined school and college EIF (Ofsted, 2019a) with a focus on overall quality of educationas opposed to student outcomes |

The McNair Report (1944) followed the Butler Act and recognised that more teachers would be needed in the post war era. This report suggested a difference in qualification expectations between technical and general subjects. However, McNair (1944) wholeheartedly rejected ‘*any crude antithesis between technical and vocational education on one hand and liberal education on the other’* (1944, p108*).* In doing so he recognised that a technical or vocational teacher was ‘*no mere technician, he [sic] is also an interpreter of the modern world’* (ibid)*.* The view set out here of a rejection of antithesis never materialised in subsequent years, with vocational education, continuing to be viewed as the Cinderella sector (Randle and Brady, 1997; Goldstone, 2020). This also acknowledges vocational or FE teachers being paid less than their fellow teachers in secondary education and the lower funding of vocational education (Parkinson, 2004).

The Willis Jackson Report (1957), under the Conservative Government of Harold Macmillan, considered the Supply and Training of Teachers for Technical Colleges and followed the 1956 White Paper on Technical Education. This report recognised the need for a significant rise in the number of teachers to meet increasing student numbers in technical colleges due to technical college expansion. This report and the subsequent discussion paper focussed on maths and science teachers and referred to ‘well qualified’ teachers throughout. With 59% of current staff having degrees or degree equivalents, the report stated that the numbers of maths and science graduates would need to rise. However, the experience and subject mastery of the technical or vocational teacher is also emphasised (Willis Jackson, 1957). This recognition seems to indicate a further divide between science and maths teachers in technical education and their vocational peers. Qualifications are still evidenced in the discussion paper (Willis Jackson, 1957) in addition to the recommendation that existing teachers could be encouraged to improve their qualifications by secondment.

Under the Labour Government of Harold Wilson, the Russell Report on the Supply and Training of Teachers for Further Education (DfE, 1966), focussed on qualifications and pedagogical training. It also provides insight into vocational teachers’ subject qualifications. The report recognised that an increase of teachers would consist ‘*very largely of untrained graduates and untrained non-graduates’* (DfE, 1966, p157). This evidences a view of vocational / FE teaching as not only a graduate profession. This policy is, like others, linked to economic issues and with teacher supply not being an issue:

*‘The simple market pressures of supply and demand of labour are allowed to operate with a minimum of interference and so it is seldom that vacancies are never filled’* (Parry, 1966, p160).

Under the Conservative government of Edward Heath, the James Report (1972) focussed on teacher education and training and endorsed the recognition of FE teacher education(Crawley, 2016). This provides an insight into the policy separation of FE teachers from their secondary teacher peers. The report recognises FE teachers’ experience rather than their qualifications. It further acknowledges that across sectors and within secondary education, ‘*different kinds of teaching…may require different types of preparation’* (1972, p41). This cross over between FE and secondary education in government policy is further evidenced under Margaret Thatcher’s conservative government in the Teaching Quality report (DfE, 1983). This report primarily focussed on secondary school teachers. However, it also recognised a commonality of qualifications being taught within both secondary schools and further education, particularly the General Certificate in Education (GCE). Whilst the paper maintains the distinctness between the two sectors it states that the same qualification requirements should hold for teachers of the same courses, wherever taught. A blurring of boundaries between FE and secondary education increased following the Further and Higher Education Act (1992) under John Major’s Conservative government, which paved the way for incorporation of FE Colleges. Since 1993, FE institutions have diversified and, in line with sixth form colleges, many general FE colleges offer both academic and vocational courses. This meaning that, in reality, secondary education and FE have more in common now than ever before, with vocational and academic qualifications increasingly being offered in both sectors.

Expectations of teachers’ knowledge and experience are evidenced not only through government policy but also through the evolution of teachers’ professional standards. Knowledge is omnipresent, through these standards. The Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO) introduced the first professional standards for FE teachers in 1999 (Machin et al., 2020). These standards were pedagogically focussed. They made the assumption that ‘*those who teach in the sector already possess specialised subject knowledge, skills and experience’* (FENTO, 1999, p3). These standards also recognised the important of ongoing Continuing Professional Development (CPD). In doing so, they emphasised the need for FE teachers to identify their development needs to ensure currency of their knowledge and skills.

The raft of reports and education policy in the early 2000s was of concern to some and this was recognised by Lucas (2004) who acknowledged the increased regulation of FE. This increase runs contrary to decreased regulation elsewhere in Europe (Keep, 2007; Orr and Simmons, 2010). It commenced under Tony Blair’s Labour Government in 2000/2001 with the introduction of bursaries for applicants to teaching training for teachers in secondary and further education. The receipt of the FE bursary was not limited to those applicants with degrees. However, in reality over 92% of the successful applicants held an undergraduate degree (DfES, 2014). This bursary of £6000 across subject areas, ran until 2005/2006. Just prior to this, in their evaluation of the FE Initial Teacher Training Bursary Initiative, the DfES recognised that the bursary was not encouraging wider uptake in ‘*high calibre students’* (2004, p3). However, it was recognised that the bursary had the effect of increasing the number of applicants. As a consequence, the DfES (2004) suggested that this created a more competitive environment which would lead to increased calibre of students.

The qualifications held by teachers undertaking FE teacher training *were* identified by Ofsted in their 2003 Report – Initial Teacher Training of Further Education Teachers (Ofsted, 2003). This provides an insight through which the qualifications held by aspiring FE teachers on teacher training courses may be explored. 25% of participants who were studying the pre-service[[5]](#footnote-6) Certificate in Education held a Higher National Certificate (HNC) (Level 4 qualification) or higher and 33% held a vocational qualification at level 3 or lower. These figures vary considerably when compared to other teaching qualifications held by FE teacher. They demonstrate the variability evident across the sector, with ‘*greater homogeneity in the types of entrants to teaching in schools’* (Ofsted, 2003, p41). This is explored in relation to the research findings in Section 7.1 of Chapter 7.

21st century policy and regulation continued under the Labour government with the 2004 ‘Equipping our Teachers for the Future’ report (DfES, 2004). This heralded the introduction of Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK) as a successor to the FENTO (Machin et al., 2020). In this report there was a continued focus on subject and skill updating but also an emerging consideration of FE teacher subject qualifications. However, this is so varied (with qualifications suggested ranging from level 1 to degree) to be almost meaningless.

The Foster Report of 2005 continued the glut of policy into the second half of the decade. It addressed key challenges and opportunities facing further education. Beyond this, the report recognised the heterogeneity of the sector whilst focussing on ‘*expert technical skills’* of teachers and trainers (Foster, 2005, p26). The report emphasised the importance of keeping technical skills up to date. It also noted concern that industry feedback had demonstrated that some teachers ‘*do not have a sound understanding of the latest industry developments’* (ibid). This is explored in relation to the research findings in Section 7.2.2.1 of Chapter 7. A similar theme of excellent teacher skills and knowledge allied with teacher updating and professional development was evident in the latter years of Tony Blair’s labour leadership. The 2006 Report, Raising Skills, Improving Life Chances Report (DfES, 2006) focussed on the role of FE in ensuring economic success for the country. However as is common with FE teacher policy, subject knowledge and skills, unlike secondary teaching knowledge, are not linked to qualification results. There is also evidence of ideological variation between sectors with differing levels of importance assigned to each. Foster referred to FE as the ‘*neglected middle child’* (2005, p48), suggesting this was a consequence of its positionality between secondary and higher education*.* In doing so, he acknowledged that it was ‘*only possible to understand the proper role of FE colleges if they are considered in the context of the whole education system’* (2005, p46). Positionality, this time in relation to that of the government, was later noted by Crawley (2019) who commented that governmental responsibility for FE teaching has varied to a far greater extent than that of schools:

*‘There have been 65 secretaries of state responsible for skills and employment policy over the same period (compared with 19 for schools’ policy and 19 for higher education’ (2019, np).*

The 2006, Raising Skills, Improving Life Chances Report (DfES, 2006) had a particular focus on improving professional practice. It also heralded the introduction of 30 hours mandatory CPD for teachers in FE through the Institute for Learning (IfL). The nature of the CPD, was however up to individual teachers. The report did however note that this may comprise pedagogical aspects in addition to industrial and subject updating. This professional development was formalised within The Further Education Teachers’ Qualifications Regulations in 2007. The 2006 Raising Skills Improving Life Chances Report also recognised experienced but underqualified Skills for Life teachers. It proposed a framework for the Skills for Life workforce that would comprise qualifications that updated both subject and pedagogical knowledge. The launch of Qualified Teacher Learning and Skills Status (QTLS) is also evidenced in the report. Whilst the expectations of FE teachers are clear in relation to requiring maths and English at level 2, (or, for maths and English teachers at level 3) no expectation of subject specialist qualifications is evidenced. Instead there is an expectation of the teacher to evidence ‘*developments in [their] subject specialist knowledge’* (ibid). This overall lack of specificity in relation to FE teachers subject qualifications is also evidenced in relationto entrants to the profession. The Learning and Skills Improvement Service (LSIS) specify only that trainee teachers seeking to take a specialist English, Mathematics or ESOL route should have a relevant level 3 subject qualification (LSIS, 2013). This focuses on two key areas of curriculum relevant to secondary education. However, there are suggestions of reinforcement of an academic / vocational divide through the expectation of a minimum level of teacher education that is lower than that required for secondary teaching.

The Further Education Teachers’ Qualifications Regulations (England) (2007) legislated for (the short lived) mandating of teaching qualifications for FE teachers joining the sector after 2001. The extent to which subject qualifications are represented in this report, however, is vague, with reference only to the need for an approved subject specialist qualification. Alongside this in 2007 Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK) and associated professional standards emerged to replace the short lived FENTO standards. These ‘*New Overarching Professional Standards for Teachers, Tutors and Trainers in the Lifelong Learning Sector’* (LLUK, 2007) had a particular emphasis on competence in teaching a particular area of specialism. Subject knowledge was recognised in terms of maintaining currency (just as it was in the FENTO standards). Statutory subject responsibilities and a requirement for a teacher to understand how their specialism ‘*relates to the wider social, economic and environmental context’* (ibid, p8*)* were also central to the standards*.*

A disparity in terms of qualifications and experience was highlighted under Gordon Brown’s Labour government in the 2010 Report, Teacher Training in Vocational Education and Training (Skills Commission, 2010). This report strove to examine inequalities between academic and vocational education whilst looking ahead to the future of 14-19 education. The report recognised the need for expert vocational teachers to support the growth in student numbers following the anticipated rise in educational leaving age to 18. However, it did not refer to any requirement for specific qualifications and recognised the importance of vocational experience for FE teachers. The same was not true for a teacher of the same subject who was teaching in a school. Attempts to overcome this inconsistency between sectors under David Cameron’s Conservative Government were made through the Review of Vocational Education - The Wolf Report (2011). This report recommended that parity be given between FE teachers with QTLS[[6]](#footnote-7) and schoolteachers with QTS[[7]](#footnote-8). This was formalised through Amendment 2014 of the Education (School Teachers’ Qualifications) (England) Regulations 2003. This practical step was suggested to overcome problems with schools torn between bringing vocational experts into the classroom and needing additional staff present or ‘bussing’ students to FE colleges. In doing so it recognised an inconsistency between the expectation of an undergraduate degree for QTS and no specified qualification for QTLS. In practice however, parity was not so forthcoming, with Best, Ade-Ojo and McKelvey (2019, p129) acknowledging limited crossing of teachers between further and secondary education. This was despite the reciprocal transfer of teachers from secondary to FE being more commonplace. Here Best et al. recognised an ‘*intra-professional group conflict’* (ibid) in which FE teachers were seen as less professional than their secondary trained colleagues.

Further consideration of teachers’ subject qualifications was evidenced in The Lingfield Report of 2012. This also led to the removal of the 30 hours mandatory CPD heralded in the 2006 Report Raising Skills, Improving Life Chances Report. Lingfield (2012) recognised the heterogeneity within the sector in terms of FE teachers of foundations skills or those working with students with learning difficulties or disabilities*.* In the report, Lingfield (2012) stated that foundation skills teachers could not be assumed to have the dual professionalism usually evidenced by vocational teachers. In making this acknowledgement Lingfield (2012) noted that vocational teachers were expected to have skills and knowledge rather than subject qualifications. A similar view, of assumed teacher experience and expertise of the majority of subjects taught in FE without the need for qualification was presented by LSIS (2013). This contrasts with the prevailing view in relation to secondary teachers, evidenced through the Importance of Teaching White Paper. The expectation is not only for a degree but for teachers to be the ‘*best graduates’* (2010, p16). This contrast in expectations of between secondary and FE teachers provides a potential rationale for any perceived professional divide between them. This is explored, in relation to the research findings in Section 7.1 of Chapter 7. In noting the entry qualifications for initial teacher education (ITE) courses, LSIS (2013) specified only that trainee teachers seeking to take a specialist English, Mathematics or ESOL route would be required have a relevant level 3 qualification. However, they were clear to recognise that initial teacher education providers might wish to specify equal or higher qualifications of entrants to the profession. In reality, the de facto expectation of ITE providers is of a level 3 qualification (or equivalent experience) in a teacher’s subject specialist area (AOC, 2020). This gatekeeper level is also acknowledged in the data with more than 95% of FE teachers possessing qualifications in their specialist area at level 3 or above (ETF, 2017)

A void in bursaries to FE teaching applicants is evident until 2013 when a tiered bursary, to FE graduate teachers was introduced (Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS), 2013). This was dependent upon degree class and subject area. At launch, bursaries were only available to teachers of mathematics, English and Special Educational Needs (SEN).

In launching the bursary, BIS suggested a link between degree class and teaching effectiveness and ‘*acknowledge a trainee’s prior academic achievements and their potential to teach’* (2013, p3). The bursaries for prospective English and SEN teachers remained consistent in not being available to applicants with less than a 2:1 degree. However, the bursary for maths teachers varied by year, for example, in 2016/17 applicants with a 3rd class maths degree received £9000 however in the year 2017/18 would receive no bursary (See Table 3.2). Table 3.4 Documents the FE bursary distribution for less than good degrees.

Table 3.4: Initial Teacher Training Bursaries – FE Teachers’ Bursary Distribution for less than good degrees

| Year | 2: 2 Degrees | | 3rd Class Degrees |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 2012/13 | 2:2 degrees only funded in mathematics | Bursaries not available for 3rd Class degrees | |
| 2013/14 | 2:2 degrees only funded in mathematics | 3rd Class degrees only funded in maths | |
| 2014/15 | 2:2 degrees only funded in mathematics | 3rd Class degrees only funded in maths | |
| 2015/16 | 2:2 degrees only funded in mathematics | 3rd Class degrees only funded in maths | |
| 2016/17 | 2:2 degrees only funded in mathematics | 3rd Class degrees only funded in maths | |
| 2017/18 | 2:2 degrees only funded in mathematics | No 3rd Class degree bursaries offered | |
| 2018/19 | 2:2 degrees only funded in mathematics | No 3rd Class degree bursaries offered | |
| 2019/20 | No Bursaries Available in FE | | |
| 2020/21 | Applicants with a level 3 qualification in subject area eligible for bursary if teaching mathematics, science (including biology, chemistry, and/or physics), engineering (and/or manufacturing), computing special educational needs and disabilities (SEND) or English | | |

FE Teacher standards continued to evolve and 2014 saw the third iteration of teacher professional standards via the launch of the Education and Training Foundation (ETF) Standards (ETF, 2014). The previous LLUK standards were seen as complex and unwieldy in many quarters and comprised 190 statements in relation to teacher professional practice (Titilola, 2015). The more concise ETF standards comprise three strands: *Professional Knowledge and Understanding; Professional Skills and Professional Values and Attributes* (ETF, 2014, p1) and 20 standards. Just as with the LLUK standards, the strand of professional knowledge and understanding reinforced the maintenance and updating knowledge of subject / vocational area. This professional updating was further recognised in 2017 with the introduction of a ‘*badge of advanced professionalism’* in the form of Advanced Teacher Status (ETF, 2020, np)*.* This professional status which teachers may seek to gain is open to ‘*practitioners who demonstrate an exemplary degree of subject knowledge in their area of professional expertise’* (ibid)*.* There are no specific qualifications required, other than those required to gain entry to an ITE award, to evidence this exemplary subject knowledge. Similarly, there is no expectation of a degree of any classification, however there is an expectation of regular subject updating.

## 3.4 Conclusion

This chapter has analysed the extent to which teacher subject qualifications are represented in government policy in secondary and further education (FE). It has developed upon the current policy context that was explored in the reviewed literature (Appendix A) and has explored historical aspects and the journey along which policy has developed. It has shown a clear dissonance in expectations of subject qualifications for teachers in secondary and further education. Policy expectations for secondary teachers are increasingly focussed on higher class degrees. However, expectations for teachers in FE are focussed on ongoing subject and skill updating and professional development. The following chapter – Chapter 4 will analyse aspects of the research design building from the ontological and epistemological position.

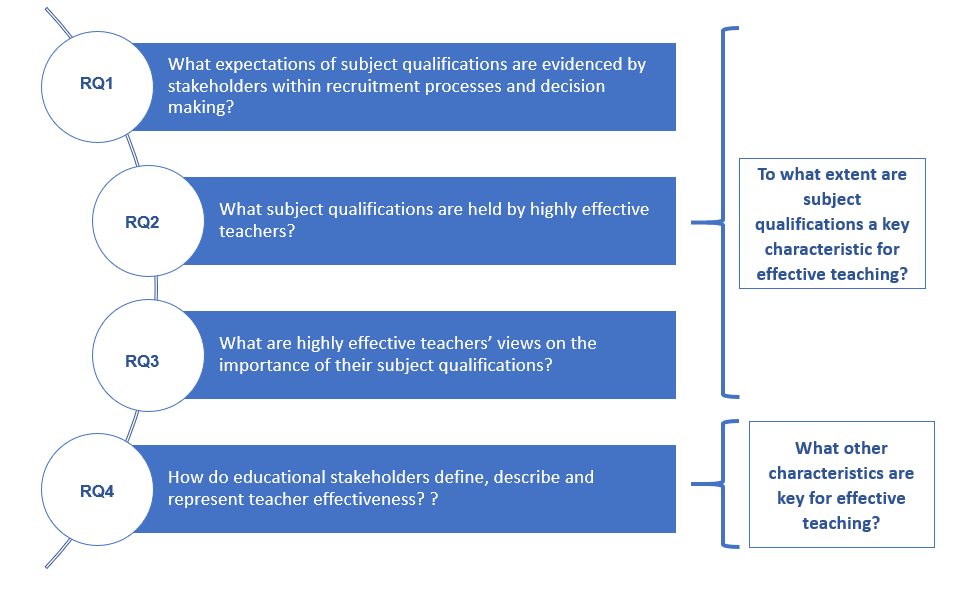
# Chapter 4: Methodology

The preceding chapter considered the extent to which teacher subject qualifications are represented in government policy in secondary and further education (FE). This chapter analyses aspects of the research design, building from the ontological and epistemological position. This chapter commences with a review of the research questions and moves on to explore the methodological decision making from paradigm positioning through to the methodologies adopted. In doing so, it considers the researcher’s own stance, positionality and reflexivity as influences on the research. Further sections review the representations of quality, the sample selected, and ethical considerations. The chapter concludes by considering the methods chosen to gather and analyse the data collected in the study.

## 4.1 Methodological Decision Making

This research utilised an interpretivist approach to examining whether the key characteristics for effective teaching were subject qualifications or something else. It did so by exploring perceptions of effective teaching through the lens of teachers and those involved in teacher recruitment and evaluation in both secondary and further education (FE). With an interpretivist approach, this study contrasts with traditional positivist approaches into exploring teacher effectiveness which view teacher effectiveness in terms of student test or examination results (see for example, Staiger and Rockoff, 2010; Cara and de Coulon, 2008; Slater, Davies and Burgess, 2012; Jacob et al., 2016). This interpretivist approach is explored further in Section 4.1.2 of this chapter.

The research aimed to explore the extent to which subject qualifications or other characteristics were key to effective teaching. This formed two strands to the research and four key research questions as noted in Figure 4.1 below:

Figure 4.1: Research Questions

Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur (2006) note the importance of philosophical considerations in doctoral research. They recognise the need for the researcher to evidence transparency in these views in order to draw the research together in a cohesive whole with firm methodological underpinning. These philosophical considerations then form a ‘*fine thread’* that runs through every aspect of research(ibid, 2006, p52)*.* This importance is reinforced byNewby who says that without a firm philosophical underpinning, research can be ‘*seriously flawed’* (2014, p35)*.* This flaw can result from lack in clarity or misunderstanding in terms of the questions, why those questions are asked, and the approach taken to find the answers to those questions (Newby, 2014).

### Ontology and Epistemology

Many aspects of the research undertaken herein are influenced by the individual researcher and their ontological and epistemological position. These range from choices made in designing the research to evaluative categorisations in analysing the findings:

[it is] *‘about you as an individual; the kind of values you have and the world in which you believe’* (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006, p51).

Given this, the philosophical aspects of research, those of ontology and epistemology, must be addressed and relate to the views of reality accepted by the researcher andtheir *‘views and values about the world’* (Newby, 2014 p35). It is these views and values that influence the questions asked in the research which in turn influence the methodology.

The ontological view represents the ‘*nature of being’* (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006, p54*)* and the epistemological view explores ‘*whether or how we know anything’* (ibid*)*. As Basit (2010) acknowledges, our ontology influences our epistemology; if our world view is objective and scientific, a positivist approach will be required. However, with a world view of reality interpreted through the eyes of the teachers and also educational leaders, an interpretivist approach is required. The design of research, therefore, is heavily influenced by the researcher’s ontological and epistemological position (Basit, 2010).

The ontological position of this study is influenced by two assumptions:

1. That effective teaching cannot be viewed solely through students’ academic outcomes.
2. That qualifications may be only one facet influencing a teacher’s effectiveness.

Therefore, for an exploration of the relevance of subject qualifications and wider characteristics of teacher effectiveness, the study will move beyond any view of effectiveness that is outcome focussed. For outcome focussed representations see for example Ofsted inspection frameworks (Ofsted, 2015a; Ofsted, 2015b). This will also take a wider view than that taken by Coe et al. (2014) who similarly echo that effective teaching may be measured through student academic progress and outcomes.

With the Ofsted centric world view, an approach seeking to explore a relationship between levels of teacher qualifications and teacher effectiveness would be one in which the qualifications *were* taken at face value. In addition, teacher effectiveness would be based solely on their students’ academic outcomes. With the ontological stance taken for this study, a different view is taken. This view is one in which school and college effectiveness is not solely derived from student outcomes. It is also one which has been acknowledged in the most recent combined school and college Education Inspection Framework (EIF) (Ofsted, 2019a). The EIF now has a focus on overall Quality of Education as opposed to Outcomes for Students.

Viewing effective teaching, not solely through learner outcomes, therefore required alternative lenses be utilised. These lenses explored other aspects of effective teaching through the eyes of the educational leaders and highly effective teachers. In taking this ontological position, the corresponding epistemological stance means that, teacher participants, as highly effective teachers hold the answers to their own effectiveness. It further recognises the views of the educational leaders. In doing so, it addresses the recognition by Aaronson, Barrow and Sander that ‘*characteristics that are not easily observable in administrative data are driving much of the dispersion in teacher quality’* (2007, p132)*.* Consequently, engaging in meaningful discourse with educational leaders allows an exploration of their views of teacher effectiveness. Beyond this, discourse with highly effective teachers allows their views, characteristics, qualifications, knowledge, prior experience and values to emerge. In doing so, a more holistic, rather than solely data driven view of effective teaching has been explored. This has allowed and indeed required a cross disciplinary analysis of theoretical frameworks to include areas as diverse as economic and psychological theory (see Chapter 2). For this study, the epistemological position therefore is one which considers that the key to understanding teacher effectiveness lies with the teachers themselves and those involved in the recruitment and evaluation process. It is therefore the ‘*perceptions influenced by human subjectivities’* (Basit, 2010, p121) that have been explored.

### Research Paradigm

Stierer and Antoniou refer to research methodologies, as the ‘*frameworks and concepts in which methods are situated’* (2004, p278). It is therefore these frameworks and concepts that overarch and influence all the decisions made in the planning, implementation and analysis of this study.

Research paradigms, the notion of which were made popular by Kuhn (1962), sit underneath the ontological and epistemological stance taken and provide a conceptual model to support the research process (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007; Newby, 2014). The philosophical position is the initial influence on research. However, the research paradigm provides ‘*a way of thinking about a subject or proceeding with research that is widely accepted by people working in that area’* (Newby, 2014, p46*)*. Research may be broadly viewed, therefore within a positivist or an interpretivist paradigm. Within the positivist paradigm, objectivity is central. There is a focus on clear measurements and larger sample sizes to provide validity to the researcher (Kumar, 2014, p14). This objective measurement-based approach lends itself to quantitative research. Whereasthe interpretivist paradigm, rather than focussing on measurements, explores ‘*description and narration of feelings, perceptions and narrative rather than measurement’* (Kumar, 2014, p14). This interpretivist approach lends itself to a qualitative in-depth exploration. It therefore embraces the fact that ‘*people and situations differ, and realities are not abstract objects but dependent on the intersubjectivity between people’* (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006, p55). The interpretivist paradigm aims to ‘*understand the subjective world of human experience’* (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2018, p19). Whilst this may suggest an individual, unpredictable interpretation, Kuhn, in a postscript to his work, considers that this is not the case:

*‘To say that the members of different groups may have different perceptions when confronted with the same stimuli is not to imply that they may have just any perceptions at all’* (1962, p195).

In the body of literature reviewed in relation to qualifications and teacher effectiveness (see for example, Staiger and Rockoff, 2010; Cara and de Coulon, 2008; Slater, Davies and Burgess, 2012; Jacob et al., 2016), the epistemological position has led to a predominantly positivist approach within research. This has been achieved by using student results and associated data. It has utilised predominantly quantitative methodologies that view the knowledge of what makes an effective teacher in terms of outcomes or results of students. This approach fails to recognise the unmeasured aspects of learning. Furthermore, it does not explore teachers views and knowledge, based on their own experience, sought through the ontological and epistemological position for this study (Section 4.1.1).

The interpretivist approach of this research overcomes some of the problems noted in positivist research in this area. For example, assigning individual teachers to individual students, a problem noted by Slater, Davies and Burgess (2012). Given this, rather than a positivist approach, the interpretivist approach explores teacher effectiveness (as defined in Chapter 1 – Section 1.1.2) with the aim of exploring ‘*how* *the social word is interpreted, understood, experiences, produced or constituted’ (Mason, 2017, p2).*

### Qualitative Research

Qualitative research, according to Savin-Baden and Howell Major ‘*emerged as a reaction against quantitative approaches and may be viewed as a revolution’* (2013, p7). Aspers and Corte acknowledge a dearth of literature in relation to a precise definition of qualitative research and respond by proposing that qualitative research is:

*‘an iterative process in which improved understanding to the scientific community is achieved by making new significant distinctions resulting from getting closer to the phenomenon studied’* (2019, p139)*.*

At its simplest, qualitative research is ‘*social research that is aimed at investigating the way in which people make sense of their ideas and experiences’* (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p11)*.* Qualitative research therefore sits within the ‘*interpretivist sociological tradition’ (Mason, 2017, p2). The interpretivist paradigm, when applied to this study via a qualitative methodology c*hallenges the view that the knowledge of what makes a good teacher should be measured quantitatively. Instead, it draws on views of stakeholders in an attempt to overcome the shortcomings of a positivist approach. It seeks, therefore, via an interpretive lens to explore the ‘*richness, depth, nuance, context, multi-dimensionality and complexity’* (Mason, 2017, p1) of the views and experiences of highly effective teachers and educational leaders. It also aligns with the predominantly qualitative approach taken in research into the impact of teacher education programs on effectiveness (King Rice, 2003).

Coe et al. (2014) suggest that teacher self-reports of their effectiveness have low reliability, compared to leader judgments. However, their views correspond to pedagogical self-evaluation of effectiveness rather than an examination of wider teacher perceptions. In a pedagogical self-evaluation the disconnect causing low reliability often relates to an understanding or application of what is to be evaluated (Koziol and Burns, 1986). However, the teachers interviewed in this study were not asked to make a judgement of how effective they were (that was for their head teacher to decide). Instead they were asked to explore aspects of their effectiveness. This acknowledges the benefit noted by Little, Goe and Bell (2009) of the insight provided by self-reporting into teachers’ ‘*thought processes, knowledge and beliefs’* (2009, p12). Asking leaders to define effectiveness in the same way that teachers were, allowed exploration of areas of similarity and congruence in their definitions. These are documented in Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.1 and Section 6.1.2 and analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.

The interpretivist approach employed for this study seeks to explore the realities of teachers in secondary schools and colleges of further education. These may be singular realities or, as Savin-Baden and Howell Majornote*, ‘multiple realities [that may be uncovered] through qualitative exploration of richness’* (2013, p13).Mason suggests that ‘*instead of editing [this richness] out in search of the general picture or average’,* qualitative research allows the richness to be factored ‘*directly into analyses and explanation’* (Mason, 2017, p1). This can be achieved via a range of qualitative approaches (Savin Baden and Howell Major, 2013), with interviews, as utilised within this study, forming just one of these. Such qualitative approachesallowanexploration of how things work in particular contexts. In doing so, they utilise ‘*methods of data generation which are both flexible and sensitive to the social context in which data are produced*’ (Mason, 2017, p3). For educational research as considered in this study, therefore, the contexts may be viewed along a continuum from macro to micro contexts. These will include the educational policy context as discussed in Chapter 3, educational sectors and also the contexts of individual secondary schools and FE colleges.

By examining advertisements for teacher vacancies on a wider scale (through the TESJobs web site), the extent to which the views represented in the interviews were evidenced in teacher job vacancies, was also explored. This focussed on qualifications and characteristics sought in order that they could be considered alongside the views presented by teachers and educational leaders. It did not utilise the same set of data that Kumar (2014), considers necessary in triangulation. However, it provided an alternate lens to support or contrast with those provided through interviews. This approach was more in agreement with Punch who was more flexible in his definition of triangulation, considering it about obtaining ‘*complementary quantitative or qualitative data on the same* ***topic’***(2009, p296). It therefore enhanced understanding of emergent themes and had the advantage noted by Punch (2009) of combining the strengths of qualitative and quantitative research. Whilst this triangulation did not consider the same data set on a micro level as those participants interviewed, it provided, on a macro level a further lens through which teacher qualifications could be viewed.

## 4.2 Stance, Reflexivity and Positionality

In considering the research methodology it is important that attention be given to the philosophical position and to the ‘*personal stances, positionality and reflexivity’* (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p38)that accompany and are positional influencers. These aspects of views, beliefs, biases and assumptions are considered at all stages of the research process and will be considered below and build upon those introduced in Chapter 1.

### Stance

My stance was discussed in Chapter 1 – Section 1.2 and is that subject specialist qualifications appear to have little bearing on the effectiveness of a teacher. It is influenced by professional experience as a HE lecturer, teacher trainer and also as a latecomer to academia. It has been a personal and professional necessity to recognise the singlemindedness of this initial stance. However, Becker (1967) recognises inconsistency in the advice given to researchers, with some being encouraged to take a specific stance whereas others are criticised for doing so. My initial stance taken, and potential for bias acknowledged, continues to evolve due my own professional experience over the period of the study. For reflective education practitioners, an initial stance will only ever be just that, a stance at the outset subject to change over time.

It was my stance that sparked interest in the research in order to unpick the extent to which my experiential based beliefs held true for others and more widely in practice. Acknowledging this initial professional and personal stance acts as a perpetual reminder through every step of the research of the need to avoid perceptual bias. Furthermore, it allows me to question any presumptions and enhance objectivity along the journey.

### Reflexivity

Consideration of reflexivity naturally builds on a teacher practitioner and EdD candidate’s skills of reflection. As teachers, expectations of professional reflection are evident from the commencement of teacher training (McGrath and Coles, 2016; Machin et al., 2020) and throughout a teacher’s career (Boyd, Hymer and Lockney, 2015; ETF, 2014). Reflection may occur prior to, during and following an experience in terms of prospective, in action and on action reflections (Shön, 2017). Furthermore, teacher reflection may be viewed through different lenses, those of theoretical literature, self, peers and students (Brookfield, 2017). Brookfield states that critical reflection is the ‘*sustained and intentional process of identifying and checking the accuracy and validity of our assumptions’* (2017, p3). However, for teachers the focus, whilst drawing on personal assumptions, experiences and values, is clearly directed on classroom practice. Reflexivity, rather than reflection, requires that an EdD candidate and practitioner researcher broadens their field of vision (Drake and Heath, 2010). In doing so they must consider the influence of assumptions, experiences and values beyond the classroom. This should apply to every stage of the research process from its inception through to the final presentation of the research. For a teacher researcher undertaking the EdD, these reflective skills form the foundation for development of skills in research reflexivity in order that they may:

*‘think critically about what [they] are doing and why, confronting and often challenging [their] own assumptions, and recognising the extent to which [their] thoughts, actions and decisions shape how [they] research and what [they] see…*’

(Madison, 2013, p3)

Unlike the objectivity inherent within quantitative research, qualitative research has the potential to be unintentionally influenced by the values, beliefs, assumptions and characteristics of the researcher (as noted in Section 4.2.1). Reflexivity requires in depth consideration of these assumptions, both implicit and explicit (Brookfield, 2017) to uncover their potential influence on one’s research. It can be used ‘*in ways that formalise [researchers’] accountability for the decisions [they] make*’ (King and Horrocks, 2010, p133). The most difficult of assumptions, according to Brookfield (2017) are the paradigmatic assumptions, those long held beliefs of reality that are so ingrained that they are seen as facts rather than beliefs. These assumptions can form part of the complexities of reflexivity noted by Madison (2019) who suggests they are the assumptions that people would rather not face. Willig (2013) concurs, noting that reflexivity moves beyond merely recognising “*personal biases”.* Researchers mustrespond to the subsequent ‘*insights and understandings’* that emerge.She further posits that epistemological reflexivity:

*‘encourages us to reflect upon the assumptions (about the world, about knowledge) that we have made in the course of the research and it helps us to think about the implications of such assumptions.’* (ibid)

Reflexivity, therefore, acts as a key means of ensuring the quality of the research (Berger,2015) and is not a unidimensional concept. Rather it requires consideration in many ways including notions of epistemological and personal reflexivity (Willig, 2013). With these notions, reflexivity considers aspects of both the person and the theorist, linking to two of Brookfield’s (2017) suggested teacher lenses of theoretical literature and self.

The critical and reflective thinking that are inherent in reflexive qualitative research also requires that a researcher consider a myriad of influences in relation to policy and practice (King and Horrocks, 2012). Berger (2015, p230) extends this to consider the need for the researcher to be ever vigilant to avoid using their own experiences as a ‘*lens through which to view the research’.*  King and Horrocks further suggest that reflexivity allows both introspection and extrospection. These draw on and examine *‘the intersect relationships between existing knowledge, our experience, research roles and the world around us’* (King and Horrocks, 2015, p125). They acknowledge thatin doing so, a researcher’s findings may ‘*be both illuminating and confusing’* (ibid).In ensuring reflexivity during this study, uncertainties along the research journey needed to be addressed and overcame as they arose and are specifically considered within 4.2.3 of this Methodology Chapter.

### Positionality

Notions of the person draw on the professional and personal context in which the research is situated. They also draw on personal biographies and the concept of positionality. This recognition of positionality as an important consideration to qualitative researchers (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013), means that the positioning of this study requires attention. Just as a researcher’s stance is a consequence of epistemological assumptions, Savin-Baden and Howell-Major (2013) suggest that their personal stance influences positionality. Recognitionofpositionality and associated aspects in relation to *subject, participants and research context or process* (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, pp71-72) therefore help a researcher to ensure accountabilityfor key facets of their research:

* *[their] own research paradigms*
* *[their] own positions of authority*
* *[their] own moral responsibility relative to representation and interpretation.*

(Madison, 2011, p16).

For a practitioner researcher, consideration of positionality helps to keep a focus on neutrality. Through this recognition of positionality, findings must be reviewed with a neutral eye regardless of whether they fit any stated purpose or beliefs. However, my own experience has been that once positionality and opportunities for potential bias were recognised, rather than helping to maintain neutrality, there was a temptation to overcompensate. When views emerged in the research that differed so much from the researcher’s own accepted experience, they stood out more than the other voices despite them being fewer. The problem here was to ensure that the views contrary to the stated stance were not given more attention than they required.

Recognition of professional and personal stance, positionality and reflexivity have therefore been foremost In designing and undertaking this research. They have ensured a continual review and acknowledgement of the role of my own professional and personal biography, experience and assumptions. Additionally, the process and findings uncovered have continued to continue to shape my own dual idenity as both a teacher and researcher (Murray, 2020).

## 4.3 Quality

Quality, when applied to educational research, can be viewed ‘as *an overarching term that encompasses many different views and perspectives’* (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p469). Savin-Baden and Howell Major (2013) acknowledge a wide range of definitions of quality in educational research. They suggest that the overarching question that should be asked in relation to quality, is ‘*How will you [and others] know if you have accomplished quality?’* (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p471*)*. They present three questions that may be used to in relation to quality in qualitative research*:*

1. *How do you view it?*
2. *How will you know if you have accomplished it?*
3. *What strategies will you use to ensure it?*

(Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p469)

A further question emanates from Burgess Sieminski and Arthur (2006). They suggest that exploring the quality of a project involves finding an answer to the question ‘*How will I know what I am doing is the right way of doing research?* (ibid, p62). They note that there is a wide range of quality related terminology in qualitative research and suggest that this is ‘*an attempt to break free from positivist notions of quality’* (ibid).

Traditionally positivist quality notions of validity and reliability relate to the extent to which research measures what it intended to and to its replicability of findings in similar situations by other researchers. For Burgess Sieminski and Arthur, both validity and reliability are often ‘*concerned with precision and accuracy’* (2006,p62)*.* This commonality between validity and reliability is supported by Basit (2010, p69) who acknowledges their interrelated nature. She suggests that ‘*reliability is a necessary prerequisite to validity’* (2010, p69) whilst noting that ‘*reliable research is not always valid’* (ibid).

Golafshani (2003) suggests that, in qualitative research, alternative quality focussed definitions are required to those used in quantitative research. He proposes that in qualitative research, trustworthiness is key to reliability. This is explored further by Basit (2010, p70) who considers that reliability ‘*includes* *trustworthiness, honesty, distinctiveness of content, authenticity, comprehensiveness, detail and depth of response, and significance’*. This view aligns itself to the one utilised in this research. Here, reliability is considered and evidenced through researcher reflexivity, depth and criticality of analysis and acknowledgement of positionality.

Basit asserts that validity ‘*can be addressed through honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached and the use of triangulation’* (2010, p64)*.* However, consideration of honesty corresponds with notions of positionality as examined in Section 4.2.3 of this chapter too. It also indicates further the interconnectedness of quality notions. This is expanded upon by Newby, who recognises the problematic nature of validity due to ‘*the research procedure, the researchers position and the world that receives the research results’* (2014, p17)*.*

In qualitative research validity may be viewed in terms of internal validity and external validity. Punch considers internal validity in terms of cohesiveness. He provides a definition ‘*of internal logic and consistency of research – whether all parts of the research fit together*’ (2009, p315). Savin-Baden and Howell Major consider internal validity as the actual reasons for the research findings. They suggest that external validity refers to an evaluative aspect of quality - ‘*an evaluation of the extent to which results may be assumed true for other cases’* (2013, p473). The commonality between validity and generalisability is also recognised by Punch (2009). In recognising the quantitative connotations of generalisability, he notes that, in qualitative studies, it is transferability that is usually favoured over generalisability (ibid)*.* He elaborates further to introduce three concepts of transferability: ‘*sampling*, *context, and abstraction’* (Ibid, p31). The sample, according to Punch (2009, p316) must be ‘*theoretically diverse enough’;* the context must be ‘*thickly described’* and there must be a sufficient ‘*level of abstraction of concepts in data analysis’.* These three concepts of transferability were considered throughout this study. This was achieved through consideration of the sample and sampling strategy, positionality and the macro and micro context of education (see Chapter 2 and Chapter 7).

Quality may also be considered in terms of both the product and process of research (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013). The quality of a research project from its inception to conclusion may be viewed in terms of five key criteria: ‘*Criticality, Reflexivity, Honesties, Integrity and Verisimilitude’*. When viewed as a product, Savin-Baden and Howell Major suggest, that it is the ‘*reader of the manuscript [who forms] a critical component of the research itself’* (2013, p478)*.* The quality of this product will require clear evidence of density throughout, ‘*ranging from the description of methods, the researcher positionality statement, contextual description and findings’* (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p478-479). This notion of density may be explored in relation to a dictionary definition which aligns itself to ‘*opacity’.* However, Newby (2014) suggests research should be transparent. This is further recognised by Basit (2010, p64) who links validity to conceptual clarity, stating that ‘*researchers ought to show that their concepts can be identified and measured in the way that they have claimed’. G*iven the contrasting viewpoints, an oxymoron may be required to clarify the situation: The research product should be sufficiently dense to provide complete transparency to the research.

A common criticism of interpretivist research is that it does not provide generalisability, especially when focussing on specific instances or situations (Punch, 2014). This is acknowledged by Williams who in addressing these issues, acknowledges that some view generalisation of interpretivist research as an ‘*impossible task’* (2000, p210). However, he concludes, ‘*that generalisation is inevitable, desirable and possible’* (ibid)and proposesthe application of ‘*moderatum’,* a special kind of generalisation. He suggests that the limitations of interpretivism may be ameliorated with methodological pluralism. This research evidences extensive methodological pluralism. By providing triangulation via the multiple lenses, organisations and sectors utilised in the research, consistent macro and micro findings across lenses, organisations and sectors have emerged. This research, therefore, moves beyond that required to ensure the external validity required to make a claim of a ‘*moderatum generalisation’* (Fairweather and Rinne, 2012, p2). Moderatum generalisation aims to make ‘*moderate claims about the social world that depend on shared culture or cultural consistency in the social environment’* (ibid). On this basis, the findings of this research can have implications for practice beyond the organisations sampled (see Chapter 8 –Section 8.4).

## 4.4 Sample

The importance of sampling in qualitative research is recognised by Punch who notes that it is ‘*just as important in qualitative research as it is in quantitative research’* (Punch, 2009, p162). He recognises that a wide range of choices and decisions need to be made, not only in terms of who to interview but also about locations, and how the research will be undertaken*.* Purposive sampling (Basit, 2010, p15) was used for this project. The sample needed to fit the purpose of the research which required access to highly effective teachers in secondary schools and FE colleges (see Chapter 1 – Section 1.1). The sample comprised six educational institutions, of which three were secondary schools and three were colleges of further education. These were the organisations that were not only ‘*authoritative [but]* *representative’* (Newby, 2014, p233) of the phenomena that I wanted to investigate.

Recruiting the participants was not as an easy a task as first anticipated. Just as King and Horrocks (2010, p30), acknowledge, access issues were a hurdle to overcome in recruiting the desired representative and authoritative sample. A combined sampling approach was taken in order to explore both teacher effectiveness and qualifications. Access to teachers with a specific characteristic needed to be secured - they needed to be viewed as highly effective. Whilst participants needed to be highly effective teachers, qualifications also needed to be explored. This therefore required an effectiveness first approach with a focus on highly effective teachers and subsequent exploration of their qualifications. This contrasted with an alternative qualifications first approach which would ask leaders to identify teachers with a range of qualifications and subsequently explore their effectiveness. This latter approach would have had considerable ethical implications in potentially accessing teachers who were either ineffective or moderately effective. A third option in sample selection would have been to ask an educational leader to nominate one of their highly effective teachers with a first-class degree, one with a second-class degree and so on. This was discounted as it would have led to a complication that could not only limit the population but may deter leaders from participating. Instead, teacher effectiveness was utilised as the primary focus. Qualifications were then utilised as a secondary focus that would be explored through the interviews with the teachers (see Chapter 5 –Section 5.2 and 5.3; Chapter 6 – Sections 6.1.2 and 6.1.3 and Chapter 7 - Section 7.1).

Leaders who were interviewed had a key role in teacher evaluation in their organisation. This helped to ensure that they were in a position to make effective referral of highly effective teachers. This application of leader evaluation aligns with research noted by Bardach and Klassen (2020) and undertaken by Jacob et al. (2016), Corcoron and Tormey (2013) and Hall and West (2011). In their research it was teacher supervisor’s ratings that were utilised as the underpinning measure of effectiveness.

The initial intention in this research was to interview educational leaders and teachers within a radius of 50km of the researcher’s own workplace. This focus on the West Midlands regional area, aimed to not only provide a manageable distance travelled to interviews but also provide a demarcation for the research. Contacts were initially explored through professional connections. However, it soon became clear that this sampling plan was not one that would remain through the research and needed to adapt to ensure success (Punch, 2009). In recruiting and selecting the sample, consideration needed to be given as to whether organisations should be excluded due to an overly close relationship. Whilst this might have simplified access to organisations, a decision was made to exclude some organisations where the relationship could be deemed to be too close. Websites were the natural first point of examination for leader contact details. However, this only provided contact emails for the school and not the individual leaders. Gaining access to leaders in schools was hampered by lack of access to the usual gatekeepers in the form of school administrators. I was therefore unable to benefit from the advantages of utilising a gatekeeper as noted by Savin-Baden and Howell Major (2013) and King and Horrocks (2010). After a number of failed attempts to secure access, I drew on the guidance suggested by King and Horrocks (2010) and aimed to improve the chances of success by exploring opportunities for insider access. In doing so, I explored professional contacts and was effective in recruiting FE leaders. However, access to secondary leaders was not forthcoming and social media (Appendix D) was utilised as a tool to engage leaders who were in schools further afield. This meant that expansion of the geographical location of the research was made to central England, rather than the West Midlands regional area that had been initially anticipated. The problems in recruiting secondary teachers may be attributed to the researcher not being known within the schools’ sector in contrast to having professional standing within further education. This may be due to unknown researcher credibilityin their eyes (Newby, 2010). This notion has clear links to researcher positionality. The relative ease of gaining access to FE (as a professional with an FE focus) contrasted strongly with gaining access to secondary schools (with the researcher having no links or professional credibility).

The sample that was ultimately secured consisted of three colleges of further education with whom professional contacts already existed. In addition, three secondary schools were accessed via personal associations and professional contacts within the researcher’s own organisation. The potential participants were approached via email (Appendix D). Access to the FE leaders could therefore be considered in terms of ‘*insider assistance’* (King and Horrocks, 2010, p31). Access to the secondary school teachers - access to the insiders *­­*- was via professional contacts who acted as intermediaries in making contact.

Securing educational leaders who were willing to take part in the research was further complicated by the requirement for them to be not only an interviewee, but a secondary gatekeeper. This secondary gatekeeper role required them to identify and provide access to highly effective teachers in their organisation. It was important however, to reduce the ‘*significant risks’* associated with insider recruitment (King and Horrocks, 2012, p32). This was achieved through an integral part of the research, one that ascertained their views of teacher effectiveness and qualifications before proceeding to interview the teachers. This aimed to explore any issues that may indicate a bias or leaning in a particular direction in relation to teacher effectiveness. This proved to be useful and is explored in Chapter 7 - Section 7.2.

An educational leader was interviewed within each of the six institutions (three FE colleges and three secondary schools). Table 4.1 documents organisational / leader profiles. Each leader was asked to identify three of their highly effective teachers to be interviewed. This is represented visually in Figure 4.3. This resulted in twenty-four interviews being undertaken, four in each of six organisations (one leader and three teachers in each organisation). This approach is akin to the snowball approach noted by King and Horrocks, (2010) and Kumar (2014) and is recognised by Basit (2010) and Newby (2014) as being a useful way of securing participants. For this research, this enabled access to the desired sample whilst also providing greater depth to the findings. A snowball approach traditionally involves initial participants in a research project recommending subsequent participants. It allows an exploration of more than the individual participants but extends to aspects of differing or similar views on both sides (Kumar, 2014). In the case of my research, the specific qualities for the second level of participants were made clear and were an essential part of the process. Table 4.2 documents the profiles of the teacher participants.

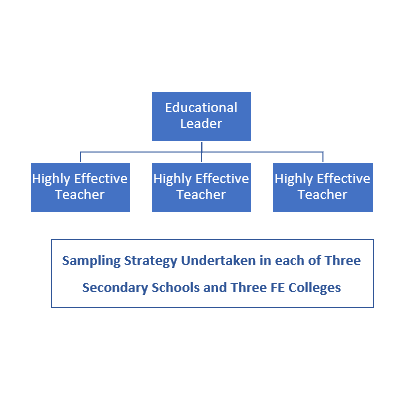
*Table 4.1 Leader and Organisational Profiles*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Participant** | **Gender** | **Role in Teacher Recruitment** | **Role in Teacher Evaluation** | **Organisation** | **Sector** | **Ofsted Grading** | **Type of Organisation** |
| Nell | Female | Y | Y | Lemon College | Further Education | 2015: Good  2020: Outstanding | FE College in North West of England |
| Marge | Female | Y | Y | Rose College | Further Education | 2013: Good  2019: Inadequate (But Quality of Education Good) | FE College in the West Midlands |
| Rhea | Female | Y | Y | Green College | Further Education | 2013: Good  2018: Requires Improvement | FE College in West Midlands |
| Ian | Male | Y | Y | Blue School | Secondary Education | 2013: Good  2016: Good | 13-18 Academy in West Midlands |
| Alice | Female | Y | Y | Beige School | Secondary Education | 2016: Requires Improvement  2018: Good | 11-18 Academy in South East |
| Harriet | Female | Y | Y | Orange School | Secondary Education | 2014: Requires Improvement  2016: Good | 11-18 Secondary School in West Midlands |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Participant** | **Degree Result** | **Gender** | **Higher Degree** | **Organisation** | **Person Role** | **Sector** | **Subject Taught** | **Teacher Experience** |
| Danny | 2:1 | Male | Subject MA | Green College | Teacher | FE | Art and Design | > 5 years |
| Tina | No Degree | Female | None | Green College | Teacher | FE | Performing Arts | > 5 years |
| Jill | 2:1 | Female | None | Green College | Teacher | FE | Biology | > 5 years |
| Jessie | 2:1 | Female | MA (Ed) | Lemon College | Teacher | FE | Education | > 5 years |
| Bella | No Degree | Female | None | Lemon College | Teacher | FE | Education | > 5 years |
| Sandy | 1st | Female | None | Lemon College | Teacher | FE | Health and Social Care | < 2 Years |
| Nola | 2:1 | Female | None | Rose College | Teacher | FE | English | < 2 Years |
| Wendy | 2:2 | Female | None | Rose College | Teacher | FE | Tourism | > 5 years |
| Pamela | No Degree | Female | None | Rose College | Teacher | FE | Beauty | > 5 years |
| Becky | 2:2 | Female | None | Beige Academy | Teacher | Secondary | English | > 5 years |
| Vanda | 2:1 | Female | Subject MA | Beige Academy | Teacher | Secondary | English | > 5 years |
| Tessa | 2:1 | Female | None | Beige Academy | Teacher | Secondary | English | > 5 years |
| Fiachra | 2:2 | Male | Other | Blue High School | Teacher | Secondary | PE | > 5 years |
| Carol | 2:2 | Female | None | Blue High School | Teacher | Secondary | Humanities | > 5 years |
| Clara | 2:1 | Female | None | Blue High School | Teacher | Secondary | Business Studies | > 5 years |
| Harry | 2:1 | Male | None | Orange School | Teacher | Secondary | Art and Design | > 2 and <5 Years |
| Tammy | 2:1 | Female | None | Orange School | Teacher | Secondary | English | > 5 years |
| Maeve | 2:1 | Female | Master’s in Education | Orange High School | Teacher | Secondary | History | > 5 years |

*Table 4.2 Teacher Profiles*

Figure 4.2: Sampling Strategy



## 4.5 Ethics

BERA refer to ethics in relation to an overarching theme of respect:

*‘The British Educational Research Association (BERA) believes that educational researchers should operate within an ethic of respect for any persons – including themselves – involved in or touched by the research they are undertaking’* (2018, p6)*.*

The notion of respect forms a platform for ethical practice. However, Savin-Baden and Howell Major (2013) suggest that where ethics are concerned, binary views of right and wrong or of black and white may be subject to question. Therefore this, as with any research has required lengthy evaluation and consideration of all aspects of the project in order to ensure that ethical standards and practices have been maintained throughout. Somesuggest that ethics are a choice rather than an imposition(Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013). However, organisational guidelines and procedures and those within the EdD program itself have contributed ensuring ethical research. They have done so through the requirement for initial ethical approval by the university’s ethics committee before the study could proceed. The ethical approval process required an overview of the research, the sample and the methods. It also included associated documents including participant information sheets (Appendices E and F), consent (Appendix G) and interview schedules (Appendices H and I) before the research could proceed. Appendix N documents the ethical approval for this project.

This study has been underpinned by professional ethical guidelines and responsibilities to participants as emphasised by BERA to ensure the ‘*highest ethical standards’* (BERA, 2018, p3). Anonymity of the participants and their organisation were assured in order to encourage participation and openness in discussion. Anonymity involves ‘*concealing the identity of the participants in all documents resulting from the research’* (King and Horrocks, 2010, p117). Participants were asked to share their views and assured that neither the organisation nor themselves would be identified. In assuring anonymity to the organisation in addition to the participant, this helped provide a further layer to protect the participant. For example, a history teacher at a named organisation would be more identifiable than a history teacher at a secondary school in central England.

All information was stored securely on a password protected organisational computer. Data was transferred from the audio recorder as soon as possible after the interview and deleted from the recorder immediately following this ensuring adherence to data protection legislation (Data Protection Act, 2018; General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR, 2018)). All participants are represented by pseudonyms in this final report, prefixed with their relevant educational sector, job title and, being either educational leader or teacher (See Table 4.3)

Table 4.3: Abbreviations for Job Titles

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Sector and Title** | **Abbreviation** |
| Secondary Leader | SL |
| Secondary Teacher | ST |
| FE Leader | FL |
| FE Teacher | FT |

Gaining informed consent from the participants was an important aspect in order to show not only professional courtesy but respect for the participants (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013). They were therefore provided with an information sheet that laid out the purpose of the research and their role in the research. The information sheets documented that there were no known risks or benefits to participating in the research. They also provided information about the researcher and contact information should participants wish to follow up the interview or gain further information (Appendices E and F). Participants were asked to sign a consent form (Appendix G) before the interview commenced that documented their agreement to participate and be audio recorded. Participants were also provided with information about how and when they could withdraw from the research following the interview, but prior to aggregation of data, should they wish to.

Ethical considerations are an essential aspect of educational research (Basit, 2010) and have shaped the design of this project, from sample selection to the language used in interactions with participants. When choices needed to be made, they were, as Basit (2010) suggests, morally and ethically based. At an early stage, consideration of the sample was required in terms of the people that the sample would comprise and whether varying levels of teacher effectiveness could be explored. The ethical complexities and inappropriateness of asking for access to less effective teachers, led to a steer in which access was only sought to highly effective teachers in an organisation. Any other approach, for example asking for access to ‘effective’ rather than highly effective could have led to potential organisational dissatisfaction. But it may also have had a psychological impact on any teachers not identified as being ‘effective’. This avoidance of harm is a key issue requiring attention as any project develops (Miles and Huberman, 1994), however for this project was an essential consideration from the design stage.

## 4.6 Research Methods

The approach taken was an interpretivist, qualitative one, through the use of teacher and educational leader interviews supported by document examination in the form of teacher job advertisements. As a cross sectional study, it provided a ‘*snapshot’* (Cherry, 2019, np) of leaders and highly effective teachers at the time of interview in order to explore their views, perceptions and characteristics.

### 4.6.1 Interviews

Interviews are a widely used method for collecting qualitative data (King and Horrocks, 2010) with origins that date back to the early 1900s(Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013). They are frequently combined with other methods(Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013) and provide an opportunity for ‘*an informal discussion or a schedule of issues to be explored’* (Newby, 2014, p356). They are ‘*a conversation between two individuals in which the interviewer asks questions and the interviewee responds’* (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p357). An interview was utilised to gather individual views and perceptions in relation to teachers’ own experiences. In doing so it allowed movement beyond the positivist approach that considers teacher effectiveness solely as a product of the educational outputs of their students. Instead this research took a novel interpretivist approach that built upon research that utilised mentor, supervisor and faculty evaluation as the measure of teacher effectiveness (see Section 4.4 – Sample). Interviews have the advantage of being ‘*unique socially constructed and context specific’* (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006, p72).Whilst some view this as a disadvantage (ibid), given the nature of the research and the ontological and epistemological stance taken (Section 4.1.1), it was the most appropriate approach to take. It also provided a means of acquiring factual information about teachers’ subject qualifications.

A semi-structured approach was taken to the interviews to guide the interview whilst also allowing for development of any emerging themes (King & Horrocks, 2010). Whilst Newby suggests that with a semi structured interview ‘*there is a trade- off between the quantity of data collected and its richness.’* (2014, p356), this was not evidenced in the interviews. Beyond this, an inductive approach to collection of interview data, was utilised. This inductive approach was echoed in the coding of the interview responses (section 4.7.1). It aimed to see beyond any preconceived ideas in literature to allow participant’s views, rather than affirmations or refutations of findings in the extant literature, to emerge. This aligned with the interpretivist approach taken for this research. Here, the intention was to move beyond the range of prescribed lists of behaviours and characteristics evidenced in models such as those provided through Coe et al.’s model of great teaching (See Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.1).

In order to ensure validity, the research questions were mapped to the interview questions and an interview schedule was created for both educational leaders and the highly effective teachers who were nominated (Appendices H and I). Leading questions, which may have evidenced any preconceived ideas about what might be uncovered in the interview (King and Horrocks, 2010), were avoided. This semi-structured approach, according to Newby (2014) is positioned in between aquestionnaire and interview. In this study, effective questioning and exploration of ideas put forward by the participants were interwoven, as necessary. This helped to ensure that the continuum span between questionnaire and evolving interview was wide enough to allow the richness of the data sought to come through. This approach also allowed clarification, where needed, to support the understanding and interpretation of interviewees’ answers (Newby, 2014). This, in addition to document examination enabled a breadth of qualitative and quantitative data from varying viewpoints to support the reliability of the data obtained (Newby, 2014).

#### 4.6.1.1 Pilot Interview

A pilot study is necessary to ensure the quality of a research project (Basit, 2010; Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). In particular, Basit (2010) notes its import in ensuring validity and reliability*.* A pilot study occurs prior to the main research and provides several advantages. It allows a researcher to ‘*experience the mechanics of the research’* (Basit, 2010, p71)and has implications for researcher confidence by allowing a ‘dry run’ of the research in action. It also allows a researcher to see what is and is not possible in the research and can act to challenge overconfidence too (Basit, 2010). Additionally, the pilot is an opportunity for a researcher to develop professionally (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). Given the difficulty in accessing and securing participants for the research, a conscious decision was made to conduct pilot interviews with organisational colleagues. These colleagues had significant experience in roles comparable to those of the sample participants. This was to preserve the respondents for the actual research. Two pilot interviews were conducted, one with a colleague who had educational leadership experience and one who had teaching experience.

The first of the pilot interviews was undertaken with a former educational leader within the researcher’s own organisation (Pilot Leader 1 - PL1). This was particularly useful in ensuring clarity of language to be used in the interview questions. It also aided examination of how the participant might respond in order to ensure that the research questions were answered. This led, in subsequent interviews, to tighter use of questions in order to elicit required answers. One example in relation to this was the change from ‘*Do you think?*’ which appeared leading, to a more open ‘*What do you think….?*’. This helped to ensure that participant views were gathered rather than confirming those of the researcher. This allowed educational leaders (as the gatekeepers to highly effective teachers) to provide their own definitions of teacher effectiveness. Following this, interviews with the teachers allowed comparison with the views of leaders. It also allowed leaders to provide a rationale for their choice of teacher participants.

A second pilot interview (Pilot Teacher 1 - PT1) was undertaken with a highly effective teacher in the researcher’s own organisation. With clarity of questions having been developed following the pilot interview with a leader, it was anticipated that this pilot interview would be a formality. However, this was far from the case and proved particularly useful in helping to shape subsequent interviews in a number of ways. The questions asked provided little response from the pilot interviewee. Therefore, questions were reworded in situ and revised for the subsequent interviews. In taking this approach, further clarification was provided to the participant whilst also allowing emerging themes to be explored. The order in which interview questions were asked was also changed following the pilot. This involved grouping questions into tighter categories of recruitment and evaluation. This aided the natural flow of the interview, rather than moving back and forth between diverse questions which would have limited the depth of information gained from the participant.

The importance of clarity in language used became particularly clear during this pilot interview. The PT1 started to talk about teaching qualifications rather than subject qualifications and I realised that this was something that could lead to misunderstanding in subsequent interviews. Therefore, clarification of what was meant by subject qualifications was built into future questions and discourse. In addition, PT1 struggled to give an answer when asked about how important they thought their qualifications were to their effectiveness. Therefore, a quantitative element via a Likert scale was initially introduced for subsequent interviews. Consequently, an open question of ‘*To what extent do you think that your subject qualifications match the knowledge needed to teach your subject?*’ was replaced with a Likert scale. On this scale, participants were asked to assign a weighting from 1 to 10 on the importance, with 1 being the lowest and 10 the highest. This meets with Newby’s view (2014, p40) that there is a ‘f*ine line between questionnaire and an interview’.* This added a desirable element of measurability to the research, so was also applied to a similar question used with leaders via the question: *‘What importance do you assign to subject qualifications as part of your sifting and interview process?* However, this pilot interview proved a red herring with regards to the Likert scale. The answers resulting from the scale did not provide a sufficient response. Instead, they pigeonholed the respondents of the post pilot interviews. Consequently, the original question was returned to in situ, utilising reflection in action, (Schon, 2017) in order to gather the richer data that was sought.

#### 4.6.1.2 Research Interviews

Having reflected on and responded to the findings of the pilot interviews, the core interviews were conducted, being approximately 30 minutes in length. Interviews were arranged at times and dates to suit the participants and, where possible took place at the participant’s own organisation. This was to encourage greater participation but also to ensure ethical rigour in terms of choosing the best location and timing for the participants (King and Horrocks, 2010). Interviews were a combination of face to face and telephone interviews, depending on individual preference with the final choice of location decided by the participant. A conscious effort was made to build a rapport with the interviewee whilst at the same time maintaining professional detachment. The possibility of telephone interviews limiting or impacting on the spontaneity of discussion (Hurworth, 2004) was a consideration. However, this had to be accepted in acknowledgement of not only the difficulty in gaining access, but also the workloads and logistics of interviewing participants at a mutually convenient time. Another potential issue with telephone interviews night have been the quality of the recording. The telephone was used on handsfree to gather the best quality recording and the quality of the recording was tested before proceeding with the interview. This was to overcome potential interference noted as a possibility by Newby (2014). There was no need to use video recording, because, whilst this was offered (via Skype) it was not taken up by the participants. This may have been due to a telephone interview being easier to set up on the participants side or possibly due to participant reluctance to engage in video conferencing and conversation. Had the interviews been undertaken in groups, this is something that would have may have been utilised in order to assist in distinguishing between individual participants (King and Horrocks, 2010)

Of important consideration for the research was the wording of the interview questions, which could have had key ramifications for the answers provided. Teachers and leaders were asked to say how they would define an effective teacher. This aimed to explore broad expectations of an effective teacher allowing both teacher as person and as praxis to emerge. This aligned with the model of teacher effectiveness going into the research proposed by Coe et al. (2014). Their model considers great teaching in terms of components that combine what the teacher has in terms of beliefs and knowledge and what the teacher can do in terms of pedagogical skills. The subsequent interview question asked if there were any qualities or characteristics that teachers or leaders considered more important that subject qualifications. This allowed teacher and leader interpretation of what comprised qualities or characteristics. In doing so it aligned with inconsistent views in the literature regarding what constitutes qualities or characteristics. For example, for Strong (2007) ‘*qualities*’ refers to both teacher as person and pedagogical skills. However, for Robinson and Lewis (2017) qualities refer to beliefs, ‘characteristics’ refer to interpersonal skills and ‘attitudes’ and ‘approaches’ refer to delivery styles and techniques.

All interviews were audio recorded in order to enable a focus on the interview process. This method was chosen in favour of notetaking which could have led to some key elements being overlooked, given less attention than required, or slowing down the discussion. If notetaking was used rather than audio, this could also have led to a reliance on handwritten notes. If, as Vygotsky (1964) suggests ‘*a word is a microcosm of human consciousness’* (Seidman, 1991, p114) then capturing every word that a participant speaks (via audio recording) is an essential part of a rich and deep examination of their views. However, had any participants not wished to have had their interview recorded, it would have been necessary, for ethical reasons to compromise and lose this suggested richness in favour of a handwritten transcription.

### 4.6.2 Document Examination

Document examination, in the form of the content of teacher job advertisements, was chosen in addition to interview. This aimed to provide a wider view of teacher recruitment beyond the geographical location utilised for the sample. Advertisements on the teaching jobs repository TESjobs.co.uk were analysed over a 3-day period in June 2017. This repository was chosen due to its credibility within the sector. In addition, it contributed to greater consistency in advertisement layout and provided access to teaching vacancies for both secondary and further education. Initial notions of exploring local authority web sites for this purpose were dismissed. This was due to vacancies for teachers in academies and colleges of further education not being found on these web sites. The focus of the documentary analysis was confined to England due to the devolved education systems in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland and the different qualifications offered in Scotland. Vacancies for 40 jobs were analysed: 20 secondary and 20 further education. Through this additional lens of document examination, an individual analytical one (Basit, 2010), access was provided to aspects of an organisation, their recruitment processes and public representation of their values:

‘*Documents provide information about the image that individuals or members of an environment or organisation actively seek to convey to others’*

(Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p404).

This comment suggests a potential bias in views evidenced through document examination. It is similarly important to accept the limitation of using documents for research that have often not been created with the purpose of research in mind (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007). In the case of this research, when considered alongside the interviews as data sources, it is acknowledged that different versions of the truth may have been visible. The interviews may present an honest and raw account of values and beliefs. Whereas the documents present a polished, customer facing, sanitised corporate view.In support of documentary analysis, however, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison acknowledge that ‘*some social worlds cultures and events are literate*’ (2007, p201).

## 4.7 Data Analysis

### 4.7.1 Interview Data Analysis

Qualitative data, in order to provide richness and depth, requires ‘*multiple perspectives and practices’* in its analysis (Punch, 2009, p170). Kumar recognises three general ways of presenting qualitative research findings, being a ‘*narrative, a thematic and a combined thematic and quantitative element’* (2014, p317). It is this final approach, one of combined thematic and quantitative analysis, that was utilised for this study. This aimed to draw together both the qualitative and quantitative elements from both interviews and document examination.

Miles and Huberman identify stages of the analysis process through ‘*coding, reflecting, sorting, isolating and elaborating to ultimately formalising’* (1998, p8). This analysis stage of research builds on all of the stages of process that have gone before. Furthermore, it recognises the ‘*complexity of the relationship between data and analysis’* (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006, p80). Clarity in the planning of the analysis stage and any decision-making processes was particularly important. This helped to minimise any bias that might have emerged and ensured *‘rigour and reliability’* (ibid, p81). Decisions about coding and analysis were made at the proposal stage, with an acceptance of the need for flexibility should it be required (*ibid*).

The recognition of researcher positionality and ontological and epistemological stance, contributed to ensuring transparency at this and all research stages under consideration in this study (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006). In order to evidence robust, fair, and unbiased findings, reflexivity has informed the data analysis stage to the same extent as the data collection stage. It has, therefore, contributed to clarity that will further contribute to an avoidance of bias (ibid).

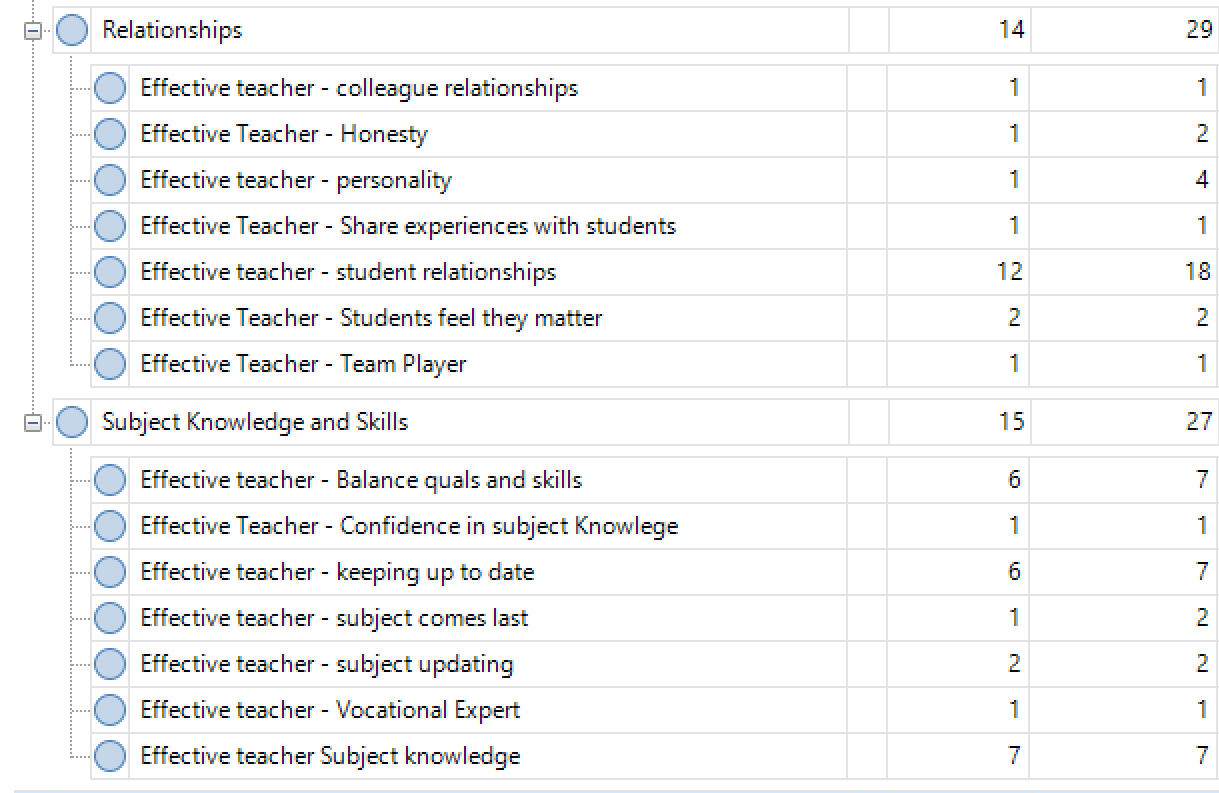
Data coding and interpretation required the drawing together and processing of a large amount of interview data in a way that clearly represented the views of the leaders and teachers interviewed. A decision was made to self-transcribe the data. Initially this was due to financial constraints. However, this provided greater insight into the responses than might be gained by getting the interviews transcribed elsewhere. The interviews were transcribed sequentially, completing one interview and transcribing before moving on to the next wherever possible. However, on occasions where interviews were held with two participants on the same day this was not possible (see Appendix M) for a sample of one of the interview transcripts). This aided reflection, not only on the answers provided by the participants, but also on the researcher’s skills as an interviewer. Efforts were made, despite the ongoing skills development, to ensure that responses were as comprehensive for earlier interviews as later ones. This was achieved by returning to one of the earlier participants for additional detail on the realisation that part of a question had not been sufficiently explored in the interview.

The nature of the study explored individual views and biographies. Therefore, any approach taken that did not include full transcription would not have provided the depth and breadth of individual experience to explore. King and Horrocks (2010) suggest some interviewers may listen to interviews, identify the key points and only transcribe those. However, this approach had the potential to allow the emergence only of any limited presupposed themes. This would also have constrained returning to the transcripts when questions arose around coding.

A simple verbatim approach was taken as noted by King and Horrocks (2010). In terms of paralinguistics, any instances of ‘erm’ / ‘ahh’ or similar verbal aspect of speech were documented in addition to any variations of tone and pitch (King and Horrocks, 2010). However, as the interviews progressed, it was clear that paralinguistic elements were not adding anything to the findings. Therefore, this was adapted, and paralinguistic elements were only documented when it was clear that they added additional meaning to the words spoken. When significant, a manual note was added to the transcript to document this. There was an initial temptation to correct any colloquialisms and non-formal language. However, this was avoided in favour of the approach suggested by King and Horrocks (2010) who point out it is the researcher’s job to record the words spoken rather than to correct them.

Following initial self-transcription and noting of key concepts as they arose in the data, qualitative data analysis software was used in the form of NVIVO. This choice was made in acknowledgement of the large amount of data that was generated by the interviews and subsequent transcripts. It was also an attempt to manage the vast amount of data that was emerging and to help with pattern visualisation (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006). NVIVO aided the three stages of the research process of descriptive coding, interpretive coding and identification and exploration of overarching themes (King and Horrocks, 2010). This enabled formal drawing together of initial concepts from each interview and construction of a lower hierarchy of ideas that were emerging. An inductive approach (Newby, 2014) was taken to analysing the interview transcripts, one which let the themes emerge gradually from the data. Whilst some suggest that codes should be identified before coding, this approach acknowledges the interpretivist nature of the research. In doing so, it allowed the natural emergence of codes and themes which were based on lived experiences and personal views that should not be predicted beforehand. In support of this view is Saldaña’s recognition that ‘*emergent, data driven (inductive) coding choices are also legitimate’* (2015, p75)*.*

The interview transcripts were read through several times and any terms, phrases or sentences that provided a response to a research question were highlighted. A code, in the form of a summary of the concept identified was then applied. For example, when exploring views from teachers regarding what they considered of equal or greater importance than their subject qualifications, key words and phrases including ‘*rapport’*, ‘*personable’* and ‘*they must like the children’* were coded. This allowed exploration of synonyms and antonyms and organisation of common or dissimilar threads in the views expressed. These codes were then drawn together. In the example discussed here, this allowed the formation of the ***Ability to Form Relationships*** category. This when further analysed, comprised an element of the ***Passion and Enthusiasm*** theme. This development from reading to coding to categorisation and deriving themes was supported through the use of NVivo Nodes. These were gradually grouped through use of a hierarchy as noted in Figure 4.3, which demonstrates some of the codes in the early stages of hierarchy building.

*Figure 4.3: NVivo Nodes indicating emerging relationships category*

Repeated iterations of reading, coding and categorisation led to the emergence of other categories and themes from the research. They also, as Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur (2006) acknowledge, provided a framework through which earlier levels and prior concepts could be considered. This approach, of gradually building up themes from the data helped to ensure the ‘*clarity and inclusivity’* recommended by King and Horrocks (2010, p151). Through acknowledgment of positionality throughout this analysis, all relevant information whether or not it met with the researcher’s own experience and views, was included. This was to ensure that the data had been interpreted ‘*at a sufficient depth to justify a qualitative approach’* (King and Horrocks, 2010, p151). Preconceived ideas and suppositions were avoided in recognition that ‘*when analysing data, you should always be open to the element of surprise, for ‘something’ that turns up in the data in an unexpected way’* (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006, p 83).

Cases, in the form of participant interviews were viewed individually; in terms of role, (for example teacher or leader); in terms of organisation; and in terms of sector (for example, secondary or further education). Through recognition of these as recognisable groups within the data, inter thematic analysis was used between different cases and groups of cases in addition to intra thematic analysis between cases and groups of cases. This approach, referred to as ‘*within case and across case’* analysis by King and Horrocks (2010, p150) helped to secure the research within the interpretivist tradition. However, because interviews were also utilised to gather factual information about teacher’s subject qualifications, simple quantitative analysis was also used. This involved examination of the frequency of various qualifications.

### 4.7.2 Documentary Data Analysis

Teacher job vacancies were analysed within secondary and further education. This enabled a greater insight ‘*a rich and readily accessible source of information for understanding [the research] context’* (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p410). To qualify for inclusion in subsequent analysis, only one vacancy from each organisation was considered. If the organisation was part of an academy chain with the same recruitment documentation, the same exclusion was applied. Comparable vacancies within an academy chain were also excluded - only one counted. Independent or specialist schools were excluded due to their unique nature. State funded non-specialist schools were the focus of this aspect of the research as they matched the categories of participants for the interview element of the research.

Vacancies were analysed by exploring the text of the job advertisements on the TESjobs web site and by examining the text of any associated documentation. This typically included an information pack or supplementary documents (See Appendix O For example teacher job advertisement and corresponding job specification). The advert content and any associated documentation were analysed for evidence of qualifications within the recruitment criteria. However, the documentation varied considerably. Some organisations provided both job specification and person specification. Some provided a general information booklet and others a combination of these with each having different focus and content. Some organisations initially identified for inclusion were subsequently excluded from analysis, because they did not include an information pack or supplementary documents which would have limited the opportunities for analysis.

An initial examination of the documents provided an insight into the extent to which qualifications were noted in the advertisement and associated person specifications. A key consideration here was how to compare aspects of a document to a personal response to an interview question. Therefore, an assumption of ‘importance’ was assigned to essential rather than desirable characteristics. Drawing on this, a spread of qualification requirements presented themselves to aid coding. Vacancies were also grouped by subject to aid further analysis (see Chapter 5 – Section 5.1.1).

Analysis of the representation of teacher characteristics in the teacher job advertisements required that a number of decisions be made. Unlike the teacher qualifications, which were represented in limited instances in the advertisements and associated paperwork, there were numerous opportunities to extract teacher characteristics. In line with the cross-sectional approach taken, it was decided that the most effective snapshot provided into desirable characteristics would be provided from the advertisement. This provided clarity to the extraction of data and avoided the mechanistic inclusion of an exhaustive list of duties in a job specification. As with analysis of the interviews, repeated iterations of reading, coding and categorisation led to the emergence of themes from the advertisements (see Chapter 5 and Chapter 6).

## 4.8 Conclusion

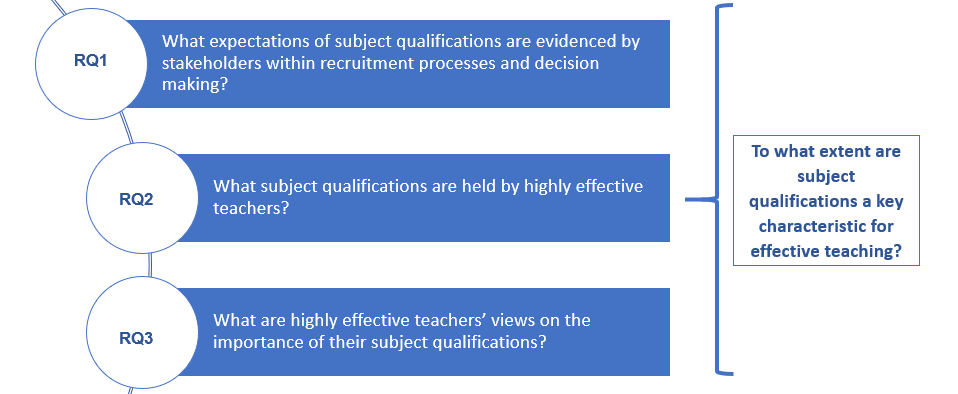
This chapter has analysed all aspects of the research design, from ontological and epistemological position through to the research methods and data analysis. It has explored notions of quality, ethics, positionality and reflexivity. Chapters 5 and 6 that follow acknowledge the two strands to this research. These are strands of subject qualifications and of other characteristics as noted in Chapter 1 – Section 1.1.1. These chapters present the findings of the research and will signpost to subsequent evaluation and critical thematic analysis in Chapter 7 – Discussion and Analysis. Chapter 5 will therefore state the research findings in relation to representations of teacher subject qualifications. It is followed by Chapter 6 which states the research findings in relation to representations of teacher characteristics.

# Chapter 5: Findings - Representations of Teacher Subject Qualifications

The preceding chapter analysed all aspects of the research design, building from the ontological and epistemological position. This chapter presents the research findings, organised by research question and introduces narrative in relation to representations of teacher qualifications. It does this through lenses of educational leader, teacher job advertisements and the views and subject qualifications of teachers. These findings form the foundation of critical analysis in Chapter 7. Chapters, 1, 4, 7 and 8 will signpost to this chapter. They also signpost to Chapter 6. This will enable the presentation of a cohesive and interlinked thesis.

This chapter presents the research findings in relation to teacher subject qualifications in order to answer RQ1 to RQ3. It commences with representation of teacher qualifications in teacher job advertisements. It then moves on to consider the educational leader findings in relation to teacher recruitment and decision making. It continues by stating the qualifications held by the highly effective teachers interviewed. It concludes with consideration of highly effective teachers’ views in relation to the importance of their subject qualifications to their effectiveness.

Figure 5.1: Research Questions Relating to Teacher Subject Qualifications



## 5.1 RQ1: What expectations of Subject Qualifications are Evidenced by Stakeholders Within Recruitment Processes and Decision Making?

The findings in this section relate to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) or a proxy (DfE, 2016). They are presented in this section in the raw format and are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2.

### 5.1.1 What Expectations of Subject Qualifications are Evidenced in Teacher Job Advertisements?

Forty teacher job advertisements, twenty in secondary schools and twenty in colleges of further education (FE) were analysed to identify the representation of teacher qualifications at the recruitment level.

#### 5.1.1.1 Essential Qualifications - Combined FE / Secondary

When subject qualification expectations for both secondary and FE teacher job advertisements were combined, having a degree in relevant subject was the modal expectation (8 Instances). However, 12 vacancies did not specify any expectation of subject qualifications. The need to have a good honours degree (or good relevant degree) was only evidenced in three of the forty instances. In terms of FE qualifications, vocational qualifications and level 3 qualifications are documented separately due to the language utilised in the advertisements, however closer examination of the advertisements suggests that the two terms are interchanged, with a level 3 qualification typically representing a vocational one. This would combine the 3 vocational and 4 level 3 expectations to a total of 7, resulting in vocational or level 3 qualifications being the third most frequently occurring expectation.

Figure 5.2: Combined FE / Secondary Essential Subject Qualifications

Figure 5.3: Essential Qualifications - FE and Secondary Comparison

The various expectations of a degree ranged from having a degree with no specification of a subject, a subject specialist degree or a good degree. When amalgamated, there are similar expectations of FE and secondary qualifications. Overall, there is an expectation of a degree in nearly half of the advertisements examined. However, not all advertisements specified qualifications. This was the case in 11 secondary teaching vacancies. Similarly, there were inconsistencies within subject areas. For example, in advertisements for humanities subjects; one did not specify any qualifications, one specified a degree level qualification and one specified a degree in the subject area or a related qualification. It was in FE that there was a greater expectation of a degree in the subject area, whereas a good degree or a degree in general were the expectations in secondary advertisements.

Figure 5.4: Expectations of a Degree - FE and Secondary Comparison

The variance between expectations in secondary and FE was evident when vocational and level 3 qualifications and good honours degrees were considered. Vocational and professional qualifications were considered essential solely in FE. Good honours degrees were considered essential solely in secondary teacher advertisements. Beyond this there are distinctions in the expectations and the language utilised in FE adverts, including notions of experience and professional qualifications, reinforcing in part the vocational nature of the sector.

Figure 5.5: Desirable Qualifications - Combined FE / Secondary

Whilst higher level qualifications and expectations were not evident as essential, they dominated the desirable qualifications (4 instances). This higher-level learning was also evidenced by an expectation of engagement with courses of relevant further study. A good relevant degree or a good honours degree in an unspecified subject were noted in a total of four instances.

Figure 5.6: Desirable Qualifications - FE and Secondary Comparison

In exploring the breakdown of the desirable qualifications, secondary expectations slightly peak their FE counterparts in relation to higher qualifications or further study (ratio of 3:2). For a good degree (honours or relevant), there was a ratio of 3:1 in favour of secondary. The desirable expectation of a degree or a degree in a relevant subject leans towards FE with a 3:1 ratio.

#### 5.1.1.2 Essential or Desirable Qualifications - FE / Secondary combined

Figure 5.7 shows that when secondary and FE qualifications are combined to view the overall desirable or essential qualifications expectations, the need for a degree (9 Instances) or relevant degree (10 instances) is greater than the need for a ‘good degree’. However, Figure 5.8 shows that the need for a degree is dominated by secondary adverts, the need for a subject degree dominates the FE adverts

Figure 5.7: Essential or Desirable Qualifications – Combined FE / Secondary

Figure 5.8: Essential or Desirable Qualifications - FE and Secondary Comparison

The expectation of a ‘good degree’ is not prevalent in the advertisements when combined in terms of essential or desirable characteristics, though it is more prevalent for secondary adverts than FE. Conversely, the need for a degree in a relevant subject is more prevalent in FE than secondary (See Figure 5.9)

Figure 5.9: Good degree - Essential or Desirable Qualifications - FE and Secondary Comparison

A good degree was considered essential in only 2 secondary advertisements and one FE advertisement.

Figure 5.10: Good degree - Essential

### 5.1.2 What expectations of Subject Qualifications are Evidenced by Educational Leaders Within Recruitment Processes and Decision Making?

Six educational leaders were interviewed (3 FE, 3 secondary) to ascertain their views in relation to the level of subject qualifications they sought during the teacher recruitment process in their organisation. Leaders presented views in relation to subject qualifications ranging from Level 3 / A Level to post graduate qualifications. They also documented that taught lessons, and in-tray / skills tasks were utilised as part of the recruitment process to ascertain teacher subject knowledge.

Leaders views were also provided in relation to degree classifications and the value or importance to which a ‘good’ degree was assigned.

Figure 5.11: Span of subject qualifications considered

Section 5.3.1 will note the relevance of level 2 qualifications to highly effective teachers interviewed. However, there was no interest paid by leaders in relation to level 2 qualifications in a teacher’s specialist area. There was, though an interest by FE leaders in maths and English qualifications at level 2. These findings are acknowledged but not included here as they are outside the remit of the research.

#### 5.1.2.1 Level 3 Qualifications – A Levels and Equivalent Vocational Level 3 Qualifications

FE leader FL Marge assigned high important to level 3 qualifications. Her justification was pragmatic in noting the absence of higher-level vocational qualifications in some subject areas in the suite of those available to FE teachers:

‘*For many of the vocational staff, there isn’t a higher level of study that they could have done, so for them, the level 3 would be vital.’*

FL Nell linked her view to her prior experience in recruitment of vocational teachers and commented that:

‘*For* *motor vehicle… catering, hair and beauty the best teachers have been those that haven’t got the degrees and have had the good solid level 3 qualification and the experience.’*

Secondary leader SL Alice considered the subjects taught at A level as part of the school’s recruitment processes. She used applicants’ level 3 qualifications in the form of A levels holistically in order to gain greater insight into the applicant:

‘*The reason I look at that is just to see, kind of what interested that person at that stage of their life’*.

The use of level 3 qualifications as part of a whole and to provide greater insight into the applicant was also noted by Secondary Leader Harriet. SL Harriet looked to the quality of A levels in forming an overall picture of a primary trained graduate who was looking to teach in secondary education:

‘*Her A levels were good as well, erm you were thinking will you be able to cope academically with; you know what it takes to deliver A level.’*

#### 5.1.2.2 Having a Degree

A degree level qualification is not a prerequisite for entry into the profession for further education teachers. Therefore, it was only the FE leaders who were asked to comment upon the need to possess a degree. Here the importance of a degree was clearly linked to teaching in academic, rather than vocational areas, with FL Nell commenting that:

‘*for an academic area such as Sociology or History and English, we would be definitely looking for the degree there*.’

FE Leader FL Marge supported this in commenting:

‘*I would say that it’s essential obviously for academic staff to have a degree in the subject area in which they are teaching’*

#### 5.1.2.3 Having a 2:1 Degree or Better

Of the six leaders interviewed, only one had a strong view regarding the importance of degree class. SL Harriet was insistent on the need to recruit teachers with ‘good’ degrees from good universities. She elaborated on this to share her own experience with teachers she had recruited with lower class degrees from lower ranking universities often presenting with issues in their basic literacy.

*‘Sometimes when you get lower classes of degrees from some universities in some subjects you start to have things like literacy issues with teachers which is kind of ridiculous. Not always but sometimes…I think that usually the better class degree, if you’ve got somebody who’s got a 2:1 or above, often, usually, not in every single case, but they tend to support those students better because they’ve reached a higher academic standard themselves.’*

When asked for wider views about qualifications, SL Harriet considered that the degree result was a consequence of commitment to their subject:

‘*We have people that do conversion courses and things like that but really I think it has to be a passion of the teachers and the best teachers who I put on my list are people who are absolutely committed to teaching the subject, who’ve studied that to a high level, have been successful in it, who’ve got good outcomes with a degree, you know there is a relationship between the two.’*

#### 5.1.2.4 Postgraduate Qualifications

None of the leaders interviewed expressed a focus on postgraduate qualifications within the recruitment process. However, FL Nell, after assigning low importance to these, noted that when her organisation did recruit a teacher with a doctorate, it was considered an admirable characteristic and provided the organisation with a marketing opportunity:

‘*We have got somebody who teaches History and he’s got a doctorate in History, so he’s splashed all across our advertising.’*

#### 5.1.2.5 Qualifications Only Part of the Story

Whilst one of the three secondary leaders interviewed had strong views in favour of a good degree, another (SL Alice) had the opposite view:

*‘Ok, so probably less important than they are to other people probably because my experience is that people with first class honours degrees aren’t necessarily the best teachers… people who have a third-class degree can sometimes be the best teachers.’*

SL Alice suggested that her views may be atypical. However, this was not evidenced strongly in either views on the importance or lack of importance of a ‘good’ degree. What the data did evidence though was that qualifications are only part of what are sought at interview. FL Marge also spoke about the weighting of qualifications in the recruitment process:

*‘So organisationally, yes, they do place importance on qualifications, but they also value skills and attributes and experience as well and I think they are pretty pragmatic in that respect actually.’*

SL Ian, whilst recognising the role of qualifications, made it clear that a lower-class degree was not something that would prevent someone from gaining employment. He noted that they were ‘*a factor, but they don’t shut somebody off necessarily.’* Equally FL Rhea was willing to make exceptions to her minimum requirement of a level 3 qualification:

*‘If we had an exceptional candidate, so if we had somebody whose microteach blew us away. Even if they had not taught before or anything like that, really blew us away and the interview kind of confirmed that as well, then we might take a look at whether or not we could make any exceptions.’*

#### 5.1.2.6 Qualifications Identified at Interview

Educational leaders were asked whether the levels of subject qualifications of applicants matched those that were sought as part of the recruitment process. All but one of the leaders stated that applicants had the qualifications sought. However, when leaders were asked about the level of qualifications that they accepted, the issue of the teacher recruitment shortage in secondary education was brought to the fore. When asked about the sifting and sorting process, SL Harriet (who was the only leader with the focus on a ‘good’ degree) made it clear that ‘*unless its Art or PE, there is no sifting’*. She went on to say that she was having to accept teachers with much lower degrees whereas previously she would not have accepted them. This issue of teacher recruitment was also elaborated upon by ST Tessa who was involved in the interviewing process. She commented that, when organising interviews for teachers, ‘*they just did not turn up, you know and that’s really common’.*

## 5.2 RQ2: What Subject Qualifications are Held by Highly Effective Teachers?

The findings in this section relate to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) or a proxy (DfE, 2016). They support the findings that are presented in Section 5.1 and are critically analysed and thematically presented in in Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.

### 5.2.1 Level 2 / GCSE / O Level Qualifications

The level 2 qualifications held by highly effective teachers corresponds to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. They also correspond to qualifications as a proxy of knowledge (DfE, 2016). The findings in relation to the level 2 qualifications held by teachers are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2.1

The GCSE results shared by the participants were varied. 16 out of the 18 teacher participants shared their GCSE results. Of these, the majority gained 5 or more GCSEs at grade C or above (ST Clara, ST Maeve, ST Carol, ST Tessa, ST Vanda, ST Tammy, ST Fiachra, ST Harry, ST Becky, FT Jill, FT Sandy, FT Wendy, FT Tina). The results though were mixed with some teachers achieving high results including A and A\* Grades (ST Becky, ST Vanda, ST Carol and ST Maeve, ST Clara, FT Wendy). Others received fewer GCSES, predominantly Grade Cs and Bs (ST Tessa, ST Tammy, ST Fiachra, ST Harry, FT Nola, FT Sandy). FT Jill commented that she gained eleven GCSEs at Grade C, above, but did not note any A grades.

Some of the teachers indicated a pragmatic approach to their GCSE grades. FT Pamela gained the 4 GCSEs that she required to gain access to sixth form and FT Bella considered here results were, at the time ‘*good enough*’. FT Danny couldn’t recall his GCSEs grades, through commented that they were alright. ‘*I wasn’t brilliant, I can’t remember my grades but, you know it was average.’* FT Jessie, though who had experienced a bereavement, got predominantly Ds and Es. She was not alone in gaining a D at GCSE / Level 2 though, with ST Tessa, ST Fiachra, FT Sandy, FT Pamela, ST Tammy and ST Carol all gained at least one D. ST Tessa and ST Tammy both had to retake their Maths GCSEs and ST Fiachra had to retake English in order meet the requirements for the teaching profession.

### 5.2.2 Level 3 Qualifications

The level 3 qualifications held by highly effective teachers corresponds to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. They also correspond to qualifications as a proxy of knowledge (DfE, 2016). The findings in relation to the level 3 qualifications held by teachers are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2.2

3 of the teachers interviewed did not hold level 3 / A level qualifications. Of the 11 teachers who specified their qualifications results at Level 3, there was a span of results. These ranged from Ds and Es at A level through to As and Bs. Similarly, vocational qualifications ranged from pass to distinction. These are documented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Level 3 Qualifications Held by Teachers

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Teacher** | **Level 3 Results**  **(Subject Specialism in bold where held)** |
| ST Becky | C**C** |
| FT Harry | **B**CC |
| ST Tammy | **B**CD |
| ST Carol | B**D**DN |
| ST Maeve | B**A**AB |
| ST Clara | **B**CDE |
| ST Tessa | **B**BC |
| FT Wendy | BE |
| FT Tina | **Distinction** |
| FT Jessie | DDE |
| ST Fiachra | **Pass** |

### 5.2.3 Degree in Subject Taught

The degree level qualifications held by highly effective teachers corresponds to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. They also correspond to qualifications as a proxy of knowledge (DfE, 2016). The findings in relation to the level 2 qualifications held by teachers are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2.1.

Of the 15 teachers interviewed who had an undergraduate degree, all but one of the degrees matched their subject specialism. The one teacher who was teaching a subject different (Education) to that which she achieved in her undergraduate degree, was teaching the subject that she undertook in her master’s degree. Figure 5.12 displays the degree results held by the teachers interviewed. All secondary teachers held degrees at 2:2 and above, with none holding a first-class degree. Three of the FE teachers (who taught vocational subjects) did not hold a degree. The only teacher to hold a 1st class degree was an FE teacher who taught a vocational area and was a recent graduate and newly appointed teacher.

Figure 5.12: Teacher Degree Results

### 5.2.4 Master’s Degrees

The postgraduate qualifications held by highly effective teachers, in the form of master’s degrees, corresponds to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. They also correspond to qualifications as a proxy of knowledge (DfE, 2016). The findings in relation to the level 2 qualifications held by teachers are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2.5

Four of the teachers interviewed (2 FE and 2 secondary) had master’s degrees. Two of these teachers had subject specialist master’s degrees and two had master’s degrees in education.

## 5.3 RQ3: What are Highly Effective Teachers Views on the Importance of their Subject Qualifications?

The findings in this section relate to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) or a proxy (DfE, 2016). They support the findings that are presented in Section 5.1 and are critically analysed and thematically presented in in Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2.

Teachers were asked how well they considered that their subject qualifications had contributed to their effectiveness as a teacher. They were asked to consider this both overall and in terms of whether their qualifications matched the knowledge needed to teach their subject. Qualifications were discussed ranging from GCSE, through to postgraduate qualifications.

### 5.3.1 Level 2 / GCSEs

The view that GCSEs were important for a teacher’s effectiveness was prevalent with FE teachers. However, this was in relation to maths and English based upon FE requirements that teachers embed these within every subject discipline. This is outside of the scope of this research, therefore the findings in relation to this are not included due to their lack of relevance to the research questions.

Views in relation to the importance of level 2 qualifications for teachers’ effectiveness correspond to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. They are considered alongside notions of qualifications as a proxy of knowledge (DfE, 2016) are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.

There were mixed views in relation to the extent to which level 2 / GCSE qualifications matched the knowledge required to teach their subject. ST Tessa, an English teacher had strong views in this regard, commenting:

*‘Yeah, I do. I think – I still use my GCSE Othello text with my own GCSE notes in when I’m teaching. So yeah it does, and I remember penny dropping moments when I was at school and you know at uni and… massively impacted and also shaped the way I think as a practitioner.’*

Similarly, ST Maeve, a History teacher found the knowledge gained in her GCSE History qualification helpful when faced with a new teaching situation:

*‘I think they are essential really, yes. I think certainly when I started teaching, I had – I walked into a department that isn’t - wasn’t as good as perhaps it is now, and I didn’t have much to sort of work with. And I remember taking for example, my first GCSE group and there was no scheme of work, there was no nothing, but because I had done the GCSE course that the kids had done that helped me to know exactly what to do, so yeah.’*

FT Nola, an English teacher found the terminology that she learned in her GCSE useful:

*‘Erm, very closely and certainly on the English side of it. The terminology, the structuring, all of the qualifications I’ve done, right from the GCSE though to the post grad have all been useful.’*

However, views of GCSE knowledge not matching that required to teach were also evident. Some teachers considered them irrelevant and others considered them useful for the baseline or foundation knowledge that they provided.

ST Becky, an English teacher did not consider her GCSEs relevant to her effectiveness: ‘*Erm GCSE, I don’t think so.’* English teacher, ST Tammy concurred:

*‘Oh! Erm, they don’t prepare you at all I don’t think. Erm, I feel I’ve learnt so much more about English erm through my 12 years of teaching than I ever did at university and I ever did at school.’*

It was predominantly the vocational teachers, FT Pamela and FT Sandy who recognised the importance of their level 2 qualifications (though not GCSE). FT Pamela commented on the core vocational skills she gained in her level 2 qualification:

‘*Yeah, big, yeah. Lots, because obviously the skill set that I need to pass on to students’.*

Whereas FT Sandy commented on the breadth of knowledge and skills that she gained in her level 2 qualifications:

*‘I’ve done all different qualifications; I’ve even linked hairdressing to the health and social care sector so you can tell them that other things are possible.’*

ST Clara considered her GCSEs as forming the foundation for her future learning:

*‘Err I mean I did GCSE – a long time ago erm, the GCSE element I would say I probably had to do more in terms of looking at the real basics.’*

### 5.3.2 Level 3 / A level Qualifications

Views in relation to the importance of level 3 qualifications for teachers’ effectiveness correspond to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. They are considered alongside notions of qualifications as a proxy of knowledge (DfE, 2016) are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2.2.

The findings of this research were that many teachers, both FE and secondary, found their level 3 content relevant to their teaching. Whilst ST Becky, an English teacher did not consider her GCSEs useful she had the opposite view for her A levels and her degree:

*‘I* *think that at A level, everything I studied at – in my university degree in some way or another has filtered through to my planning for A level. Erm GCSE, I don’t think so.’*

Similarly, ST Tessa, an English teacher and ST Maeve, a History teacher both felt that their A levels and degree content matched well to their teaching. ST Maeve attributed the match of the qualifications to the success of her current teaching:

*‘It was a bit of a strange one erm in terms of modules that I could teach as part of my degree that’s always been an overlap. So, for example, when I did my A levels, I did Tsarist Russia for a hundred years and now I’m teaching Tsarist Russia for a hundred years. The same period, different kind of assessment but the same thing and I think that’s one of the reasons why it’s one of our best performing modules at A level, so for me it definitely does.’*

FT Jessie considered her A levels relevant to a subject that she used to teach:

*‘I think when I was teaching the languages hugely beneficial yeah, so without a doubt and I, yeah you do English literature as part of the A levels and you’re analysing these texts and building these skills, so yeah, definitely.’*

The analysis and wider skills gained through their level 3 qualifications were considered important by FT Jessie, FT Wendy, ST Tammy and ST Vanda. FT Wendy agreed and considered the skills gained to be more important than the content:

*‘I think it’s the ability to research, the ability to analyse, those skills came from those qualifications but not the content.’*

ST Tammy agreed that the wider skills gained in doing her level 3 qualification were important, but attributed the gaining of the skills and the love of her subject to necessity and the absence of a teacher:

*‘Erm, predominantly because, I was on to get full marks for my A level until our second year and we had a – we didn’t have a teacher for the entire year. For the first three weeks in September we had a teacher and then the teacher went off and we were pretty much forced. I think – I’ll always remember there were seven of us and we were forced erm, to do our studies ourselves if you like. And I think that just not only gave me my love for the subject it also made me quite independent, quite driven and also quite good at going off and finding out theoretical things for myself cause I had to.’*

This love of the subject and independence during the process of undertaking the level 3 qualification was also evidenced by ST Vanda:

*‘I think it was a good steppingstone up to degree level. I loved the texts that I did at A level and I was actually allowed a lot of freedom. In my A level course, my teacher recognised that I was good at English. I ended up, I completely chose my own coursework, title and that, it ended up being on something medievalish, which kind of I think started the love of that. And everyone else did two pieces of 2000 words, I did one piece of 4000 words.’*

Not all teachers considered their level 3 qualifications a match to what they were required to teach. FT Jill, a biologist had not studied her subject at A level and ST Fiachra commented that his qualifications were outdated even by the time he took them. The notion of lack of relevance or outdated qualifications was also explored by ST Carol who also commented on the time between taking her A levels and the current A level specification. She did, however, turn this into a positive and commented on how she used what she had learned to map to her own teaching:

*‘It’s been 20 years since I did my A levels, so I’ve lost some of that. I mean it comes back to you. I mean I did when I changed the A level to meet the new specification, I did pick the one that was most similar to what I did at A level in the hope that in the deep dark recesses it would be there. And you know I can remember some of it but not enough to you have to read around. This is why I think it is important that you love your subject so much that you are willing to put that time in to learn or relearn.’*

Whilst ST Fiachra, a PE teacher felt his level 3 qualification was outdated, he recognised other aspects that were relevant:

*‘The subject knowledge which I could have done a lot better on for the BTEC courses is needed every single day when I teach. Especially in the theories content erm the coaching courses provided a foundation for me to be able to go and deliver to the kids.’*

Similarly, FT Wendy, recognising her qualifications were no longer relevant in terms of content, commented:

*‘You’ve got to have a basic grounding in kind of what that looks like and what the key themes are, but it moves so quickly and so much that you have to learn as you go.’*

### 5.3.3 Undergraduate Degree

Views in relation to the importance of undergraduate degrees for teacher’s effectiveness correspond to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. They are considered alongside notions of qualifications as a proxy of knowledge (DfE, 2016) are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7- Section 7.1.2.3 and 7.1.2.4.

When asked about the extent to which their degree matched the subject they were teaching, eight (three FE and five secondary) teachers interviewed felt that their degree matched the subject that they teach well, whereas four felt it did not. One teacher thought there was a partial match. ST Fiachra considered just the first year of his degree a good match. ST Becky, an English teacher, considered her degree particularly relevant for her teaching at A level:

*‘I think that [teaching] at A level everything I studied at – in my university degree in some way or another has filtered through to my planning for A level.’*

FT Nola, who teaches on level 3 courses, considered all of her qualifications useful for her teaching saying that they matched:

‘*Very closely and certainly on the English side of it. The terminology, the structuring, all of the qualifications.’*

Similarly, ST Tessa found both her A levels and degree to be highly relevant:

‘*For me, well my A levels and my degree were brilliant’.*

ST Fiachra, ST Vanda and FT Jessie all found several aspects of their degrees relevant to the subject needed to teach their subject. For ST Harry it was technology skills:

*‘Yeah. I definitely think in terms of my degree, most definitely so. Because it was very computer based which a lot of our courses are now. We use a lot of the software that I definitely incorporate into my lessons.’*

FT Jessie gave a similar view in terms of the technological aspects being useful:

*‘Oh, yeah, well, yeah. It did actually, because I’ll tell you why, because a lot of it was, database creation, systems analysis, things like that now when you teach.’*

For ST Vanda it was the content of her History degree, though she did recognise an element of overspecialisation:

*‘My first degree, did. Although I, because I loved medieval English, I ended up specialising a lot the medieval erm sort of courses.’*

ST Maeve (a History teacher) whilst not recognising a comprehensive match between her degree and her teaching area commented on a partial match:

‘*In terms of modules that I completed as part of my degree that’s always been, that’s always been an overlap.’*

ST Tammy and ST Carol did not feel their degree matched the knowledge needed to teach their subject. In particular ST Tammy was quite clear about the lack of relevance to her teaching. Whilst ST Carol did not consider her degree matched her teaching, she did draw on how she mapped her teaching to what she learned at degree level:

*‘Like the new GCSE that’s just erm come on board now. I chose the American module because I did that at degree level, so I’ve got you know – some understanding. I would say that I still had to read it and learn it again, but it might have helped a little bit.’*

FT Wendy commented that the continually evolving nature of her subject, travel and tourism, meant that her degree did not match what she needed to teach well. However, she still felt that it had provided her with a basic grounding in the subject:

*‘Because my subject is very modern, very dynamic, text books really, those text books that we use now are probably 10 years old and tourism looks nothing like it did 10 years ago...You’ve got to have a basic grounding in kind of what that looks like and what the key themes are but it moves so quickly and so much that you have to learn as you go.’*

FT Jill did not feel that her degree matched what she needed to teach and commented that he *‘wasn’t particularly confident that [he] knew enough from a subject point of view’.* However, she did feel that his degree formed a starting point:

*‘I think, from a foundation point of view, certainly the degree that I did, it did give me a good foundation.’*

FE Teachers FT Danny, FT Nola, FT Wendy and FT Jill did consider the breadth of knowledge gained though their degree as useful. For ST Vanda it was the cognitive skills gained that were most useful:

*‘I think my degree prepared me in terms of how I think about things. Erm, so it’s not necessarily that I was taught something at university and I just take that and teach it in the classroom. I was taught to think about literature and therefore I, whatever text I have to teach, I can then teach it from that if that makes sense?’*

ST Carol, a Humanities teacher, also commented on the transferrable skills:

*‘How it links to like events today you know how it is useful for the skill development not just content wise and you know I do think it helps like, is one of those subjects that you know, it’s got transferrable skills that it helps to develop a person as you know the whole as well, you can you know.’*

ST Tammy, an English teacher drew on the benefits of the drama aspect of her degree:

*‘I think the drama element to my degree helped me – erm, I think there’s that element of when you are erm, when you are a teacher, erm you’re always portraying a role, aren’t you*.’

ST Tessa also considered the cultural knowledge and analysis skills gained in both her A levels and degree as being important:

*‘I was going for things that I was genuinely interested in. But, in terms of English alone, I’ve got the psychology part, I’ve got sociology. I’ve got a really big web of cultural knowledge that feeds back in on a contextual basis. And then for media because of my strengths I’ve got a media background anyway but English feeds back into that, they marry so well, so in terms of the analytical skills, so they were ideal.’*

Only two of the teachers interviewed considered that their degree class impacted on their overall effectiveness. Both were teachers of humanities subjects (history and English). Both gained a 2:1 degree. In addition, ST Tammy considered her degree classification useful for teaching A level. ST Maeve had strong views both in relation to the standing of the awarding university and the result. When asked if she felt her degree class impacted on her effectiveness she commented:

*‘I think so, yes. Particularly, there was a period where we, a few years ago in school, where we had perhaps teachers who weren’t very effective and one of the conversations that we had with [educational leader] was at the time and [educational leader] has a similar mindset to me in terms of education and qualifications and the value of that. And we came to discuss our weakest teachers are those that have maybe got a 2:2 and perhaps they are the teachers that haven’t gone to the [Russell Group University] but perhaps they have gone to maybe a lower ranking university. So, in terms of my role as a head of department, there is definitely erm a big difference between graduates and teachers you get going to the academic institutions in comparison to those who have struggled or open university and gone through a different route.’*

ST Tessa, who taught at a different institution than ST Maeve held similarly strong views in terms of her own effectiveness as a teacher and entrants to the profession overall and made clear links here to the degree class she was awarded, her circumstances whilst studying and the effort that she had put in:

*‘Yeah, I think my 2:1. I was really proud of because I was a young mum at the time as well. It’s a good grade on its own but I was really proud that I managed to pull that out of bag. Anything less than a 2:1 I don’t think is adequate. I don’t think you are going into this profession with an adequate cap of knowledge. I think, I think a minimum of 2:1 for going in to teaching.’*

In contrast to the strong views held by ST Maeve and ST Tessa, many of the FE and secondary teachers did not consider their degree class as having influenced their effectiveness. ST Vanda, whilst considering her degree to be important to her effectiveness, did not consider degree result to be relevant:

‘*So, I think that because of my qualifications, not necessarily the classification, but just the fact that I’ve done a degree.’*

FT Wendy (who teaches tourism), commented that she had taken a traditional FE teacher route through university and into the workplace before entering teaching. However, she equally commented that her degree result had not influenced her effectiveness. This suggests that wider skills in terms of preparation for the workplace are more important.

*‘Not with what I teach. Not with what I teach, because my experience at university was very real for me. And I did the traditional, GCSE, A Level, university, out into the workplace. But equally, I’ve got friends who are secondary teachers who did GCSE, A Level, University, PGCE, into teaching careers. [They] never stepped outside of education and I really feel that, when I meet my students at 16, they have been taught and they’ve got great bits of knowledge. But I think sometimes those educators sometimes haven’t got grasp on what it’s like for them to go out into the workplace*.’

ST Fiachra (who achieved a 2:2) did not consider that he would be a better teacher with a 2:1 and considered the wider attributes of motivation and passion to be more of a factor:

*‘No. Not at all. I don’t think it’s down to that. I think If I were to speak to someone that might have a 2:2 or even further down, I do really feel it’s that sort of motivation and passion that can take you further. Because as I mentioned before I’ve got friends that weren’t motivated or driven within the teaching profession, who in a sense you could say, well, they might be better than me in certain areas. But then if you aren’t going away and spending the time planning your lessons, looking at individual seating plans, looking at individuals in there.’*

FT Jessie also considered that she would be just as effective a teacher whatever the class of her degree and suggested that it was effort and determination that had more of a link to her effectiveness:

*‘No. It would be exactly the same cause I just, I just feel that. I have even said to people that I still class myself as an NQT even though I’m not because of that feeling of ‘gotta get it right, gotta get it right.’ And I’ve never ever gone into a phase of complacency. I just can’t do it.’*

One of the teachers interviewed (ST Carol) appeared embarrassed by her 2:2 degree and yet, as with all of the teachers interviewed, she was considered by her leader to be highly effective. When asked about her degree result, she lowered her voice to give the classification. Despite this embarrassment she shares the view of most of the teachers interviewed that her degree class unimportant to her effectiveness:

*‘Oh, I haven’t got a first-class degree, I’ve got a 2:2 (quietly). And you know, talking about what you were saying before about wanting to get the best people in to teaching. Personally, I don’t believe having, you know a higher-class honours degree actually necessarily equates to being a good teacher. I do know people with, you know, top honours degrees and are not.’*

### 5.3.4 Master’s Degrees

Views in relation to the importance of master’s degrees for teachers’ effectiveness correspond to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. They are considered alongside notions of qualifications as a proxy of knowledge (DfE, 2016) and critically thematically analysed in Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2.5.

Four of the teachers interviewed (2 FE and 2 secondary) had master’s degrees. Of these, two had subject specialist master’s degrees and two had Master’s in Education. ST Maeve tied her Master’s in Education with an interest in gifted and talented provision and considered it was essential in securing a large number of top end results for students:

*‘We got about 28 /30 percent As and A stars in the department. Not only did we beat other departments in the school but in terms of national, we were top end as well. We were identified as a centre, nationwide where we were a top performing centre for gifted students in terms of the subject history.’*

A similar view, of the master’s degree being useful for high end achievement was evidenced by FT Danny who considered that his subject specialist MA enabled him to ‘*really stretch students’*. FT Jessie shared an alternative perspective and considered her MA in Education useful for career progression and role change, teaching a different subject at a higher level. For one teacher with a subject specialist degree, though there was not a perceived student benefit, with ST Vanda commenting:

*‘I didn’t need to have a masters erm and certainly didn’t need to have a masters in medieval English’.*

### 5.3.5 Overall Views on Qualifications and Effectiveness

Overall views in relation to teacher effectiveness correspond to notions of qualifications as a signal (Spence, 1973) as presented in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4. These views are critically analysed and thematically presented throughout Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.

In addition to their view on the impact of their own qualifications, teachers were also asked to provide their overall view in relation to teacher qualifications and effectiveness. This provided some insights that were not evident via the core interview questions.

ST Tessa felt strongly about the status of the profession and linked this to the work she had put into getting her own 2: 1 degree, though did conflate this with achieving her teaching qualification too:

‘*I do think 2:1 should be a minimum for teaching. I think there should be many more routes into teaching. But I do know that some teachers can feel quite disgruntled if an unqualified teacher comes in and they’ve got – I think it’s important. I think – actually I did get myself into 30 grands worth of debt and stayed up really, really late to put myself through my PGCE. I did retake my maths with a group of 16-year olds. I did – I think the standard should be set; the bar should be set really high for teaching.*’

ST Vanda however shared a different view and considered qualifications only in relation to securing a teaching post:

*‘Erm, I think it makes a difference in terms of making you employable.’*

Three of the teachers interviewed (one FE and two secondary) suggested that intellect could be a disadvantage, with FE teacher Wendy linking her view to an experience in her teacher training:

*‘Going back to that PGCE scenario, where we did have great teachers and lecturers. I wouldn’t know his name, but I still really vividly – it stays with me, that day of sitting in a lecture theatre with just a wall full of words and a guy walking up and down. Almost talking to himself. I think it stays with you, it’s almost the arrogance of intellect that people feel because they’ve got that intellect, you should want to know it.’*

ST Vanda recognises this limitation of intellect, but also shares an experience that suggests intellect can also be an attraction to some students:

*‘There’s a teacher [here] who I and I have thought for a long time that he’s not effective – because he is a typical sort of maths nerd who can’t really relate to other students*. [one high achieving student] *loves him as a teacher – she just thinks that his lessons are amazing, and she gets so much out of them, so I think that. But put him in front of bottom set year sevens and that would definitely not work.’*

## 5.4 Conclusion

The findings of this research are that teachers assigned varying relevance to their qualifications ranging from level 2 to postgraduate level. They did not consider qualifications overall to be relevant to their effectiveness, however for some, did find the content relevant to their teaching practice. Similarly, most leaders did not assign importance to degree classification or wider qualification results. Instead, they saw them holistically in helping form the overall picture of a teacher applicant. This research also found that whilst there was some expectation of a degree in teacher advertisements, this was not widespread and there was limited evidence of the importance of a good degree.

This chapter has stated the findings in relation to stakeholder representations of teacher subject qualifications though examination of teacher job advertisements and interviews with educational leaders. It has concluded with examination of teachers’ own subject qualifications, their views in relation to their importance to teachers’ effectiveness and wider views of the importance of qualifications.

The following chapter (Chapter 6) will explore findings in relation to representations of teacher characteristics through an examination of the findings through the same lens of educational stakeholders. It will commence with educational leader interviews, followed by teacher interviews and will conclude with the findings resulting from examination of teacher job advertisements.

# Chapter 6: Findings – Representations of Teacher Characteristics

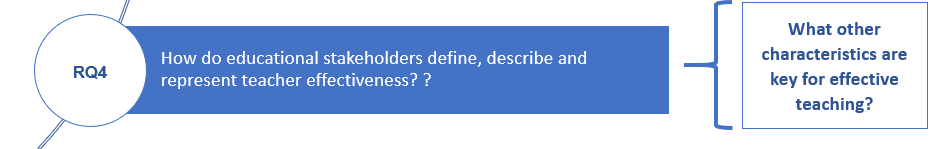
This chapter explores representations of effective teacher characteristics. It commences with educational leader interviews, followed by teacher interviews and concludes with the findings resulting from examination of teacher job advertisements.

The findings in this section relate to key characteristics in the holistic view of the teacher. The relate to notions of teacher as person (Stronge, 2007) or praxis (Coe et al., 2007). They are presented in this section in the raw format and are critically analysed and thematically presented in in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.

## 6.1 RQ4: How do Educational Stakeholders Define, Describe and Represent Teacher Effectiveness?

Sections 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 of Chapter 5 presented the research findings in relation to teacher qualifications. This section will present the findings in relation to teacher characteristics in order to answer RQ4:

Figure 6.1: Research Question Relating to Teacher Characteristics



### 6.1.1 Educational Leader Interviews: How do Educational Leaders Define and Describe Teacher Effectiveness?

Educational leaders were asked to provide their own views in relation to perceptions of teacher effectiveness. They were also asked what qualities or characteristics they considered to be of equal or greater importance than subject qualifications. A range of characteristics and considerations emerged in response to this aspect of the study. These ranged from passion and enthusiasm, measured outcomes and the ability to motivate through to the need for the teacher to be able to form positive relationships. Lesser considerations included notions of effective planning and unmeasured outcomes. The contributions from these leaders are summarised in Table 6.1 below:

*Table 6.1: How do Educational Leaders Define and Describe Teacher Effectiveness?*

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Finding** | **Discussed by Leader** |
| **Measured Outcomes** | SL Alice, FL Marge, FL Nell, FL Rhea |
| **Passion and Enthusiasm: For Subject** | SL Alice, SL Harriet SL Ian FL Marge, FL Rhea, |
| **Passion and Enthusiasm: For Teaching** | SL Harriet, FL Nell, FL Rhea, |
| **Subject Knowledge** | SL Harriet, SL Ian, FL Marge, |
| **Ability to Form Relationships with Students** | SL Alice, SL Ian, FL Marge, FL Rhea |
| **Ability to Motivate and Engage Students** | SL Harriet, SL Ian, FL Marge, FL Rhea, |
| **Planning lessons** | SL Ian, FL Marge |
| **Managing Behaviour** | SL Harriet, FL Marge |
| **Unmeasured Outcomes** | SL Ian, FL Nell |

#### 6.1.1.1 Measured Outcomes

Aspects of both characteristics and behaviours were anticipated responses to interview questions in this research and predominantly this was the case. However, notions of measured outcomes were also evident in leader interviews and are documented in this section for transparency. This is because they provide insight into the end product of effective teaching, rather than characteristics or behaviours.

Progress was a key term that emerged in leader interviews and relates to measured learner outcomes based on various academic starting and finish points. Comments were made in relation to various aspects of progress. These included the progress of every learner in the class and to higher than expected rates of progress. For example, FL Marge noted that a teacher should care about the progress of all students:

‘*They would have a real concern for the progress for every single student in their class.’*

Similarly, FL Rhea considers an effective teacher as one who:

*‘Believes that they can all progress and achieve and tailors what they do to try and do that.’*

Whereas reference to ‘all’ students is not mentioned specifically it seems to be implied by SL Alice and FL Nell. These leaders make it clear that an effective teacher should ensure good progress, both within and beyond students’ perceived capabilities. SL Alice therefore considers an effective teacher as:

‘*One who enables [students] to make the progress they are capable of.’*

FL Nell considers an effective teacher being one who can:

‘*Demonstrate progress with those learners and they’ve got to demonstrate that those learners are achieving at a rate higher than expected.’*

#### 6.1.1.2 Passion and Enthusiasm

Passion emerges as a key theme in this research and the findings in relation to this theme are critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2. Passion and enthusiasm emerged twofold by educational leaders. It was evident in five out of six leader interviews in being a characteristic of equal or greater importance than subject qualifications. It was also evident in their definitions of teacher effectiveness. Passion was referred to both generally and specifically in relation to the teacher’s subject area, with typically occurring keywords of ‘*love’* ‘*enthusiasm’* and ‘*passion’* and ‘*committed’*. Passion was referred to in relation to both passion for subject (FL Marge, FL Rhea, SL Harriet, SL Ian and SL Alice) and for teaching (FL Nell, FL Rhea, SL Harriet)

FE leader Rhea spoke about the need for teachers to be:

‘*Passionate and enthusiastic about their subject area’.*

Similarly, SL Ian says that the effective teachers inspire students:

‘*Through a love of a subject, it is through enthusiasm.’*

Consideration of passion in terms of a teacher’s subject was expressed by FL Marge, not only in relationship to their enthusiasm but also linked to the depth of interest:

*‘Depth of interest, passion and enthusiasm for their subject area’.*

For FL Rhea it was about the passion and enthusiasm that was demonstrated to the students when teaching, suggesting a crossover between passion for subject and teaching:

‘*Enthusiastic and passionate people when they are delivering the subject’.*

SL Alice linked the passion to having a qualification in the subject:

‘*But you’ve got to have a passion for your subject and that to me comes out as to whether you did a degree in that subject.*’

The importance assigned to each of these terms suggests the unquestionable importance of the characteristic. For example, FL Nell uses the phrases ‘*gotta****’*** and ‘*got to’* when she explains her view:

*‘So, an effective teacher has gotta have passion… they’ve got to have enthusiasm.’*

Similarly, SL Alice says that effective teachers:

‘*Have* *got to have a passion for [their] subject.’*

SL Harriet goes further after noting the importance of passion and specifies a need for absolute commitment:

*‘I think you need the interest and passion in your subject...I think it has to be a passion of the teachers. And the best teachers who I put on my list are people who are absolutely committed to teaching the subject.’*

FL Nell considered passion for teaching, not just about the practice of teaching but the commitment to the needs of the students as being of equal or greater importance than their qualifications:

‘*Yeah, very definitely, their very passion and their love of teaching. Also putting the need of the learners or their pupils a high priority and that comes through.’*

She further elaborated to the overall commitment to long term student impact:

‘*It’s the one who’s got the most passion really. The most willingness to want to make a difference. That’s the thing. The willingness to want to make a difference. If that doesn’t come through, then they’re not considered really.*’

The emphasis on teaching and learning was evident in the interview with FL Marge, who emphasised the focus on learning:

*‘A passion for teaching and learning… and actually I’d probably put it the other way around, learning and teaching.’*

FL Rhea stressed that she looked for an applicant who was ‘*really passionate and enthusiastic and motivated’*. She elaborated to specify that in an interview setting it would be the applicant with passion, over qualifications that she would appoint:

*‘If the person with perhaps the lower level of qualifications was really passionate and enthusiastic and motivated and the other person perhaps was good but not – didn’t shine at those things and didn’t stand out, then I’d be drawn to the person with the lower qualification but the more enthusiasm.’*

SL Ian moved beyond consideration of a teacher who was passionate about teaching and learning. He viewed a teacher applicant’s enthusiasm in terms of the school as a whole:

*‘I want them to have a willingness to do more for us as a school, not just to pitch up in the morning and go at the end of the day. I want, you know, I want them to come to the school show, you know because they’re interested and because they want to support their colleagues.’*

#### 6.1.1.3 Subject Knowledge

Within educational leaders’ definitions of an effective teacher, subject knowledge and subject related skills arose. This was in consideration of an interest or passion in their subject (as noted in Section 6.1.1.2). Passion for subject emerges as a key theme in this research and the findings in relation to this theme are critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2. Subject knowledge is also critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 – Section 7.1 in relation to teacher subject qualifications.

Subject knowledge was also pragmatically in terms of a secure grasp of the subject. As SL Ian commented:

‘*You’ve got to have somebody who knows the subject*.’

FL Marge provided a more refined view on teacher subject knowledge, commenting that:

‘*They would have a depth of subject knowledge appropriate to their teaching role.’*

For SL Harriet, subject knowledge was implied in terms of a teacher’s ability to apply their subject knowledge to the curriculum through being organised:

‘*And then what you do is you mark it in a way that you are looking at key questions or key themes or whatever and identifying gaps and gap filling and that’s really quite time consuming but really, really important.’*

SL Ian was also clear to point out that subject knowledge need not be the top priority:

‘*You’ve got to have somebody who knows the subject erm but ultimately teachers are a teacher of children first and then their subject second erm and I think that’s really, really important.’*

#### 6.1.1.4 Ability to Form Relationships with Students

Enthusiasm and commitment to students was also evidenced in the characteristics that were viewed as of equal or great importance than qualifications to the leaders interviewed. The ability to form relationships with students is a key characteristic within the theme of passion and enthusiasm and is critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.2.2. For FL Marge, it was ‘*a real rapport with their students.*’ that she sought at interview. The same was true for FL Rhea, who commented that it was important ‘*how personable they are with the learners as well*’. SL Ian concurred and noted the importance of being able to ‘*build relationships with young people*, *that they like young people*’. For SL Harriet who had strong views in relation to the importance of good degrees from high-ranking universities, she too emphasised the need for teachers who formed positive relationships with students:

*‘Schools are all about relationships, so you need somebody who can form relationships with the students that are appropriate and constructive, so you are always looking for that as well.’*

SL Alice agreed about the importance of relationships and clarified her view to include elements of enthusiasm and positivity whilst also considering the view of fitting in to the school as a whole:

*‘Yeah for me it’s about relationships. Can they quickly build relationships with children? Do they smile? It’s the simple things to me indicating whether they are actually going to get on in our ethos here which is all about children and all about the self-worth of children.’*

#### 6.1.1.5 Ability to motivate and engage students

The ability to motivate and engage students is a key characteristic within the theme of passion and enthusiasm and is critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.2.1. The importance of positive relationships and motivation of students were intertwined findings that emerged in relation to leader views of teacher effectiveness. Therefore, passion and motivation play a twofold role as far as leaders are concerned, they are expected characteristics for new recruits. However, for a teacher to be effective they must also be able to motivate and drive that passion and engagement in their own students. This is noted by FL Rhea who considered an effective teacher to be one who ‘*instils and generates that passion and enthusiasm’* in the students and SL Alice who states that an effective teacher ‘*is one who engages learners’.*

Some leaders specifically noted the intertwined nature of relationships and motivation in their own discourse. For example, SL Harriet commented that teachers ‘*have to be able to maintain good and positive relationships that motivate the children’.* Similarly*,* SL Ian commented that he sought teachers who are able to ‘*develop a relationship with the students so they want to work in that subject’.*

The role of relationships is further noted by FL Marge who stresses the need for:

‘*A student that comes into that class feels that they matter to that teacher.’*

This sense of mattering to someone is also shared by FL Rhea who says that an effective teacher is:

‘S*omebody who sees all the learners as individual people within that class.’*

The need for sincerity in the relationships is drawn out b*y* SL Ian who says that the most effective teachers ‘*genuinely care’.*

#### 6.1.1.6 Minor Findings

Planning effective lessons and unmeasured outcomes emerged as very minor findings and are acknowledged here in terms of completeness and transparency. Whereas measured outcomes formed a modal response made by leaders, unmeasured outcomes are also considered too. Unmeasured outcomes may be viewed in relation to teachers who motivate and inspire their students (and considered in Section 6.1.1.5) though, they may be considered longer term and more holistically too. FL Nell refers to a teacher’s contribution to the overall wellbeing and personal growth of students:

*‘They are safe, and their wellbeing is being considered They grow as people as well and not just academically.’*

Similarly, SL Ian felt strongly about personal growth and pastoral care that impacted on students in a way that couldn’t be measured:

*‘For some of us and some of the students these are the immeasurables. And it was interesting because when Ofsted came in February, one of the conversations we had – it was broadly around pastoral care. And I said you know with pastoral care, what you can’t measure is what hasn’t happened as a result of what they’ve done. And I said you don’t know what it is, is immeasurable and you don’t know what it is. But I said in the back of my mind there are a lot of things that could’ve happened to some of these students that hasn’t because of the work and the effort that has gone in and when I say the pastoral team, that includes the form tutors’*

Pedagogical aspects were only a minor finding in leaders’ interviews and related to effective lesson planning (FL Marge, SL Ian) and managing behaviour (SL Harriet, FL Marge).

### 6.1.2 Teacher Interviews: How do Highly Effective Teachers Define and Describe Teacher Effectiveness?

Teachers were asked to provide their own definitions of an effective teacher. The subsequent interview question asked if there were any qualities or characteristics that teachers or leaders considered more important than subject qualifications. The views presented ranged from passion and enthusiasm, ability to motivate, unmeasured outcomes through to relationships. In addition, lesser representations were evident in terms of professional skills and measured outcomes.

#### 6.1.2.1 Passion and Enthusiasm

Passion emerges as a key theme in this research and the findings in relation to this theme are critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2. Passion and enthusiasm in a range of forms made up the most prevalent finding when teachers shared their views regarding characteristics of effective teachers. Aspects ranged from overall passion and enthusiasm to passion for their subject and for learning. For example, for ST Becky an effective teacher is ‘s*omeone who is passionate about the subject that they teach’*. For FT Bella they are someone who demonstrates ‘*enthusiasm at that subject’* and for ST Tammy they must have ‘*an enthusiasm, a passion for the subject’.*

The multi-faceted nature of enthusiasm was noted by FT Wendy who commented:

*‘I think it’s all to do with how enthusiastic they are in the classroom; how enthusiastic they are to get to know people and want the very best for their students.*’

This passion and enthusiasm for students’ learning is also extended to teachers’ own learning. For ST Tessa, teachers are ‘*a student first. I think you’ve got to have a passion for learning and want to learn yourself.*’ This notion of lifelong learners is also widespread within the personal biographies shared by many of the teachers interviewed (see Section 6.1.3). However, the importance of teachers as learners was also shared by other teachers too. For FT Bella:

*‘It’s recognising that I am always learning that I feel helps me to be an effective teacher because it demonstrates to others that you can learn with your teacher because in this day and age – 21st century you’ve got to have that ability… but for me passion would be the thing and I think I’ve got that in relation to education and learning in particular.’*

ST Carol linked her love of learning to the love of her subject:

‘*I still love learning about history, and I change the syllabus round all the time just so I can learn something new and do new things, because I think you can’t be… you can easily become stale just throwing the same stuff out all the time.’*

The relevance of ongoing learning was also noted by FT Danny who commented:

*‘Keeping your finger on the pulse of change and if you are in the profession, if you are doing kind of workshops and new technologies come online or new ways of developing ideas or resources or whatever it might be if you are maintaining your – then you can bring that to the fore as well and then you can go to your manager and say you know we want to try this bit of kit or – because I’ve found it works outside.’*

The link between a commitment to ongoing learning and meeting the needs of students was also noted by FT Wendy. She linked her own subject updating to meeting the individual needs of just one learner at times:

*‘I’ve got a second-year student who’s – bless her, applied to do an extended project with the sixth form because we are a merged college, so she’s doing this A level equivalent individual project around geisha and Japanese geisha. I’ve no idea about that, but between the two of us - she’s doing research, I’m doing research, we’re coming together, she then goes and talks to her tutor at the sixth form but I don’t think as a teacher – I’ve got no experience of geisha I’ve just got an interest.’*

ST Tessa too considered teachers as learners:

*‘I think [effective teachers] are a student first. I think you’ve got to have a passion for learning and want to learn yourself.’*

The importance of commitment to ongoing learning was also noted by FT Jessie who recognised that some of her highly effective colleagues were ones who had been required to frequently switch between subjects taught:

*‘I suppose, the thing is sometimes we’ve noticed in our institution that some of the A level teachers who you might think would be brilliant, are not. And yet, the ones who are teaching the wide ranging vocational units – in a business vocational course you could be teaching marketing one minute, e-commerce the next, finance the next, those people who are having to constantly up skill are the ones that – who I have seen have had to work really, really hard and become very effective.’*

The need for passion was widespread in interviews with leaders and teachers alike. ST Harry recognised that the word may often be overused but still emphasised the importance of passion in saying:

‘*I think that, that’s really important and I know it’s sort of cliché – the passion needs to be there.’*

14 of the 18 teachers interviewed expressed passion and enthusiasm either within their definition of effective teachers or evidenced the characteristic of passion at some time during the interview. This predominantly involved expression of key words (passion, love) in their discourse or on occasion, the use of similar strong sentiment. For example, FT Danny who had ‘*got the bug’* and ST Harry who ‘*buckled down’* and sought out resources, colleagues and friends to develop his subject area. Of these, 6 considered passion for teaching in their definition, 2 passion for learning and 5 passion for subject. When considering characteristics evidenced by the teacher interviewed, 6 evidenced their passion for teaching, 13 their passion for learning and 9 passion for their subject.

7 of the teachers interviewed expressed passion for teaching, passion for learning and passion for subject as an important teacherly characteristic (FT Danny, FT Sandy, FT Wendy, ST Becky, ST Harry, ST Tessa, ST Carol), These were fairly evenly split between FE and secondary teachers. Of the 4 teachers who did not define or evidence stronger emotion of passion as an important teacherly characteristic, ST Clara expressed lesser emotions of ‘*liking’* or being ‘*willing to learn’* about their subject. In addition, FT Pamela discussed passion in teachers who she supports with their teaching practice: ‘*I do get the passion coming from the vocational* *areas’.* The link to ongoing development was noted by FT Jessie who referred to an ‘attitude to learning’ and FT Jill who commented on her engagement in a wide range of CPD. The findings are summarised in **Table** **6.2** – Aspects of passion emerging from interviews, with a closer focus on the participants’ comments in **Table 6.3.**

Table 6.2: Aspects of Passion Emerging from Interviews – Summary

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Passion for Teaching evidenced** | **Passion for Teaching Defined** | **Passion for Learning Evidenced** | | **Passion for Learning Defined** | **Passion for Subject Evidenced** | **Passion for Subject Defined** |
| 6 Teachers | 6 Teachers | 13 Teachers | | 2 Teachers | 9 Teachers | 5 Teachers |
| **Passion for Teaching Evidenced and Defined** | | **Passion for Learning Evidenced and Defined** | | | **Passion for Subject Evidenced and Defined** | |
| 3 Teachers | | 2 Teachers | | | 2 Teachers | |
| **Passion for teaching** | | **Passion for learning** | | | **Passion for subject** | |
| 9 Teachers | | 13 Teachers | | | 12 Teachers | |
| ***Only* Passion for Teaching** | | ***Only* Passion for Learning** | | | ***Only* Passion for Subject** | |
| 1 Teacher | | No teachers | | | No teachers | |
| **Passion for teaching and learning only** | | | | |  | |
| 2 Teachers | | | | |  | |
|  | | | **Passion for learning and subject** | | | |
|  | | | 5 Teachers | | | |
| **Passion for Teaching, Learning and Subject** | | | | | | |
| 7 Teachers | | | | | | |

Table 6.3: Passion and Enthusiasm Evidenced or Defined by Teachers

| **Passion for teaching** | | | | **Passion and enthusiasm for Learning** | | | | | **Passion for subject** | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Evidenced by Teacher** | | **In Definition** | | **Evidenced by Teacher** | | **In Definition** | | | **Evidenced by Teacher** | | **In Definition** | | | |
| ST Becky | ‘I walked into the classroom I was absolutely passionate about it’ | FT Danny | ‘I think fundamentally you’ve got to have a passion for it’ | FT Danny | ‘Got the bug’ [for learning] | FT Bella | ‘Some teachers … don’t have that passion for learning’ | FT Danny | | ‘I loved the subject and I just wanted to know everything about that’ | ST Becky | | ‘Passionate about the subject that they teach’ | |
| FT Wendy | ‘I loved that kind of leading bit and that teaching bit’ | ST Harry | ‘the passion [for the job] needs to be there’ | ST Becky | I actually spent a lot of time learning | ST Tessa | ‘You’ve got to have a passion for learning and want to learn yourself’. | ST Tammy | | ‘What I love most about the job is that I’m constantly learning about my subject’ | ST Fiachra | | ‘Passion for PE (When talking about recruiting teachers)’ | |
| FT Sandy | [Students] ‘see that enthusiasm in me’ | FT Nola | ‘Has a desire to teach/enjoyment of teaching’ | ST Harry | ‘Weekends and after school, buckling down and learning’ |  | | | FT Tina | ‘Pursuing perfection’ | ST Tammy | | | ‘An enthusiasm, a passion for the subject’ |
| ST Carol | ‘I’m passionate about the idea of pastoral care and like developing pupils as individuals’ | ST Carol | ‘Still having a love of being in the classroom’ | ST Fiachra | ‘Renewed sense of learning’ | FT Wendy | ‘I’ve got a real passion for [travel and tourism] that and I think it’s a real big industry’ | ST Carol | ‘Definitely think you’ve got to have a passion for your subject’ | | |
| ST Tessa | ‘I came to a school that needed at the time passionate, driven teachers and I am’ | FT Sandy | ‘Enthusiasm, commitment and not just commitment to the learning to them, every single learner’ | ST Tammy | ‘What I love most about the job is that I’m constantly learning about my subject, constantly learning about teaching’ | ST Vanda | ‘Oh, yeah, I love medieval English it’s amazing… I loved reading always’ | FT Bella | ‘Engage [learners] with their subject knowledge and enthusiasm at that subject’ | | |
| ST Maeve | ‘I still love working in a school environment’ | ST Tessa | ‘I think you’ve got to have a passion for [students] learning’ | FT Nola | ‘There’s quite a list of things that I’d like to do’ [in relation to learning] | FT Sandy | ‘I love me (*sic*) subject, I really do’ |  | | | |
|  | |  | | FT Tina | Pursuing perfection… |  | | | ST Tessa | ‘So, this was English literature and media, erm, did the first year. Loved it’ |  | | | |
| ‘And I’d desperately love to do a degree’ |
| FT Wendy | ‘Desire to learn’ | ST Carol | ‘I still love learning about history’ |
| ST Vanda | ‘Important that [students] see that we are learners too’ | ST Harry | ‘Buckling down going through tutorials by myself … speaking [range of others] digging knowledge’ |
| FT Bella | ‘I have been a lifelong learner I’ve always wanted to learn’ |  | |
| ST Carol | ‘I still love learning about history’ |
| FT Sandy | ‘Loved learning though, knew I loved learning’ |
| ST Tessa | just really loved studying |

The practical side of passion and enthusiasm also emerged in these interviews. It was ‘*character*’ and ‘*resilience*’ that was recognised by ST Fiachra. For FT Nola, character was represented in terms of ‘*a willingness to work out of hours’* and for FT Sandy it related to views of dedication and commitment. This also crossed over to learner focussed teaching:

‘*Commitment, and not just commitment to the learning to them, every single learner.’*

The need for reflective skills and a willingness and motivation to continually improve was noted by FT Nola who commented that an effective teacher ‘*reflects - aiming to continuously improve practice*’. FT Jill explored this in more detail and stressed the need for an effective teacher to be ‘*reflective in the sense of what worked, what didn’t work and why’.* The justification for this reflective practice comes from ST Beckywho elaborates both on the wider skills required to be reflective, and the benefit for the students:

*‘I also think it’s that ability to take feedback on board and to be really open to constructive criticism and understand that it’s practice that has to be constantly evolving; that you’ve got to have an open door and you know, to be set in your ways I think really hampers pupils’ development and in effect the students underachieve or don’t perform as well as they could do.’*

#### 6.1.2.2 Ability to Motivate and Engage Students

The recognition of passion and enthusiasm in relation to teachers own passion and enthusiasm is not the only representation in the teacher findings. Another finding evidenced strongly with views of both FE and Secondary teachers in relation to definitions of teacher effectiveness is their ability to motivate and engage their own students. The ability to motivate and engage students is a key characteristic within the theme of passion and enthusiasm and is critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.2.1.

For ST Becky, relationships and motivation were intertwined:

*‘If they can’t engage students in that subject and build the relationships to sort of foster that engagement then they are not going to get the impact that they want.’*

ST Harry related also related motivation to relationships and effective communication:

‘*I* *think the main element though is being able to engage the pupils erm, being able to speak to them in a certain manner which will get the best out of them.’*

Just as ST Harry linked communication to outputs, FT Bella considered motivation as a forward driver. She also recognised the need to motivate in relation to the subject being taught, saying an effective teacher should:

‘*Engage them with their subject knowledge and enthusiasm at that subject in order to kind of move them forwards really.’*

For FT Tina, her view of an effective teacher was a textbook definition of motivation, being one who ‘*keeps them interested and motivated’,* however for FT Wendythe passion was evident when she said that an effective teacher should ask themselves the question:

*‘How do you set that classroom on fire when you step into it?’*

#### 6.1.2.3 Unmeasured Outcomes

Unmeasured, rather than measured outcomes, including personal growth, wellbeing, independence and confidence were evidenced in teachers’ definitions of teacher effectiveness. Unmeasured outcomes are critically analysed within the theme of teacher as person in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.1 The most prevalent of these views of unmeasured outcomes was personal growth. FT Sandy considered that ‘*it’s your job to develop them in every aspect’.* ST Tammy related teacher effectiveness to her own practice instilling ‘*confidence and fulfilment and that is something that I really try to do as a teacher’.*  ST Tessa, an English teacher emphasised that results and progress alone could not define a teacher:

*‘It’s not the words particularly. It’s the space that exists in between them and when you are looking at your students. It’s not always the grade that’s on the paper or the one that’s putting hands up or the one that’s buying back into the lesson. It’s all about space in between that you might have to focus on.’*

#### 6.1.2.4 Ability to Form Relationships with Students

The importance of strong relationships and of caring about the students came across strongly through the interviews. The ability to form relationships with students is a key characteristic within the theme of passion and enthusiasm and is critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.2.2. The importance of relationships ranged from seeing the students as individuals to personalising learning and putting the students’ needs above their own. ST Becky, who spoke about the ‘*space between’* in relation to unmeasured outcomes considered that an effective teacher was not only passionate about their subject but, *‘more importantly than that they value the relationships with the students’.* ST Fiachra saw effective teaching through the eyes of the learner and commented that in effective teaching situations ‘y*ou’ve kinda got a relationship with the teacher’.* ST Maeve went further and emphasised the need for ‘*really strong relationships with the students.’* For FT Danny the relationships came down not just to interactions with students but the way in which teachers viewed them, saying it was:

‘*More to do with your relationships with the learners and how you perceive their abilities and then adapt your teaching to suit that.’*

The need for empathy was noted by FT Danny who commented that an effective teacher would ‘*be empathic to the learners and understanding where they are coming from and what they will be best be served by’.* This view was also shared by ST Tammy who commented that *‘I always like to put myself in a role of my students’.* This was also demonstrated by ST Carol who took a GCSE exam alongside the students:

*‘Two years ago, err, I entered myself with the year 11s and did a GCSE in RE. I hadn’t got it, so I sat the exam in the exam hall with them and I got an A star. It was the most nerve-wracking exam experience ever because I was so out of practice of doing exams.’*

The impact of students’ day to day lives on their achievement was recognised by ST Clara who recognised that an effective teacher needed to be aware of wider students’ needs:

*‘You need…to be able to empathise… to understand that… when they are at home and when they leave your classroom there’s a hundred odd other things going on in their lives really, And sometimes your subject area isn’t the most important thing for them and understanding that, being able to kind of work with them to keep them on board.’*

The more practical side of relationships was also considered by teachers interviewed, that of being an effective communicator. FT Bella was clear that an effective teacher was ‘*ultimately for me, it’s somebody who is a great communicator.’* The all-encompassing nature of communication was commented upon by ST Tammy who stated the need for an effective teacher who *’communicates to students on a daily basis.’*

#### 6.1.2.5 Minor Findings

The minor findings in this research are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2 in relation to notions of teacher as person (Stronge, 2007) or praxis (Coe et al., 2014). Measured outcomes and professional skills emerged as very minor findings and are acknowledged here in terms of completeness and transparency. Broad workplace skills were acknowledged in terms of being ‘*organised’* (ST Carol), ‘*adaptable’* (FT Danny) and ‘*able to take orders*‘ (ST Maeve).

Measured outcomes, whilst only emerging as a minor finding, were also evident in leader interviews. For teachers they tended to be wrapped around wider characteristics involving relationships (acknowledged as a key finding). They are documented here as they both cross over into leader interviews and the relationship findings. This was noted by ST Vanda who commented *‘it’s not about [a teacher’s] qualifications but sometimes it’s about the qualifications they can get out of students.’*

Being able to instil self-belief in the students was also noted by ST Tammy who commented that an effective teacher:

‘*is able to …make students believe that they have a capability in the subject which particularly isn’t necessarily their favourite subject but that they develop erm, their own confidence within erm their capabilities within the subject.’*

For STBecky, however, it was openness that was key to ensuring student achievement:

*‘You’ve got to have an open door and you know, to be set in your ways I think, really hampers pupil’s development and in effect the students underachieve or don’t perform as well as they could do.’*

The necessity of students achieving qualifications in order to succeed in life was noted by FT Pamela. She considered effective teaching pragmatically through the need for an effective teacher to ensure students achieve their potential:

*‘Well ultimately, my thing is they’ve got to get a job. So, I mean if they want to work towards that merit and distinction criteria, I push them all to work to the highest level they can and more. And usually if you have that, you know, sort of high expectation that they will achieve that higher.’*

### 6.1.3 Teacher Interviews: What Characteristics are Evidenced by Highly Effective Teachers?

Teachers’ biographies were shared in the interview and comments they made in relation to their professional experience provided insights into their characteristics. The contributions from these teachers are summarised in Table 6.4 below:

*Table 6.4 What Characteristics are Evidenced by Highly Effective Teachers?*

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Finding** | **Evidenced by Teacher** |
| **Passion and Enthusiasm** | (See Tables 6.2 and 6.3 for a detailed analysis of passion and enthusiasm) |
| **Resilience** | ST Becky, FT Bella, ST Carol, ST Harry, FT Jessie, FT Sandy, ST Tammy, ST Tessa, FT Tina |
| **Wider Work** | FT Bella, FT Danny, ST Harry, ST Fiachra, FT Jessie, FT Nola, FT Sandy, ST Tammy, ST Tessa, FT Wendy |

#### 6.1.3.1 Passion and Enthusiasm

Passion emerges as a key theme in this research and the findings in relation to this theme are critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2. Passion and enthusiasm were evidenced in several ways by the teachers interviewed. These comprised passion and enthusiasm for teaching, passion for learning, passion and enthusiasm for their subject, drive and determination, resilience and high self-expectations. Teachers spoke about pushing themselves and being pushed by others to develop professionally and try new things. For example, FT Sandy evidenced pushing herself in terms of new experiences and opportunities as she moved into teaching. ST Harry commented on being pushed into new teaching outside of his comfort zone. He shared how he went about gaining the knowledge required:

*‘Because I had spent quite a lot of time on weekends or after school wherever it may be really sort of buckling down going through tutorials by myself whether it be on YouTube or whatever else or even speaking to other practitioners, going round to my friends who are in other schools but teach very similar subjects, digging knowledge from those as well.’*

This drive is also considered an essential characteristic by ST Tessa who comments:

*‘It just so happened that I came to a school that needed at the time passionate, driven teachers and I am and …so, I do put a lot in, and I’ve gone really far in 4 years.’*

#### 6.1.3.2 Resilience

Resilience emerges as a key characteristic within the theme of passion and enthusiasm in this research. The findings in relation to this characteristic are critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.3. Life challenges that the teachers interviewed had faced in their lives before moving into teaching was an unexpected finding that emerged from the interviews. These life challenges, ranged from parental bereavement, health issues, own negative learning experiences and lack of focus on own learning in their formative years.

ST Becky commented on the positive impact of having to overcome challenges:

*‘But actually, I think that made me a much more effective teacher because I have the experience of going through something and making mistakes and then actually from that making sure that I focused on my studies.’*

FT Jessie and FT Bella both recognised the negative impact of parental bereavement on their own learning:

FT Jessie: *‘I had actually… but I had suffered a bereavement. My mum died when I was 15. I don’t think I was wholly concentrating on studying then, like you wouldn’t.’*

FT Bella: *‘My mum died when I was fairly young so it resulted, it was just as I was about to erm, take my A levels, so it resulted in that not happening and that changed my path quite a lot – well drastically, to be honest, so the route I was hoping to have followed didn’t happen.’*

The negative educational experiences of four of the teachers interviewed (all secondary teachers) were seen as an important aspect of their subsequent effectiveness. ST Harry, who spoke of juggling work and study and considered this limited his academic achievement:

*‘Which, I look back now obviously with hindsight – that may have been the wrong thing to do at the time. When you look back now – the awful thing is you mention to the kids and that, it’s a good platform. Because I’m honest about it and I do say, you know, when I was a little bit younger, I feel that I was a little bit wasted. And I think that is a good way to access err, the pupil, that honesty is a good way.’*

ST Becky and ST Carol both acknowledged the impact of not achieving as well as expected when younger, putting them in a position where they could better relate to students:

‘ST Becky: *‘I think having a period of my schooling where perhaps I didn’t apply myself as well as I should have done, taught me a lot of lessons about resilience and about the importance of studying and committing yourself to studying as well and finding that balance between everything else in your life. And think now that I’ve made mistakes, it’s helpful to – I feel I can talk about that with the students and have an impact on how they – although they never listen! Ha-ha. Sometimes they do’*

ST Carol: *I didn’t get very good A levels, but I use that now to my benefit when I’m talking to students that I don’t want you to be in the same position as me’*

ST Tammy shared a different experience, one in which she had struggled academically and has found it useful in empathising with her students:

*‘I’ve worked with lots of incredibly intelligent people over the years, far more incredible, incredibly intelligent than I will ever be, and I think, sometimes it helps if you’ve struggled with something that you’re not the most intelligent person and that you know the ways to help yourself learn, so for instance I always like to put myself in a role of my students.’*

ST Tessa wanted to overcome negative experiences before entering teaching:

*“So, I worked…and then I decided I was finally confident enough. Cause I’ve always wanted to teach – but I wouldn’t teach until I was in a good place in my life, so I went into teaching much later.*

A characteristic evidenced and commented upon by five of the teachers interviewed was that of high expectations. FT Tina (a dance teacher) put this down to the nature of the subject:

*‘It is such a disciplined art form and learning myself as a student, I’ve then, I’ve kind of been very similar as a teacher...I set myself high expectations’*

Similarly, FT Bella commented:

*‘I’ve worked extremely hard to maintain my own professional ability, you know, and I’ve gone to extreme lengths to make sure, you know.’*

FT Sandy, when referring to her experience as a mature undergraduate student commented that she had ‘*tried [her] absolute hardest’.* It was high expectations that ST Becky mentioned had led her to challenge herself even when faced with easier alternatives during her degree:

*‘I chose to do a very difficult Shakespeare module and some people on my course did some kind of teaching experience that was really easy to achieve’*

High expectations were not only in relation to academic achievement, for ST Tessa it was about being true to herself:

*‘I just thought I can’t possibly stand up and ask people to believe in me and to be teaching them about things like feminism if I’m not executing that myself.’*

All but one of the FE teachers interviewed evidenced characteristics of being a lifelong learner. This was either by explicit mention of their passion for learning or having taught themselves in order to develop their learning. However, the one FE teacher who did not evidence the characteristic, FT Vanda already had a college role supporting the learning of other teachers in the organisation.

Some teachers saw their love of learning an essential part of being an effective teacher, for example ST Tammy:

*‘It’s just constantly learning, and you are constantly learning about pedagogy and I think that is what I love most about the job is that I’m constantly learning about my subject, constantly learning about teaching.’*

ST Carol attributed her love of learning to her effectiveness:

*‘I still love learning about history, and I change the syllabus round all the time just so I can learn something new and do new things, because I think you can’t be… you can easily become stale just throwing the same stuff out all the time.’*

This need for teachers as learners is also shared by ST Vanda who comments upon the need for students to see their own teachers as learners:

*‘I think it’s important that they see that we are learners too and that the value of education isn’t just about getting a qualification.’*

Some teachers also commented on their drive to engage in further qualifications, for example FT Nola, an English teacher, was looking towards studying for a master’s degree:

*‘So there really is a temptation there to go and do the Master’s in Education and possibly something after that. There’s quite a list of things that I’d like to do a qualification in mentoring and coaching, qualification at level 5. I‘d like to do something around mental health needs cause it’s such a growing issue you know in the area and with the cohort that I work with.’*

The origins of the love of learning were visible for some of the teachers through the interview discourse. For example, ST Tammy traces her love of learning back to her experience whilst undertaking her A levels and being forced into a position of self-learning

*‘I’ll always remember there were seven of us and we were forced erm, to do our studies ourselves if you like. Erm, and I think that just not only gave me my love for the subject it also made me quite independent, quite driven and also quite good at going off and finding out theoretical things for myself cause I had to.’*

Similarly, FT Tina considers her training in dance as playing a key role in her strive to continually improve:

*‘I wanted to be good at what I do and I do think that’s something to do with it and I think again, that’s probably come from my dance training, because you are always pursuing perfection aren’t you and you kind of don’t really ever achieve it, I think as a dancer.’*

Several teachers were explicit about their love of learning. FT Bella, recognised herself as a lifelong learner:

*‘I’ve always been somebody who’s always - I have been a lifelong learner. I’ve always wanted to learn things and so I think that was picked up when I kind of came to work here and so I was offered the opportunity and I just grabbed it really I suppose, with both hands.’*

FT Sandy and ST Danny who were much blunter about their absolute need to engage in learning themselves. FT Sandy said, ‘*I don’t care as long as I can learn’* andST Danny: *‘I’d already got the bug.’*

A love of learning was not always present for some of the teachers though and ST Fiachra attributes a period away from work with his renewed desire to explore different aspect of learning:

*‘I was off with anxiety and depression, for 4 months erm and I’ve kinda found a renewed sense of learning, especially with psychology and stuff like that’s why I’m kinda trying to drip that into the PE side as well’.*

Passion for learning can be seen in the discussions in relation to lifelong learning and as a key finding in teachers’ definitions of effective teachers. Passion for subject was also a key finding that was identified as a characteristic of the teachers interviewed both in their discourse and biographical accounts.

The teachers interviewed were forthright about their love of the subject, for example, ST Becky who spoke about her experience as a learner herself:

‘*Yeah. This was a BA, so this was English literature and media, erm, did the first year. Loved it*.’

ST Vanda shares a similar view:

*‘I think, yes in that I talk really passionately about literature and I am incredibly passionate about it. I love all the things that I’ve studied for my degree and I didn’t choose any of my courses, any of the modules or my MA or anything like that with a view to ‘I’m gonna get something out of this that’s gonna lead to a job or something like that. I chose it because I was passionate.’*

Even though ST Carol acknowledges her 2:2 degree, she still shares a love of her subject:

*‘My qualifications aren’t really good but I have a love of the subject still and I hope that I can like erm, you know portray that onto students because I want them to love it as much as I do and see the value of you know history in the wider world.’*

#### 6.1.3.2 Wider Work

The relevance of wider work is critically analysed and thematically presented in relation to notions of teacher as person (Stronge, 2007) or praxis (Coe et al., 2014) in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2. Exploration of the biographies of the teachers interviewed identified that many had experience of wider work. This was especially true of the FE teachers. FT Danny had many and varied jobs before moving into teaching:

*‘I was a self-employed artist and I did a little bit of supply teaching for an agency...I’ve been a narrowboat builder, I’ve been an engineer, I’ve been erm, television aerial / satellite installation engineer, I’ve worked at a tannery, a slaughterhouse. I’ve done so many different things.’*

FT Nola, FT Jessie, FT Wendy and FT Bella, FT Pamela and FT Sandy all worked in industry for varying amounts of time before moving into teaching. However, it was not only the FE teachers who seemed to have benefitted from wider work experience. ST Harry, in addition to experience mentoring students at his old school also worked as a bar manager before moving into teaching. ST Fiachra had experience in a sports coaching role and ST Tammy also had experience in a voluntary capacity at the school in which she now teaches. ST Clara had experience with a retail organisation, both as a sandwich year and throughout her undergraduate degree. ST Tessa considered her work experience had formed the foundation for her teaching. She gained some teaching experience that helped build her to the position she felt she needed to be in in order to be an effective teacher.

### 6.1.4 Teacher Advertisements: What expectations of characteristics are evidenced in teacher job advertisements?

There were four key characteristics (evident in at least 10 of the 40 interviews) that emerged from the advertisements. These were being motivational and having passion and enthusiasm in addition to commitment and resourcefulness. In addition, the general expectation of being an effective teacher was represented through notions of being ‘*outstanding’*, *‘talented* *and skilful ’and* *‘delivering high quality teaching and learning’*, These are shown as combined FE / secondary characteristics in Figure 6.2 and separately in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.2: Essential Characteristics Evident in Advertisements – Combined FE and Secondary

Figure 6.3: Advertisement Analysis - Key Findings - FE and Secondary Comparison

#### 6.1.4.1 Ability to Motivate and Engage Students

The ability to motivate and engage students is a key characteristic within the theme of passion and enthusiasm and is critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.2.1. Motivating, inspiring and enthusing were the key terms used within the motivation category. Table 6.5 highlights the representations of these phrases within the advertisements.

Table 6.5: Synonyms and Related Phrases for Motivating

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Number of Sources** | **Number of FE sources** | **Number of Secondary Sources** |
| **Motivate** | 6 | 2 | 4 |
| **Enthuse** | 3 | 0 | 3 |
| **Inspire** | 7 | 2 | 5 |

#### 6.1.4.2 Passion and Enthusiasm

In addition to the ability to motivate, enthuse and inspire others, the advertisements sought those values within the teachers themselves. Passion emerges as a key theme in this research and the findings in relation to this theme are critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2. The language used in this regard may be viewed through a range of synonyms and associated constructs in Table 6.6. Enthusiasm, Passion and motivation were evident via three dimensions and from 21 of the 40 sources. These were present in terms of overall enthusiasm (3 FE, 8 secondary), being a passionate teacher (3 FE, 3 secondary) and passion about the subject (3 FE, 3 secondary). In addition, the need for a dynamic teacher was evident in 8 sources (2 FE 6 secondary)

The more practical side of passion and enthusiasm, that of commitment, was evidenced in adverts from 12 sources (5 FE, 7 secondary). Just like passion and enthusiasm, commitment was a multi-dimensional theme. It ranged from commitment to high standards (1 secondary), commitment to making a difference (2 secondary), commitment and determination (2 FE, 2 secondary) through to a commitment to updating teaching practice and qualifications (4 FE, 2 secondary). Resourcefulness was sought in 10 of the advertisements and also encompassed notions of innovation and adaptability (4 FE and 6 secondary). A willingness, in terms of engaging in updating and CPD, was split between views of subject and pedagogical updating and fairly evenly split between FE and secondary (3 FE, 2 secondary).

Table 6.6: Synonyms and Related Constructs for Passion

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Number of Sources** | **Number of FE Sources** | **Number of Secondary Sources** |
| **Driven** | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| **Motivated** | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| **Enthusiastic** | 11 | 3 | 8 |
| **Highly motivated** | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| **Passionate** | 10 | 5 | 5 |
| **Committed** | 12 | 5 | 7 |
| **Resourceful** | 10 | 4 | 6 |
| **Dynamic** | 8 | 2 | 6 |
| **Willing** | 5 | 3 | 2 |

#### 6.1.4.3 Highly Effective Teacher

Notions of a highly effective teacher are critically analysed and thematically presented in relation to notions of teacher as person (Stronge, 2007) or praxis (Coe et al., 2014) in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2. 16 sources (8 FE, 8 secondary) mentioned the need for a highly effective teacher through a range of representations. The most stated expectation of teacher quality was expressed in terms of Ofsted terminology. This was the desire for an ‘outstanding’ teacher, which was specified by 9 sources (4 FE, 5 secondary) and one vacancy which sought a ‘*good or outstanding’* teacher. Whereas two sources expressed wanting a ‘*talented teacher’*, other views expressed by single sources including ‘*skilful’, ‘model of excellent practice’* and *‘delivery of quality programs’*. For one source, less of a superlative was evident with them seeking an ‘*effective teacher’.*

#### 6.1.4.4 Positive Relationships with Students

The ability to form relationships with students is a key characteristic within the theme of passion and enthusiasm and are critically analysed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.2.2. Relationships were evidenced in advertisements in terms of both softer interpersonal skills and having strong communications skills. They were evident overall in 12 advertisements (6 FE, 6 secondary), with strong communication skills evidenced in 6 sources (4 FE, 2 secondary) and a requirement for softer interpersonal skills including forming positive relationships evidenced in 7 sources (3 FE, 4 secondary).

#### 6.1.4.5 Minor Findings

The minor findings in this research are critically analysed and thematically presented in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2 in relation to notions of teacher as person (Stronge, 2007) or praxis (Coe et al., 2014). Minor findings were considered to be those that were evidenced by between 5 and 9 sources. These varied between the outcome driven expectations in terms of learner achievement (evidenced by 9 sources, 5 FE, 4 secondary), being a team player (6 sources, 3 FE, 3 Secondary) and the need for industry experience (6 FE).

Figure 6.4: Minor Findings Evidenced in Teacher Vacancies

The remaining minor findings were sought by a total of five sources each. High expectations encompassed the requirement in adverts that teachers had belief in the students and that all could achieve well or excel. For one of these sources, the expectation was a little muted, and was restricted to ‘*the best of their ability’*. All these sources were in secondary schools. The need for teaching experience was specified by predominantly FE sources (4 FE, 1 secondary). Figure 6.5 presents the distribution of minor findings across FE and secondary for comparison.

Figure 6.5: Minor Findings Evidenced in Teacher Vacancies – FE and Secondary Comparison

## 6.2 Conclusion

This chapter has stated the findings in relation to representations of teacher characteristics through the lens of educational stakeholders. It commenced with educational leader interviews, followed by teacher interviews. It concluded with the findings resulting from examination of teacher job advertisements. Key findings were of the importance of passion and enthusiasm, the ability to motivate and engage students and the importance of forming positive relationships.

The following chapter (Chapter 7) will draw upon and critically analyse and thematically present the findings of this chapter and those of Chapter 5. It will analyse themes and introduce the contribution to knowledge. It will do so in relation to the overarching research questions, associated theoretical frameworks and extant literature. It will commence with consideration of the relevance of teacher qualifications and will conclude with consideration of characteristics in the holistic view of the teacher. It will therefore explore key characteristics for effective teaching and ascertain whether they relate to subject qualifications or something else.

# Chapter 7: Discussion and Analysis

The two previous chapters (Chapters 5 and 6) stated the findings in relation to representations of teacher subject qualifications and characteristics. This chapter draws upon and analyses these findings in relation to the overarching research questions (Chapter 1 – Section 1.1.1), associated theoretical frameworks (Chapter 2), policy context (Chapter 3) and extant literature (appendix A). In doing so, it explores key characteristics for effective teaching to ascertain whether they relate to subject qualifications or something else.

This chapter analyses themes and introduces the contribution to knowledge. It commences with consideration of the relevance of teacher subject qualifications and concludes with consideration of characteristics in the holistic view of the teacher.

## 7.1 The Relevance of Teacher Subject Qualifications

Figure 7.1: Research Questions Relating to Teacher Subject Qualifications



This research explored the relevance of teacher subject qualifications and teacher characteristics for effective teaching through an exploration of stakeholders’ perspectives. It did this through interviews with educational leaders and highly effective teachers (as defined in Chapter 1 – Section 1.1.2) and examination of teacher job advertisements. This section analyses the themes that emerged via these lenses in relation to the extent to which subject qualifications are a key characteristic for effective teaching. In doing so, it addresses Research Questions RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3.

### 7.1.1 Key characteristics of teacher effectiveness as they emerged from the literature, the data, and the critical evaluation of both

This section will provide a critical evaluation of the role of educational leaders and their participation in the research. It will explore the relevance of any potential for bias due to their perceptions, values and beliefs. This will aid in ensuring confidence that will underpin their role in identifying the most effective teachers in their organisation and providing their own definitions of highly effective teaching.

The potential relevance of values and beliefs on human behaviour is acknowledged by Bilton, Bonnet, Jones, Lawson, Skinner, Stanworth and Webster (2002). Similarly, Brown (2010) notes the need to examine educational leaders’ beliefs in order to better understand their decisions. Therefore, given such an association, an interpretivist exploration as undertaken herein, which seeks to understand the ‘subjective world of human experience’ (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018, P19) (See Chapter 4 – Section 4.1.2) has the potential to provide findings that are underpinned by a leader’s wider values and beliefs, rather than professional experience. This is particularly pertinent to leaders and their dual role in the research. Therefore, a 3-lens approach was utilised for this research (Chapter 4 – Section 4.4). This explored the views of leaders, teachers and evidenced in teacher job advertisements and in doing so, provided triangulation which enabled any individual subjectivities to stand out, rather than be subsumed within the findings (see Section 7.1.2.4 of this chapter). Subjectivities were, however, an exception, suggesting predominantly collective values and beliefs at the macro level formed by professional experience. This corresponds to the recognition by Spence that employers’ professional experience with employees allowed them to form ‘*conditional probability assessments over productive capacity given various combinations of signals and indices’* (1973, p357) (see Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4).

The potential impact of leaders’ individual values and beliefs corresponds to initial concerns in relation to the validity of the use of leaders in identifying the most effective teachers (Chapter 4 – Section 4.4). These concerns aligned with those suggested by Goe, Bell and Little (2008) who suggest that there is mixed evidence on the validity of evaluations as they occur in schools. However, Goe, Bell and Little (2008) further acknowledge that principal evaluation ‘*can represent a useful perspective based on principals’ knowledge of school and context’.* It was leaders’ knowledge of the school, context and prior experience in relation to teacher evaluation that was ascertained at the start of the interviews. Furthermore, acceptance of the leaders’ perceptions in relation to teacher effectiveness acknowledges their own professional organisation role and experience. They were selected based upon their role, not only in recruiting teachers, but in teacher evaluation. This recognition of the credibility of their role in being able to identify and refer the most effective teachers is supported by Harris and Sass (2009) and Jacob and Lefgren (2008) in which principals’ subjective ratings were correlated with student outcomes. It is also supported by the widespread use of principal evaluation by Bardach and Klassen (2020) in ascertaining teacher effectiveness. Building on leaders’ professional role and experience, therefore helped to limit subjectivity in referral of their highly effective teachers.

Given that the credibility of the leaders is supported through a correlation with student outcomes (Sass, 2009; Jacob and Lefgren, 2008), a contrast with the ontological stance underpinning the research emerged. The stance noted in Chapter 4 – Section 4.1.1, that great teaching relates to more than just outcomes led to an initial consideration of an ontological compromise. This would have required the acceptance of a dominance of learner outcomes underpinning the referral of highly effective teachers by leaders. However, this compromise was not wholly necessary and is ameliorated to a certain extent by the findings of Rockoff and Speroni (2010). They consider subjective evaluations of experienced educators in relation to new teacher effectiveness and find that subjective evaluations may also capture unmeasured outcomes. This, therefore, corresponds with the ontological position, that effective teaching is not solely based on student outcomes.

It is the views and perceptions of the leaders interviewed that inform the findings of Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 that will be analysed in this section (Section 7.1) and in Section 7.2 of this Chapter.

### 7.1.2 Qualifications – A Signal or a Proxy?

Spence’s (1973) signalling model suggests that qualifications signal to an employer the potential effectiveness of the applicant. However, the recognition by the DfE (2016) of qualifications forming a proxy of knowledge also formed a key part in shaping the findings of this research. Whereas, according to Spence (1973), a signal will convey information about the effectiveness of an applicant, a qualification as a proxy of knowledge will represent the knowledge required to teach a subject.

Teachers assigned varying relevance to their qualifications ranging from level 2 to postgraduate level. Overall, they did not consider qualifications to be a signal of their effectiveness, though for some qualifications, considered them to represent a partial proxy of required knowledge. Similarly, analysis of leader interviews found that qualifications did not form a unique signal of effectiveness, but rather a partial proxy of knowledge. Whilst qualifications formed one aspect of the overall view of potential teacher effectiveness, leaders adopted a two-dimensional approach to teacher recruitment. In doing so, they predominantly viewed qualifications, particularly degree classification, holistically, rather than judging them to be sole signal of teacher effectiveness (see Section 7.2). Furthermore, whilst there was some expectation of a degree in teacher advertisements, suggesting a proxy of knowledge, this was not widespread and there was limited evidence of the importance of ‘good’ degrees. This research finds that higher-level achievement in qualifications, despite being sought through the representation of national policy, only form a partial proxy of knowledge and partial signal of effectiveness at a local level. The suggestion, therefore, that qualifications have a unique signalling effect (Spence, 1973; Di Pietro, 2017) is an oversimplification. The findings of this research therefore support those of Slater, Davies and Burgess (2012) who undertook cross subject UK research into teacher characteristics and effectiveness. In their research examining teachers’ degree classification, subject and education, they found that ‘*observed teachers’ characteristics explain very little of the differences in estimated teacher effectiveness’* (Slater, Davies and Burgess, 2012, p629).

The recognition of qualifications not forming a unique signal and representing a partial proxy of knowledge in this research suggest that educational leaders are aware of the ‘noisy signals’ in teacher recruitment (Staiger and Rockoff, 2007, p97). Given this, they utilise their own professional knowledge and experience to make more informed decisions. The use of observation of taught lessons and in tray / skills tasks utilised by leaders in their recruitment processes (Chapter 5 – Section 5.1.2) therefore provide leaders with a way of seeing through the noise. This also aligns with Jacob, et al. who found that in Washington public schools that other ‘*screening measures’* (2016, p3)played a key part in determining potential teacher effectiveness. In this research, educational leaders too had recognised that employing teachers based on characteristics such as key qualifications was *‘likely to yield few benefits’* (Jacob et al., 2016, p2) and utilised additional methods of ascertaining knowledge and potential effectiveness This enabled them to view not only aspects of teacher as person (Stronge, 2007) but teacher as praxis which is particularly evident in Coe et al.’s components of great teaching (Coe et al., 2014) (see section 7.2.1 – Teacher as Person or Praxis?)

#### 7.1.2.1 Level 2 Qualifications

Level 2 or GCSE qualifications were not seen as a proxy of the knowledge required to teach or as a signal of effectiveness to educational leaders. This was further supported by the lack of a requirement for subject specialist level 2 qualifications in teacher advertisements. Teachers did not see their level 2 qualifications as a signal of effectiveness, though several saw them as a proxy of knowledge of core content and as a foundation for their own future learning.

The focus for leaders, in their recruitment processes, and also in teacher job advertisements was on subject specialist qualifications higher than level 2 / GCSE (see Chapter 5 – Section 5.1). This is in keeping with policy expectations in both FE and secondary education. However, despite the lack of focus on level 2 / GCSE qualifications by leaders, all the teachers interviewed, whether FE or secondary had achieved 5 GCSEs or equivalent - the expected standard of all school leavers (DfE, 2019). Beyond the attainment of 5 GCSEs, though, the GCSE results of teachers varied, with some teachers evidencing particularly strong grades and others not. This contrasts strongly with policy rhetoric and expectation of the need for teachers with the ‘best’ qualifications (see for example DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011; DfE, 2016a; Foster, 2018; Teach First, 2018 and Chapter 3 – Section 3.1). Whilst leaders did not particularly recognise the relevance of level 2 qualifications, this was contrasted by several of the teachers, both in FE and secondary education who recognised the content as relevant to their teaching. Those teachers who saw their level 2 or GCSE qualification as important (see Chapter 5) predominantly did so due to the relevance of their content for their own students (who were studying at this level) or as forming a foundation for further learning. Here the focus was on the content of the qualification being relevant to the content required to teach and providing a basic skill set rather than being a signal of their effectiveness. This level 2 / GCSE knowledge is recognised by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA, 2020, np) as demonstrating ‘*the ability to gain a good knowledge and understanding of a subject area of work or study, and to perform varied tasks with some guidance or supervision.’* It corresponds to the substantive knowledge base, being ‘*the substance of a discipline, the facts and concepts of a subject’* (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p14) (see Table 7.1 for the mapping of the findings of this research to relevant knowledge bases).

This contrast in views between leaders and some teachers evidences teachers’ awareness of the previously learned knowledge and skills on the ground that are used on a day-to-day basis with their students. For the teachers who considered their level 2 / GCSE qualifications important, they therefore consider these qualifications as a proxy of the basic knowledge that they are required to teach. However, whilst some of these teachers had achieved top grades in their subject specialism, others had achieved pass grades, suggesting that the results of level 2 qualifications were not a signal of effectiveness.

#### 7.1.2.2 Level 3 Qualifications

Level 3 qualifications were recognised by some educational leaders, particularly in the absence of higher-level qualifications, as a partial proxy of knowledge. For FE leaders, alongside vocational experience, there was a greater focus. This is supported by expectations of level 3 qualifications in some FE teacher job advertisements. It also aligns with the Level 3 qualification forming the de facto gatekeeper to the FE teaching profession. This may reflect the recognition that FE teachers may not have teaching qualifications at entry to the profession. Given this, the initial gatekeeper becomes the educational leader rather than a teacher training provider. This expectation of a level 3 qualification, to FE leaders, therefore, represents both a proxy of knowledge and forms a gatekeeper qualification.

When viewed through the teacher lens, the results of qualifications at level 3 did not appear to be a signal of effectiveness. However, many teachers viewed the content of level 3 subject qualifications relevant to their teaching (see Chapter 5 – Section 5.2.2). This suggests that level 3 qualifications represent a proxy of subject knowledge required to teach. What also emerged from the interviews was that teachers found that a qualification at level 3 and above provides both subject knowledge and wider skills. These wider skills are explored in Section 7.1.3 and Section 7.2 of this chapter.

This recognition, of the relevance of a level 3 qualification by many teachers in part corresponds with Cara and de Coulon’s (2008) findings of better progress for UK Skills for Life Maths students when their teachers had at a maths qualification at level 3. However, it does not consider any wider subject or sector variances that are explored in this research. Unfortunately, the dearth of UK research into qualifications at level 3 and teacher effectiveness presents limited opportunity to make robust comparison. Initial thoughts regarding the reason for this could be attributed to Solvason and Elliott’s (2013) recognition of FE being an under-researched area. However, more recently, The Society for Education and Training (SET, 2019) note the growth of interest in FE research, with Gary Husband, President of the Association for Research in Post Compulsory Education noting that ‘*there is indeed a good body of empirical work on FE and there is no shortage of reference* (ibid). In contrast, however intimations of the difference in the body of research between FE and the schools’ sector can be found in Ofsted’s Educational Effectiveness Research and Further Education and Skills Report (Ofsted, 2019b). In this report they refer to a previous overview of research to support the new Education and Inspection Framework. They clarify elements that are particularly relevant to FE, seemingly in recognition of the lack of focus on FE in their earlier report. These views present a slightly contradictory message that while FE is more increasingly researched, the parity in research between the schools’ and FE sector is still not evident.

There may be another reason for the lack of research into teacher subject qualifications at level 3 and teacher effectiveness. Chapter 2 – Section 3.2 affirmed the de facto expectation of ITE providers being a level 3 qualification (or equivalent experience) in a teacher’s subject specialist area (AOC, 2020). However, the underlying policy, which holds to this day requires only FE teachers who were teaching maths, English or ESOL to possess a minimum of a level 3 qualification (LSIS, 2013). This association, between the requirement for teachers to hold a level 3 qualifications in specific areas, corresponds to research by Cara and De Coulon (2008). This is a key report forming the limited body of knowledge in this area that relates to Skills for Life mathematics teachers. The lack of research into these qualifications appears, therefore, to correspond to the lack of policy interest. This is maintained in a review into teaching, leadership and governance in FE (DfE, 2018f). Whilst qualifications form a key aspect of the report, the qualifications in question are teaching rather than subject qualifications. Subject knowledge is considered; however, it is the development of the subject knowledge rather than subject qualifications that is addressed. Development of subject knowledge is explored further in Section 7.2.2 of this chapter.

Consideration of comparable international qualifications and scores can provide insight into the findings of this research. For example, Jacob, Rockoff, Taylor, Lindy and Rosen (2016) found that SAT[[8]](#footnote-9) scores (which are a close equivalence to UK level 3 qualifications) were significantly positively related to teacher effectiveness. Similarly, evidence from Ireland (Corcoran and O’Flaherty, 2018) found that school leaver certification results had a positive effect on secondary teacher effectiveness. The research by Corcoran and O’Flaherty (2018) was undertaken through the singular lens of teacher evaluation in school. Whereas research undertaken by Jacob et al. (2016) in the USA utilized multiple lenses which included principal evaluation, classroom observation and student outcomes. In this research, the importance of subject qualifications was also viewed through the lens of teachers themselves, a lens not explored in the extant literature. This allowed the relevance of the level 3 qualification through the teacher lens to emerge. However, the focus in this research was on the presence of the qualification, rather than the result. Those teachers who considered the content matched the content that they were required to teach, did not mention the relevance of the result of their own qualification. This builds upon Cara and de Coulon’s (2009) previously noted recognition that having a level 3 qualification in maths led to increased progress in students. In neither the policy expectation (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.3) or Cara and de Coulon’s (ibid) research was the result or grade of the level 3 qualification specified. This suggests that these were not influencing factors. Similarly, in this research through interviews with most leaders it was the *presence* of the level 3 qualifications, rather than the grade that was important.

In contrast to the findings of Jacob et al. (2016) and Corcoran and O’Flaherty (2018), the results of the level 3 qualifications of the highly effective teachers interviewed in this research were varied. Similarly, examination of the level 3 results of teachers for whom the content of their level 3 qualifications was important varied from achieving Ds and Es at A level through to As and Bs (see Chapter 5 – Section 5.2.2). The same was true for teachers with vocational qualifications which ranged from pass to distinction or equivalent. This supports the wider recognition by leaders in this research that the qualifications, rather than the result formed a partial proxy of knowledge rather than a specific signal of effectiveness. In making this assertion, the passage of time must be acknowledged in relation to teachers’ views. All the teachers interviewed had been teaching for at least two years and many for considerably longer. Consequently, at least six years could have passed between teachers (who held degrees) achieving their level 3 qualification and being interviewed for this research. Given this, the result of a qualification achieved at typically 18 years old may not give the most accurate insight into a person’s future knowledge acquisition or overall effectiveness.

The contrast in the findings of this research and the relevance of level 3 or equivalent qualifications between those of Jacob et al. (2016) and Corcoran and O’Flaherty (2018) may be a consequence of gatekeeper influence or due to different education systems. It is possible that that the selectivity of access to teacher training means that lower end qualification results are filtered out before teachers enter the profession. This would reduce the need for leaders to place too great an emphasis on the qualification results. This is more likely for FE teachers due to the Level 3 forming a de facto gatekeeper qualification than for secondary teachers, for whom, in terms of qualifications, the degree forms the gatekeeper qualification (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.2). Beyond this however consideration must be given to the focus of level 3 qualification. In the UK, 18 is the typical age at which level 3 qualifications are taken. Whereas UK students specialise in a limited number of subjects for this late stage of their secondary or further education, a more generalist approach with wider subject choices is taken in the USA and Ireland. This therefore limits any comparison between the two countries. Additionally, the research of Corcoran and O’Flaherty (2018) and Jacob et al. (2016) though recent, are not wholly representative of findings in the area. For example, comparable positivist research utilising SAT or equivalent results and observer ratings by Blue et al. (2002), Byrnes et al. (2013) and Corcoran and Tormey (2013) found non-significant positive and also non-significant negative effects of teacher SAT results and effectiveness (Bardach and Klassen, 2020).

Comparison with the positivist research into teacher qualifications does limit the extent to which comparisons may be made with the interpretivist research undertaken herein. However, in doing so, it enables suggestions for underlying factors to emerge and allows the interpretivist stance to provide a methodological contribution to knowledge. Jacob et al (2016) found a positive relationship between SAT scores and effectiveness. However, this contrasted with their findings through engagement with principals, of low weightings applied to qualifications in recruitment processes. This differential of viewing through alternate positivist and interpretivist lenses may provide a reason for this contradiction. Similarly, this corresponds with earlier research undertaken by Staiger and Rockoff (2007, p97) and further suggests that educational leaders are aware of the ‘noisy signals’ in teacher recruitment. In recognising this, for leaders, their focus was on the holistic view of the teacher. This is explored further in Section 7.2 of this chapter in relation to the desirable teacher characteristics.

There are suggestions from this research (see Chapter 5 – Sections 5.1.2.1 and also 5.3.2) that the content of subject qualifications at level 3 is more important to stakeholders at the school level than policy would indicate. This contradicts wider degree focussed secondary teacher recruitment policy and interest (DfEE, 1998a) in relation to teacher subject specialist qualifications. More specifically, the DfE (2016), in their review of specialist and non-specialist teaching considered a teacher to be a subject specialist with a post level 3 qualification.

In being a proxy of knowledge, the relevance and specificities of that knowledge can be viewed in relation to Turner-Bisset's (1999) and Shulman’s (1987) knowledge bases. There is no clear recognition of an academic demarcation in relation to the type and level of knowledge gained at level 3 and Turner Bisset’s (1999) notions of substantive and syntactic knowledge (see Chapter Two – Section 2.1.3). Indeed, Turner-Bisset notes that *‘It is quite possible to study a subject to degree level without becoming fully aware of the substantive structures of a subject’* (2001, p27) However, the awareness of knowledge can be seen to be different from the possession of that knowledge. Given this, some insight can be gained from examination of relevant curriculum documentation. The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA, 2020) confirm that the focus of level 3 qualifications is on gaining and applying knowledge. This suggests that level 3 qualifications have more in common with substantive knowledge, ‘*the substance of a discipline, the facts and concepts of a subject’* (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p14). This application of knowledge to teaching practice goes beyond leader notions of ‘knowing the subject’ (see Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.1.3). However, the assumption of application by a teacher may be embedded within this phrase. In acknowledging these findings some insight into the contradiction between the research findings and noted policy can be considered. This is most likely to be a consequence of the closeness of the substantive knowledge to curriculum knowledge (Shulman, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 1999), with higher-level syntactic knowledge more prevalent in post level 3 qualifications. Therefore, whilst secondary teaching is a graduate profession with an assumption of a degree on entry, the content of level 3 qualifications has a key bearing on curriculum knowledge. Table 7.1 provides a summary of the representation of Shulman’s (1987) Turner-Bisset’s (1999) knowledge bases in the research.

The focus on less than degree level knowledge is also evidenced in Subject Knowledge Enhancement (SKE) courses. SKE courses have a focus on teaching relevant key stage, rather than degree level content to teacher applicants[[9]](#footnote-10). They are aimed at those who may have a level 3 qualification in the subject area but not a sufficiently focussed degree. The contradiction here against wider degree policy is in the SKE delivering curriculum focussed knowledge rather than degree level knowledge. Given this, the approach taken in the design of the SKE courses may be based upon utilising the level 3 qualification, as a signal of potential ability in the subject area, rather than as a proxy of knowledge. Here the degree in a general area does not act as a proxy, but as the gatekeeper qualification.

A commonality in relevance of level 3 content did emerge from both FE and secondary teachers. The noted relevance by FE and secondary teachers further suggests a content match between level 3 qualifications and the level of content taught. Rather than schoolteachers only teaching up to level 2 or GCSE level, all but one of those interviewed taught up to A Level (level 3) and all FE teachers taught to level 3. The policy rhetoric for subject qualifications in the two sectors is markedly different in terms of subject qualifications (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.2 and 3.3). However, this finding suggests that they are closer in terms of the subject knowledge required to teach. This commonality acknowledges the blurring of boundaries between FE and secondary and academic and vocational teaching noted in the Wolf report (Wolf, 2014) and discussed in Chapter 3 – Section 3.3). In doing so, it more closely corresponds to the policy expectations for FE teachers which recognises the use of a level 3 qualification, rather than a degree, as a de facto gatekeeper to the FE teaching profession (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.3). This gatekeeper level is also acknowledged in the data with more than 95% of FE teachers possessing qualifications in their specialist area at level 3 or above (ETF, 2017). This does not, however mean that FE teachers are only qualified to this level. 73% of FE teachers are qualified at post level 3 or above in their subject specialist area (ETF, 2017) compared to 89% of teachers in secondary schools having this level of qualification in their subject area (DfE, 2016).

Table 7.1: Representation of Knowledge Bases in the Research

| **Knowledge Base**(**Turner-Bisset, 1999)** | **Corresponding Knowledge Base  (Shulman, 1987)** | **Represented in Subject Qualifications?** | **Relevance to Subject Qualification Findings?** | **Relevance to Characteristic Findings****(Section 7.2)** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Substantive subject knowledge** | **Content knowledge** | By lower-level qualifications (L2-L3) | Matching of qualification content to teaching | Passion for learning and subject |
| **Syntactic subject knowledge** | **Content knowledge** | By increasingly higher-level qualifications (Above L3) | Matching of qualification content to teachingRelevance of knowledgeIntellect a disadvantage | Passion for learning and subject |
| **Beliefs about the subject** | **No equivalent** | Based on engagement with subject (Turner-Bisset, 2001) | Wider skills and experiences gained through qualifications | Passion for learning and subject Motivating Students |
| **Curriculum knowledge** | **Curriculum knowledge** | L2 and L3 qualifications may contribute to curriculum knowledge | Matching of qualification content to teaching | Passion for learning and subject |
| **General pedagogical knowledge** | **General pedagogical knowledge** | May be gained by teachers own educational experiences (Turner-Bisset, 2001) | x | Passion for teaching Motivating students |
| **Knowledge/models of teaching** | **General Pedagogical Knowledge** | May be gained by teachers own educational experiences (Turner-Bisset, 2001) | x | Passion for teaching Motivating students |
| **Knowledge of learners: cognitive** | **Knowledge of learners and their characteristics** | x | x | Ability to form relationships |
| **Knowledge Base****(Turner-Bisset, 1999)** | **Corresponding Knowledge Base  (Shulman, 1987)** | **How Represented in Subject Qualifications** | **Evidenced in subject qualification findings?** | **Evidenced in characteristic findings?****(Section 7.2)** |
| **Knowledge of learners: empirical (social)** | **Knowledge of learners and their characteristics** | x | x | Ability to form relationships |
| **Knowledge of self** | **No equivalent** | May be gained through engagement with learning experiences - reflective skills (Turner-Bisset, 2001) | Wider skills and experiences gained through qualificationsIntellect a disadvantage | Passion for learning |
| **Knowledge of educational contexts** | **Knowledge of educational contexts** | May be gained through teachers’ learning experiences in varying contexts - Macro and micro contexts (Turner-Bisset, 2001) | Wider skills and experiences gained through qualifications | Passion for learning |
| **Knowledge of educational ends, purpose and values** | **Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds** | May be gained through engagement with learning experiences - reflective skills (Turner-Bisset, 2001) | Wider skills and experiences gained through qualifications | Passion for teaching and learning |
| **Pedagogical Content Knowledge (As overarching theme)** | **Pedagogical Content Knowledge** | May be gained by teachers’ own educational experiences | Wider skills and experiences gained through qualifications | Passion for teaching, learning and subject |

#### 7.1.2.3 Degree level qualifications

The holistic view of the teacher will be explored in Section 7.2 of this chapter. However, in addition to this, educational leader expectations supported the notion of a degree in some subjects as a partial proxy of knowledge and partial signal of effectiveness (Spence, 1973). For teachers, the view of a degree as a proxy of knowledge to teach or as a signal of effectiveness was evident to a lesser extent than level 3 qualifications and for half of the teachers interviewed.

In just under half of the job advertisements examined, there was an essential requirement for the applicant to have a degree with results split fairly evenly between secondary and FE vacancies. This contradicted the expectation of only secondary teaching being a graduate profession (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.2). This may however represent not an apathy towards a degree level qualification but be a consequence of an assumption of a degree due to it forming a gatekeeper qualification to secondary teaching. This same commonality continued in leader interviews. There was not a specific focus on the results of qualifications through any stakeholder view. However, there was a recognition by two FE leaders alongside their holistic view of a teacher (see Section 7.2), that having a degree was important for academic subjects. This supports the notion of a degree as a partial proxy of knowledge in addition to forming a partial signal of effectiveness (Spence, 1973). Additionally, it seems to recognise post incorporation diversification in FE colleges beyond purely technical and vocational education in levels and types of qualifications offered (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.3). This acknowledgement of commonality between secondary and FE teacher qualifications in the sample interviewed contradicts the expectation of a level 3 qualification, rather than a degree as a de facto gatekeeper to the FE teaching profession (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.3). The most recent national data in relation to this notes one third of FE teachers having degree level qualifications with the proportion remaining stable for several years (Frontier Economics, 2017). Initial thoughts of the reasoning behind this might acknowledge the importance attached by FE leaders for the possession of a degree in an academic subject. However, examination of teacher advertisements finds that the subjects for which a degree was specified were varied and as diverse as Tourism and Acting. For the sample utilised however, no pattern was evident in the teacher job advertisements examined in relation to the subjects for which degrees were considered essential (see Chapter 5 –Section 5.1.1). This can be compared with the findings of this research, in which two thirds of highly effective FE teachers interviewed (twice the proportion in the wider population) held degrees. In doing so, this seems to add support to the notion of the degree in some subjects as a partial proxy of knowledge and alongside the holistic view, a partial signal of effectiveness (Spence, 1973).

The findings of this research suggest that the key to teacher effectiveness may not be viewed as simplistically as a specific degree being key for teaching a specific subject. Rather they suggest that other factors may have relevance (see Section 7.2). The relevance, prevalence or absence of degrees in certain subject areas can also be considered in light of the qualifications of FE teachers interviewed for this research. Of the teachers who did not hold degrees, two of the three may be classed predominantly as non-academic, if not vocational (Dance and Beauty). The remaining FE teacher without a degree taught education in the form of teacher training courses and held a level 5 Certificate in Education teacher training qualification. This may be viewed as a combined vocational and academic subject area. However, it would be erroneous to assume this is evidence of the academic - vocational divide that is prevalent and addressed in the extant literature and policy (see Appendix A - Literature Review and Chapter 3 - Section 3.3). This research found that some of the highly effective vocational FE teachers interviewed held degrees which challenged this vocational and academic binary (see Chapter 5 – Section 5.1.1). This builds on the previously noted blurring of educational sectors as academic or vocational. For example, FT Danny, an Art teacher with a degree and teachers of similar creative or artisanal subjects do not fit neatly into either category. The unanswered question here relates to how to, or even whether to, categorise areas covering subjects as diverse as plumbing and fine art as vocational. Given this, I propose that consideration of defining the two sectors does not continue on such binary lines. This allows the suggestion of an ‘artisanal’ education category which more suitably fits arts-based subjects and acknowledges that both sectors offer academic, vocational and artisanal education.

This research found that fewer teachers considered their degrees relevant to the subject that they taught than they did their level 3 qualifications. Half of the teachers interviewed thought that their degree content matched the subject that they taught partially or well. For these teachers, their qualification provided a proxy of knowledge. At degree level, this suggests for these teachers there is a fit between the degree content and Shulman’s (1987) content knowledge. As noted earlier in this section, level 3 qualifications correspond more closely to substantive knowledge. However, degree level qualifications (at level 6), correspond more closely to Turner-Bisset’s notion of syntactic knowledge, being ‘*the ways and means by which the propositional knowledge has been generated and established’* (2001, p14). See Table 7.1 for a summary of the representation of knowledge bases in the findings of the research. At level 6 there is a requirement, beyond the facts and content of a subject. This extends to ‘*a specialist high-level knowledge of an area of work or study to enable the use of an individual’s own ideas and research in response to complex problems and situations’* (QAA, 2020, np*).* Just as most Humanities teachers interviewed considered their level 3 qualification matched the subject knowledge required to teach, they also considered the same to be true for their degree. For example, ST Maeve recognised the stable nature of the curriculum from level 2 upwards, and ST Becky considered the ‘*terminology, the structuring’* and an overlap between courses taught and those previously studied. There is the suggestion here, that for some humanities teachers, more than teachers of other subjects, at increasing academic levels, the relevance of the content remains. Recognition of this humanities specific phenomenon may be viewed in terms of the curriculum element of Turner-Bisset’s (1999) model. This finds that, with a more stable curriculum, the relevance remained not only in terms of substantive and syntactic knowledge, but it also contributed to knowledge of the curriculum required to teach (see Table 7.1). This humanities centric notion of stable content over time that transcends levels contrasts the views of two of the teachers who did not consider the content of their qualification relevant. Their views were that the dynamic nature of their subjects (PE and Tourism) led to the irrelevance of the content. The relevance of qualifications may therefore be subject dependent and, consequently, the knowledge required for effective teaching, when not met by qualifications, must be gained elsewhere. This is explored in section 7.2.2 of this chapter.

In considering subject specific variances in the research, it must be acknowledged that not all subject specialisms were represented in the sample of teachers interviewed. Vocational trade teachers of subjects such as construction were not involved in the research. Therefore, this left an aspect of FE teaching, one that may have yielded different results, unexplored. Consequently, despite acknowledgement of commonality in many areas between FE and secondary, subject specific dissonances in relation to perceptions of subject qualifications are still anticipated to exist. Additionally, some subject areas such as humanities subjects evidenced greater representation than others and other subject areas had only singular representation. For example, there was only one science teacher interviewed in this research, FT Jill who taught Biology and had a broad science degree in biomedical sciences. Whilst she considered that this gave her a breadth of knowledge, she also considered that she learnt more about her subject as she went along. This may be attributed the fact that she did not have a level 3 in biology and had only achieved an E in her level 3 Chemistry (A level) qualification. This lack of knowledge required to teach may be due, not to the irrelevance of her degree, but the lack of a subject specific level 3 qualification. FT Jill’s possession of a science degree and being a highly effective teacher aligns with the findings of Goldhaber (1996) of the positive impact of a science degree. However, the interpretivist nature of this research, in probing into the views and experiences of teachers, allows insight into FT Jill’s qualifications in a way that is not possible through positivist research. In doing so, Jill’s view of the relevance of her degree in providing breadth of subject knowledge but also being insufficient for teaching both confirms and contradicts Goldhaber’s (1996) findings. It also acknowledges, alongside teachers for whom their qualification did not provide sufficient knowledge to teach, a wider construct underpinning their subject knowledge. The suggestion of passion and enthusiasm as this construct is explored in section 7.2.2 of this chapter.

#### 7.1.2.4 Degree classification

Unlike possession of a degree, a qualification in the form of a good degree, was not seen to be a signal of effectiveness to most leaders and teachers and was evident in few teacher job advertisements. It formed a partial proxy of knowledge to leaders that was examined further through interview in tray tasks and the observation of a taught lesson. For many teachers, it was the degree rather than the result that formed a partial proxy of knowledge. With this acknowledgement, this research builds upon the work of Di Pietro who noted the dearth of research into the signalling effect of degree classification (2017, p502).

The findings of this research are that the views of most leaders in relation to subject qualifications did not meet those of policy expectations (DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011; DfE, 2016a; Foster, 2018) and typical teacher recruitment expectations of a good degree (being a 2:1 degree or better). These findings contrasted with the research undertaken by Jacob et al. (2016) who found that undergraduate Grade Point Average (GPA)[[10]](#footnote-11) was significantly positively related to performance in Washington public schools. In the research undertaken herein, for the educational leaders interviewed, a qualification in the form of a good degree, was not a signal of effectiveness but rather a partial proxy of knowledge within the wider holistic view of the teacher applicant. This corresponds with the view of Ballou (1996, p97) that ‘*a strong academic record does little for an applicants’ job prospects’*. Whilst appearing contradictory to their wider policy, the findings of this research also align with the DfE’s own publication (DfE, 2016) that recognises teachers as being specialist if they hold a post A level (level 3) qualification in the relevant subject. The findings of this research contribute to knowledge in providing evidence to challenge the use of a good degree as a signal of effectiveness and a proxy of relevant subject knowledge.

Degree classification may be considered in relation to models of teacher knowledge (Shulman, 1986, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 1999, 2001) and depend upon the cognitive relevance of degree classification. The QAA state this generally, noting that degree classifications ‘*provide a broad indication of how well a student has performed against their programme’s curricula and learning outcomes’* (2019, p10). Specifically, descriptors evidence 5 key areas that are assessed in deciding upon classifications, those of ‘*knowledge and understanding, cognitive skills, practical skills, transferrable skills, professional competencies’* (UKSCQA, 2018, p2)*.* Given this definition, the degree classification corresponds to the knowledge gained – the content aspect of Shulman’s (1987) mode. However, it does not correspond closely to curriculum knowledge (as documented in Table 7.1). It was previously acknowledged that a degree more closely corresponds to syntactic knowledge (and builds on substantive knowledge gained at lower levels of learning). It therefore does not directly correspond to the core knowledge required to teach. In making this acknowledgement, the question that arises here is whether syntactic knowledge is quantifiable, and if so, ‘how much syntactic knowledge is enough for teaching?’

Only one of the 6 leaders, a secondary leader, considered degree class important in their recruitment processes and therefore a signal of effectiveness. This aligned with the findings of Clarke and Pye’s UK based research and their challenge of Teacher Training Agency (TTA) data. In their research they find ‘*no correlation, relationship or link between the classification of a teachers first degree and their ability to teach’* (2012, p2). Clarke and Pye (ibid) noted that TTA data claiming that degree classification matters was corrupted by a small number of 3rd class degrees which may also include pass degrees or degrees awarded overseas. They also noted no difference in outcomes between applicants who are awarded first class or 2:1 degrees. This challenges the accuracy of the signalling effect noted by Di Pietro (2017) in relation to 2:1 degree to employers and higher education institutions. This may not, however be as simplistic as it appears. The expectation of a good degree at entry to the profession for secondary teachers may mean that leaders views of the unimportance of degree classification are influenced by academic filtering. Consequently, leaders’ exposure to less effective teachers with lower class degrees may have been limited and influenced their views. However, what is not shown in this research is the extent to which applicants to teacher training courses and teacher training gatekeepers share this view. Consequently, given this unknown, it would be difficult to ascertain whether sifting at the teacher training stage has limited the flow of teachers with less than ‘good’ qualifications. If this does occur, then the flow of teachers out of teacher training and into the workforce would have higher qualifications overall. This would result in a reduced likelihood in stakeholders coming across less effective teachers with less than great qualifications. As a consequence, this would influence their overall experiential based view. An exploration of the views of teacher training gatekeepers would shed more light on this issue and add breadth to any analysis of perceptions of teacher subject qualifications.

The extent to which the suggestion of leaders not being exposed to teachers with less than good degrees may hold true is, however, challenged by the views and experience of one educational leader. SL Harriet, who considered degree classification important, had strong views relating to and also beyond degree class. Her view was based on professional experience with teachers from non-competitive universities and lesser degree results, suggesting leaders do have exposure to a range of degree results. SL Harriet’s view was however mitigated or even contradicted in her statement that ‘*I don’t think there is a direct correlation between the quality of your degree and your ability to teach but there is some correlation*’. This tentativeness may be due to her academic background due to her having a PhD because her views elsewhere in the interview are much stronger. This employer variation is acknowledged by Spence who recognises that signals are ‘*parameters in shifting probability distributions that define an employer’s beliefs’* (1973, p358). SL Harriet and one of her teachers, ST Maeve had strong views in relation to the importance of degree result and the awarding university (see Chapter 5 – Section 5.1.2.3). SL Harriet further justified her value system in relation to degree classification alongside suggesting a signalling effect. She suggested that degree results are a consequence of a teacher’s commitment to their subject, just as Spence (1973) considers qualifications to be an indicator of productivity. This notion of commitment by SL Harriet emerged as a key characteristic required in teacher job advertisements and is considered in section 7.2.2.2 of this chapter. SL Harriet’s view also corresponds with government policy (DfE, 2010) that emphasises disappointment that so few graduates specifically those from Russell Group universities go in to teaching. Similarly, it corresponds to Clotfelter, Ladd and Vigdor’s (2007) finding of a positive coefficient for high school teachers graduating from competitive colleges. This view of esteem and institution is further acknowledged by the view presented by Tummons, Orr and Atkins (2013) and recognised by Chevalier and Conlon (2003) who acknowledge what a degree from a prestigious university may convey. In doing so, they comment that ‘*the matching of students to an institution’s quality is largely but not perfectly due to academic ability’* (2003, p19)*.* However, *w*hat is evident from the views of SL Harriet and ST Maeve is a strong organisation centric divergent voice in the research. It is therefore a reminder that educational institutions in England, whilst viewed in policy as homogenous and subject to the same expectations and regulatory bodies, are based in areas of varied advantage, disadvantage and funding. Furthermore, they are led by leaders of varying value systems, prior experience and expectations. Within this research, the views of SL Harriet and ST Maeve are noted as a singular organisational centric one, suggesting other factors may be of relevance. The extent of SL Harriet’s view, of a desire for good degrees from higher status universities, does not dominate the data for her organisation as much as one might anticipate. Whilst ST Maeve shared her leader’s views and met the criteria of attending a high-ranking university, this is where the organisational consensus ends. Two highly effective teachers at SL Harriet’s organisation attended post 1982 universities with both teachers not considering degree class important for teaching to GCSE / level 2. However, all of SL Harriet’s nominated highly effective teachers possessed a 2:1 degree. One teacher (who had spent her entire teaching career at SL Harriet’s organisation) considered her degree classification useful for teaching at A level / level 3s. However, she considered that none of her qualifications prepared her for teaching and suggested that her degree too was a poor proxy of subject knowledge required to teach.

Despite the idealised view of applicants shared by SL Harriet, she did express concerns about the lack of applicants. She acknowledged that, except for Art and PE, there were too few applicants to apply a sifting process. Her experience, therefore, echoes the government’s own policy concerns in terms of wider teacher shortages at the time of writing (Foster, 2018). Whilst SL Harriet conceded that she had to accept applicants with 3rd class degrees, she remained clear that the very best results were achieved from teachers with higher results. This provides insight into SL Harriet adopting a more pragmatic view of qualifications and their importance at the point of recruitment in line with the views of the other educational leaders. It may also reflect accountability to other organisational stakeholders, for example the school’s governing body or local authority. Whilst the views expressed by leaders were personal ones, leaders are ultimately bound by government regulations in terms of educational policy and inspection requirements (see for example, DfES, 2010; DfE, 2011; Ofsted, 2015a; Ofsted, 2019a).

For SL Harriet, unlike the other leaders interviewed, the degree class and institution formed the signal, whereas for all the other leaders, they did not. SL Harriet’s view is anticipated by Spence (1973) who too recognises that education is a multifaceted entity. He notes that these facets may include not only the qualification and the result but also years of education and institution attended. For SL Harriet, her views had been formed by prior experience and for her were as strong a conviction as the other leaders in their views of the irrelevance of degree result. The degree results of leaders were not gathered in this research; however, they may be important in informing their views. What was known though is that Harriet had completed a PhD, and this may have led to her strong academic expectations. SL Harriet’s views are contradictory at times with a strong focus on qualifications alongside an expressed desire for social justice noted in her interview. It may be that her desire for social justice may be a driver for high expectations of her staff and students, one acknowledged by Ofsted (2015). SL Harriet’s uniqueness in the leader sample, of being a leader with a doctorate who does not share the views of the other leaders interviewed is an area worth exploring further. This could examine the impact of leaders’ subject qualifications and prior experiences on their expectations of teachers. However, moving beyond this acknowledgement of possible relevance is outside of the scope of this research. It is therefore noted as an area for further investigation.

Consideration of Turner-Bisset’s (1999) knowledge bases and the notion of ‘How much syntactic knowledge is enough for teaching?’ can be extended to consider whether a certain amount of syntactic knowledge is too much. This may be seen in terms of the accuracy of the proxy and whether a proxy of knowledge in the form of a qualification has upper bounds. This corresponds to the view expressed by three teachers interviewed that intellect can be a disadvantage. It therefore provides an alternative view in relation to first class degrees and higher-level qualifications. A teacher with high levels of syntactic knowledge may remain knowledge focussed. However, they may also not engage in the wider aspects of teaching as evidenced in Shulman’s (1987) knowledge bases (for example, *knowledge of educational context*s or *knowledge of* *educational ends, purposes, and values and their philosophical grounds*). These knowledge bases extend beyond subject knowledge and provide an opportunity for wider skill development. Similarly, Turner-Bisset’s (1999) model considers *beliefs about the subject*. Applying this model, a teacher with high intellect, who has not experienced the struggles along their learning journey (as evidenced by several teachers – see Section 7.2.2.2 of this chapter), may find it more difficult to relate to students due to a mismatch in their beliefs about the subject. This suggestion is also supported by the experiences of ST Vanda who had encountered a teacher who was viewed as a *‘nerd*’ and couldn’t relate to students. Consequently, he was considered ineffective. ST Vanda recounted that there was a high achieving student who related to and learned from him very well. This suggests that his effectiveness with one student may have been a consequence of a match in their beliefs about the subject. This insight provides an opportunity for further research to explore the extent to which a match in teacher and student beliefs is key to teacher effectiveness.

Central to this study has been the UK government insistence (contradicting the view of the Education Select Committee (Stuart, 2012), that the best teachers are those with the best qualifications (see Chapter 3 and DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011; DfE, 2016a; Foster, 2018 for example). Di Pietro (2017) found (Chapter 2 - Section 2.1.4 and section 7.1.2 of this chapter) that a 2:1 degree may have a signalling effect in terms of teacher recruitment. However, the findings of this research contrast to Di Pietro’s findings and correspond to those noted by Stuart (2012) (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.2), with teachers predominantly not considering their degree classification as a signal of their effectiveness. This also echoed the view of the House of Commons who commented that ‘*whilst* *the proportion of trainees with good degrees has risen … this is a poor guide to overall teacher quality’* (2016d, p7)*.* All but two of the teachers interviewed considered their degree classification unimportant (both of whom had 2:1 degrees). There is an interpretivist nuance here, with analysis moving from whether a degree is a signal of effectiveness to whether, in the eyes of highly effective teacher interviewed, it is important to their effectiveness. This may be considered in terms of Di Pietro (2017). He acknowledges Spence’s (1973) model and comments that ‘*recent graduates with a higher degree classification are preferred to those with a lower degree classification on the assumption that the former are perceived to have a higher productivity than the latter’ (2017, px).* However, for ST Tessa, the importance of a 2:1 degree was built upon the work that she had to put in to achieving the classification given her personal circumstances whilst studying. This contradicts Spence’s (1973) and Di Pietro’s (2017) view that the signal is an indicator of productivity and ability. Rather ST Tessa suggests the opposite, that gaining the desired result was not just about ability, it was about sustained effort. However, these views of the importance of degree class to teachers and leaders were an exception.

Whilst finding a signalling effect for 2:1 degrees, Di Pietro (2017) also found that a 2:2 degree did not evidence any signalling effect. For two of the teachers interviewed, who had 2:2 degrees, they were clear that their result had not affected their effectiveness, and that they would not be better teachers with ‘better’ degrees. Similarly, the third secondary teacher with a 2:2 degree, who did not comment specifically on her 2:2 classification, considered qualifications to form only a part of her effectiveness (see Chapter 5 - Section 5.3). This recognition of qualifications forming one part of the holistic view of the teacher is explored further in Section 7.2 of this chapter. Just as a lack of signalling was evident for a 2:2 degree, Di Pietro (2017) acknowledged the lack of signalling for a first-class degree. Only one of the teachers (see Chapter 5 - Section 5.2) had a first-class degree and didn’t consider the result relevant to her teaching effectiveness. Indeed, she considered that it was just as likely that a bad teacher had a first-class degree.

Examination of the teacher job advertisements also indicated no clear signal in relation to degree classification. This further contradicts policy for teacher recruitment having a focus on a good degree (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.2) and Di Pietro’s (2017) finding that a 2:1 degree may have a signalling effect generally to employers and higher education institutions. Alongside the views of most leaders, expectations of ‘good degrees’ (being a 2:1 or better) were specified as essential in very few advertisements (see Chapter 5 – Section 5.1.2.3). However, as with the recognition of an assumption of a degree due to the degree forming a gatekeeper to secondary teaching, the same may be true for degree classification. This may be due to an assumption of a good degree due to similar policy expectations. However, these few advertisements were predominantly for secondary teaching posts. This suggests that there is not an assumption of a good degree. This lack of degree classification focus provides additional evidence to support the notion that it is the qualification (here in the form of a degree) that acts as a partial signal of effectiveness in some subjects, rather than the result.

Any suggestion or recommendation for a reduced focus on degree classification in favour of a more holistic policy view of the teacher (see Section 7.2 of this chapter) is accompanied with a recommendation for caution or further research in relation to teachers of humanities subjects. In the interviews two humanities teachers considered their degree classification key to their effectiveness and one humanities teacher considered it useful for teaching A level subjects. The reason for this may be because these teachers feel that their degree has provided humanities-centric skills that are simultaneously essential job skills. Consequently, greater engagement with these skills may lead to greater academic outputs in the form of degree classification. Humanities degrees include communication and interpersonal skills in addition to developing strong critical thinking skills(Anders, 2017). These key skills are evidenced within expectations of teachers through both teacher standards (DfE, 2011) and ETF standards (ETF, 2014). This could provide a rationale behind the reason that some of the teachers of humanities subjects considered not only the content of their degree but the classification important, in comparison to those for whom the classification was unimportant.

Degree classification has had wider impact in relation to teacher recruitment due to classification dependent bursaries (BIS, 2014; DfE, 2015) (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.2 and 3.3). However, government policy, perhaps driven by teacher shortages is starting to relent to a certain extent with more recent bursary allocation (DfE, 2018c) (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.2). Whilst having a 2:2 degree forms a minimum degree classification for bursary eligibility there is no longer any classification dependent variation in the amount of the bursary available. This may suggest a waning in focus in relation to degree classification and the extent to which a good degree is considered a signal of effectiveness. This may indicate, alongside variation in terms of bursaries and subject, a more pragmatic policy approach to teacher recruitment in shortage areas. The findings of this research align with this policy change and provide grounds to suggest that this is taken further. This should ensure that bursaries are more closely focussed on aptitude and potential and retain the reduced focus on degree classification.

This research has shown that, for most graduate teachers interviewed, their degree classifications were not a signal to their effectiveness and, alongside having a degree, formed only a partial proxy of knowledge. Analysis of the degree classifications held by the teachers interviewed showed no clear pattern in favour of teachers having good or poor degrees. Nor was it evident that FE teachers had better or lesser degrees than their secondary counterparts or vice versa, despite the apparent policy divisions (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.3).

The findings of this research suggest that a change in policy in relation to teacher subject qualifications should be considered. This could ensure that applicants with potential, but not having a higher-class degree are not deterred or discouraged from entering the profession. This may have key implications for shortage areas and contrasts with the remuneration-based view of Hanushek (1986) and government policy (see Chapter 3) that, until very recently increasingly incentivised the candidates with the best degrees to enter the profession.

#### 7.1.2.5 Postgraduate Qualifications

For all educational leaders interviewed, post graduate subject qualifications were unimportant in their recruitment processes and decision making. The same was evident in teacher job advertisements. They were neither a signal of potential teacher effectiveness nor a proxy of knowledge. However, three of the four teachers interviewed who had a master’s degree, considered them important to their effectiveness. Here, to the holders of the qualifications, they formed a partial proxy of higher-level subject and pedagogical knowledge. Whilst postgraduate qualifications did not form a signal of effectiveness, there is an indication that factors underlying the qualification may have a signalling effect.

The dominant leader and advertisement view of lack of signal or proxy of subject knowledge for postgraduate qualifications contrasts with policy expectations of the best teachers having the best qualifications (see for example DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011; DfE, 2016a; Foster, 2018). However, the extent to which this refers to postgraduate qualifications is unclear. With policy aims of increasing teacher qualification levels to those of the best performing countries (DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011), there are, however, suggestions of higher-level qualifications becoming desirable. For example, oft cited Finland, requires that teachers have a master’s degree before commencing training (NCEE, 2020b) (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.2). In addition, the implied importance of a master’s degree is also documented through PISA[[11]](#footnote-12) which views percentages of teachers with master’s degrees as a performance indicator (OECD, 2019). However, in the PISA data, no consideration is given to whether these are master’s degrees in the teacher’s subject, any subject, or an education related subject. Furthermore, the master’s degree required in Finland is not as easily translated into a subject or education degree for comparison with the master’s degrees held by teachers in this research. This is due to the combination of education and subject specialist training within the Finnish master’s degree.

In this research, less than a quarter of the teachers interviewed held a master’s degree and none of the teacher job advertisements considered postgraduate qualifications essential. The higher qualifications specified as desirable in teacher job advertisements were not all in relation to the subject area. This aligned with the finding that teachers interviewed had master’s degrees in their subject area *or* in education. What did emerge from this research in relation to postgraduate qualifications was that three of the four teachers with master’s degrees considered them important for their teaching. In doing so, they formed a partial proxy of higher-level subject and pedagogical knowledge. Two of these teachers (one with a subject specific master's degree and one with a Master’s in Education) considered their master’s degrees important for stretch and challenge and meeting the needs of their most able students. This suggests a possible match between the beliefs of the teachers and their higher achieving students as explored in the previous section. The remaining teacher considered their master’s degree important for a change in subject taught, suggesting the new knowledge at a high level was useful. For the teacher in question, it represents a proxy of knowledge with her gaining both substantive and syntactic knowledge (Turner-Bisset, 1999) from the qualification. This, therefore, enabled the transition from teaching one subject to another. What is not clear from this though is whether a lower-level qualification, providing predominantly substantive knowledge (Turner-Bisset, 1999) may have proved equally or more relevant to the knowledge required to teach. This view of the relevance and importance of a master’s degree at first appears to contrast with the wider view of the lack of importance of having a master’s degree (Goldhaber and Brewer, 1996; Jacob, 2007; Hanushek, Piopiunij and Wiederhold, 2019). It does however support the finding by Clotfelter Ladd and Vigdor (2007) of an association between teachers gaining a master’s degree after entering the teaching profession and their effectiveness. Their findings align with the findings of this research that those teachers who thought their master’s degree was useful all completed it after they had been teaching for several years. The one teacher who did not consider her master’s degree important achieved it prior to entering the teaching profession. The pedagogical expertise gained during teaching may be an influencing factor in this. Teachers gaining master’s degrees after entering the profession may be in a better position to apply their new knowledge to teaching practice. The same may apply to the teacher with a Master’s in Education due the pedagogical elements of their course. However, the relevance of the timeframe positionality may also be a consequence of the influence of other characteristics playing a part. This is considered in Section 7.2 of this chapter. In addition, though there may be a further association with knowledge bases (Shulman, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 1999) in the form of teacher beliefs. A teacher may experience greater struggles by undertaking a qualification during their teaching career than prior to teaching due to balancing of workload and professional factors. This may therefore lead to a closer match between teacher beliefs and the beliefs of struggling students. What is not recognised in this suggestion is the acknowledgement by the teachers that the qualification is useful in supporting higher achieving students. It may be here that that qualification is providing the teacher with confidence in supporting those students or a belief in the benefits of higher-level learning. This research therefore finds that a postgraduate qualification, gained whilst teaching has relevance to effectiveness through being a high-level partial proxy of knowledge. Alongside this, it may be that rather than the qualification forming the signal of effectiveness, it is the willingness to engage in continuous learning that forms the signal. This association will be considered in Section 7.2.2.1 of this chapter.

Whilst all teachers who studied for postgraduate qualifications during their teaching career found them useful for teaching, an alternative view was presented by some teachers in relation to higher level learning. Three of the teachers considered that intellect could be a disadvantage. This goes beyond the views of Goldhaber and Brewer (1996), Jacob (2007), Hanushek, Piopiunij and Wiederhold (2019) in terms of the lack of importance of having a master’s degree. It does, however, correspond with the findings of Clotfelter Ladd and Vigdor (2007) (though noted with caution due to the small sample size). In their research, they found a large negative effect of a PhD to teacher effectiveness in both elementary and secondary education. It was noted in Section 2.1.4 of Chapter 2 that Spence’s (1973) model proposes that that a high-level qualification or high result will require lesser input from a high productivity individual. It can be inferred that, under this model, a person with a high-level qualification will be highly productive and therefore will have achieved the qualification with relative ease. Given this, the same argument may be applied as noted in the previous section (Degree classification) and considered in this section in relation to the timeframe positionality of the postgraduate qualification. This would posit that a teacher with a high-level qualification who had not experienced struggles along their academic journey, would be less able to relate to the struggles of their students. This in turn could lead to a less effective teacher due once more to the imbalance between the teacher’s and the student’s beliefs about the subject. There is however a subject focussed caveat that must be applied to this view of the unimportance or negative impact of higher-level qualifications. Goldhaber and Brewer (1997) and Cara and de Coulon (2008) present evidence suggesting that higher degrees in maths and science can contribute to teacher effectiveness in those subject areas. However, no maths teachers and only one science teacher who did not hold a higher degree were interviewed as part of this research. This therefore forms a recommendation for further work, to explore via an interpretivist lens, the importance assigned to higher degrees from maths and science teachers.

The majority of educational leaders did not consider qualifications, postgraduate or otherwise, as a signal of subsequent teacher effectiveness. However, the wider signalling effect (Spence, 1973) to those outside of the organisation *was* recognised by one of the leaders. FL Nell commented that in her organisation a teacher who had a doctorate in his subject was used as a promotional tool for the organisation due to the status with which a teacher with a doctorate was held. In this regard, the qualification is used as a signal of not only the effectiveness of the teacher but of the organisation and is used to give prestige to the organisation. These marketing and promotional strategies are recognised as important in post 16 choices (Hemsley-Brown, 1999; Foskett, Dyke and Maringe, 2008) and further draw on the increased marketisation of FE following incorporation (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.3). Therefore, this decision is a business one, designed to attract students to the college. As a marketing tool, the teacher with a doctorate is used to suggest the quality of teaching in the organisation in the same way that policy refers to the ‘best’ teachers as the ones with the best qualifications. Without this marketing insight parents would never know the subject qualifications of the vast majority of teachers. It would only be the presence of the ‘Dr*’* title that would indicate the higher-level qualification. If the teacher with a doctorate were to leave, this would leave a marketing gap. However, to the intended recipients of the marketing, this may not have an impact. As Foskett et al. note, ‘*marketing and promotion enable choices to be justified…rather than changing choices*’ (2008, p39). This finding leaves an opportunity for further research, to explore the impact of using a subject qualification in this way. This could explore the impact and views of parents, potential students and teachers in the organisation and examine any congruence or dissonance in views.

### 7.1.3 Qualifications Providing Wider Skills and Experiences

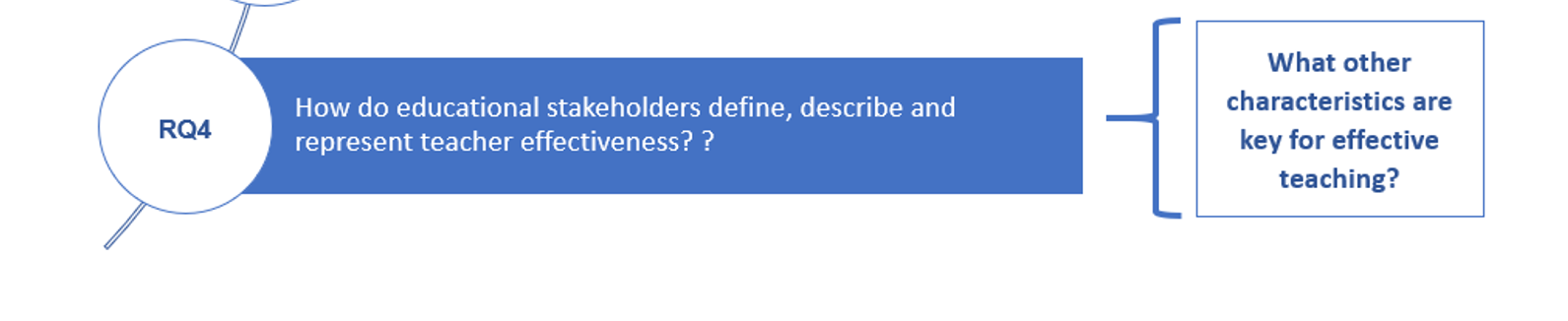
A key finding of this research was that for many teachers, their subject qualifications at varying levels provided them with wider skills and experiences that influenced their effectiveness. Wider skills therefore formed a key theme in this research. These skills ranged from analysis, the ability to research, independent learning and autonomy. This corresponds with the expectation by the UK Standing Committee for Quality Assessment (UKSCQA) that in addition to subject knowledge, degree classification represents ‘*cognitive skills, practical skills, transferrable skills, professional competencies’* (UKSCQA, 2018, p2). However, for teachers, it was not just their degree that provided them with those skills. Teachers recognised the wider learning at level 3 beyond QAA’s (2020) gaining and applying knowledge. For eight of the teachers, all but one being a secondary teacher, it was how they were required to engage with the subject matter and learning that provided important wider skills. This secondary centric view, which was not as evident in FE teacher interviews, may correspond to the expectation that many FE teachers, given their dual professionalism (Machin et al., 2020), gain wider skills in industry, the professions or elsewhere. However, what this research does acknowledge is that wider skills outside of teachers’ professional subject area were evidenced by many teachers interviewed. This was particularly in work undertaken outside of teaching prior to entering the profession and was evidence by both FE and secondary teachers disclosed through teacher biographies (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1.3.2).

The acknowledgement, by teachers, of the wider skills gained through learning experiences whilst studying towards the qualifications were important. Here the relevance of the qualification is not solely about the product of learning and measured outcomes (Tyler, 1949; Luksik and Hoffecker, 1995; Ofsted, 2015a, Ofsted, 2015b;). These wider skills gained are about the process of learning (Stenhouse, 1975) and encompass the not so easily measured outcomes noted by Guenther (2014). These skills include independence and transferrable skills in addition to providing a basic grounding in the subject and cognitive and analytical skills (see Chapter 5 - Section 5.3). Whilst the wider skills gained at both level 3 and level 6 correspond to the QAA’s (2019) and UKSCQA (2018) definitions, to most teachers interviewed, their qualifications provided them with a basic grounding in the subject rather than subject mastery. They referred to a breadth, rather than a depth of knowledge required to teach their subject. This concurred with the recognition of the relevance of a subject specialist degree by Partington (1999) who acknowledged that a degree did not affirm mastery of a subject at curriculum level.

The wider skills provided by qualifications may be viewed to cross between substantive knowledge in terms of a basic grounding, to syntactic knowledge in giving the teachers the varying aspects of knowledge required to teach. They also correspond to other aspects of Shulman’s (1987) and Turner-Bisset’s (1999) knowledge bases (see Table 7.1). A teacher’s educational experiences prior to teaching will impact on their beliefs in several ways. For example, ‘*beliefs about the subject’* (Turner-Bisset, 1999, p43) may be acquired and developed based upon courses taken by students. Similarly, ‘*knowledge / models of teaching’* (ibid) may be informed through their own exposure to these models as a learner (ibid). In addition, a teacher’s ‘*knowledge of* *educational contexts’* (Shulman, 1987, p8; Turner-Bisset, 1999, p43) may be influenced by macro contexts whereby a teacher engages in education overall. They may also be derived at a micro level through the learning experiences gained when undertaking specific qualifications (Turner-Bisset, 1999). Typical teacherly skills of self-direction (Hargreaves and Elhawary, 2020), reflection and introspection (Brookfield, 2017; Davis and Waggett, 2006) are also acknowledged through Turner-Bisset’s knowledge base of ‘*knowledge of self*’ (1999, p43). This research therefore contributes to the field of teacher knowledge by acknowledging the relevance of wider skills and experiences and provides a mapping via Table 7.1 acknowledging this. This builds upon Chapter 2 - Section 2.1.2 and 2.1.3. These wider skills, whilst being recognised as a key theme also underpin the discussion in Section 7.2 of this chapter that follows in relation to key characteristics in the holistic view of the effective teacher.

## 7.2 Key Characteristics in The Holistic View of the Teacher

Figure 7.2: Research Question Relating to Teacher Characteristics



This section will further analyse the themes that emerged through examination of teacher job advertisements and interviews with educational leaders and highly effective teachers (as defined in Chapter 1). It will do so in relation to teacher characteristics in order to address Research Question RQ4.

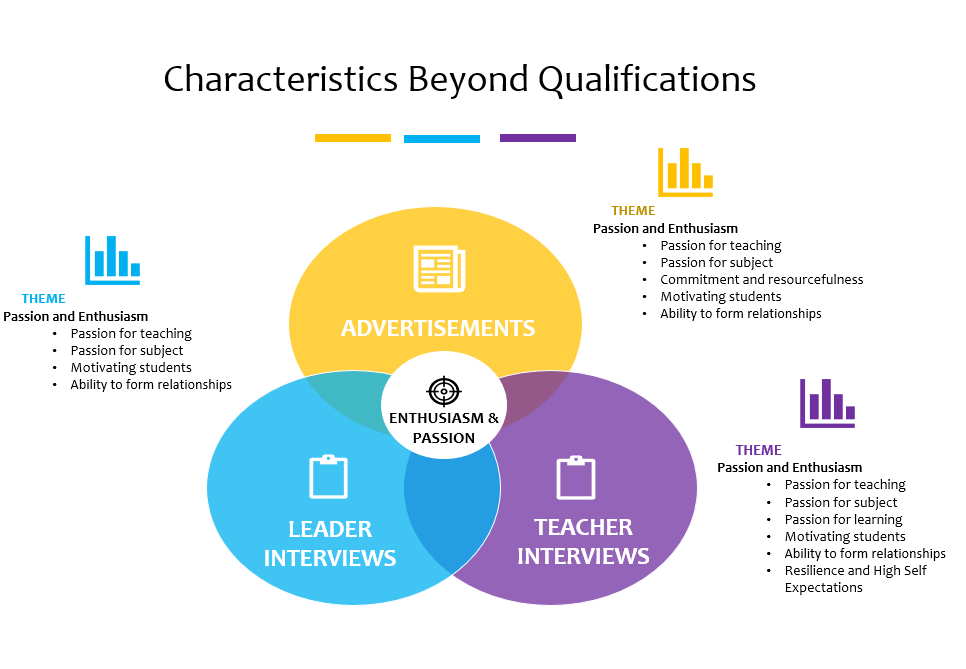
For most leaders, qualifications generally were not a unique signal of effectiveness, rather they formed one part of the holistic view of a teacher. Similarly, teachers interviewed considered other characteristics as equal or more importance than their qualifications. These stakeholder views formed themes of teacher as person, and passion and enthusiasm.

### 7.2.1 Teacher as Person or Praxis?

The research aimed to explore broad expectations of an effective teacher (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.6) allowing both teacher as person and as praxis to emerge. This builds on the recognition of the relevance of teacher as person acknowledged by Williams (2010). This aligned with the model of teacher effectiveness going into the research proposed by Coe et al. (2007) that considers great teaching in terms of components or attributes. In doing so, it combines what the teacher *has* in terms of beliefs and knowledge with a greater focus on what the teacher can *do* in terms of pedagogical skills.

What emerged from the research was a focus more towards person, rather than praxis. This required that the thematic analysis utilise both Coe’s (2014) model and Stronge’s (2007) model of teacher as person in order to fully examine the findings. This accounts for any possible limitations of Coe et al.’s (2014) model, which could be considered as mechanistic. It also accommodates the altruistic reasons that Richardson and Watt (2006) and Thomson and Palermo (2014) suggest for teachers entering the profession. It also allowed subsumed person-centred elements within Coe et al.’s broad categories to emerge from his outcome focussed model (see Chapter 2 - Section 2.1.1).

In addition to themes of qualifications as a signal or proxy, wider skills and teacher as person, the theme of teacher passion and enthusiasm formed a key finding of this research. Figure 7.3 presents this theme and its constituent characteristics visually through stakeholder lenses. These are subsequently applied to Table 7.2 which maps these emergent themes and constituent characteristics to Stronge’s (2007) Qualities and Indicators and Coe et al.’s (2014) Components and Aspects. This forms the basis of exploration in this section.

*Figure 7.3: Thematic Representation – Characteristics Beyond Qualifications Through Stakeholder Lenses*

What emerged through all three lenses was characteristics, rather than pedagogy; of person (Stronge, 2007), rather than the predominantly praxis focus of Coe et al., (2014). The only exception to this in terms of emerging characteristics was consideration of measured outcomes in terms of academic progress and results and unmeasured outcomes in terms of student personal development. There was also minor consideration of behaviour and planning in leader interviews. Measured and unmeasured outcomes will not be carried through beyond acknowledgement of them in the findings. This is because they comprise neither person or praxis, rather the consequence of person or praxis. They must, however, be acknowledged with the suggestion that with a highly effective teacher, the outcomes will follow. In doing so, this provides an opportunity for further research. This might explore the specific focus that highly effective teachers place on teacher characteristics influencing measured and unmeasured outcomes of learning.

Whilst Spence’s (1973) signalling model of qualifications falls short under scrutiny (Section 7.1.2 of this chapter), what does emerge from this research is a different set of signals that leaders consider important. These characteristics, that leaders have found to be important over time (see Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4) form the ‘*parameters in shifting probability distributions that define an employers’ beliefs’* (Spence, 1973, pp357-8).

*Table 7.2: Mapping Passion and Enthusiasm Theme to Frameworks – Stakeholder Views of Effective Teacher Characteristics*

| **Characteristic of Passion and Enthusiasm** | **Leaders’ Theme?** | **Teachers’ Theme?** | **Advertisement Theme?** | **Evidenced by teachers?** | **Teacher as a Person?** | **Representation in Stronge (2007)** | **Teaching as Praxis?** | **Representation in Coe et al. (2014)** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Passion for Teaching** | ☑ | ☑ | ☑ | ☑ | ☑ | **Enthusiasm**   * Shows joy for the content material * Takes pleasure in teaching * Involvement in learning activities outside of school | N/A | N/A |
| **Passion for subject** | ☑ | ☑ | ☑ | ☑ | ☑ | **Enthusiasm**   * Shows joy for the content material * Takes pleasure in teaching | N/A | N/A |
| **Passion for Learning** | 🗵 | ☑ | 🗵 | ☑ | ☑ | **Enthusiasm**   * Involvement in learning activities outside of school | N/A | N/A |
| **Ability to Motivate and engage** | ☑ | ☑ | ☑ | N/A | ☑ | **Caring**   * Creates a supportive and warm classroom climate | ☑ | **Classroom Climate**  Quality of interactions and recognising self-worth |
| **Motivation**   * Maintains high quality work * Provides students with meaningful feedback |
| **Ability to Form Relationships** | ☑ | ☑ | ☑ | N/A | ☑ | **Caring**   * Displays and interest in and a concern about the students’ lives outside of school * Exhibits active listening * Shows concern for students’ emotional and physical wellbeing   **Interactions with Students**   * Maintains professional role while being friendly * Knows students interests both in and out of school * Values what students say * Interacts in a fun, playful manner; jokes when appropriate | ☑ | **Classroom Climate**  Quality of interactions and recognising self-worth |
| **Resilience and High Self Expectations** | 🗵 | 🗵 | 🗵 | ☑ | ☑ | **Dedication to Teaching**   * Possesses a positive attitude about life and teaching   **Reflective Practice**   * Sets High Expectations for personal classroom performance | Partial | **Professional Behaviours**  Reflect on and develop professional practice |
| **Resourcefulness** | 🗵 | 🗵 | ☑ | 🗵 | ☑ | **Dedication to Teaching**   * Finds, implements, and shares new instructional strategies | N/A | N/A |

### 7.2.2 Passion and Enthusiasm

*Passion* *and enthusiasm* was a significant theme that emerged through all the stakeholder representations (teacher interviews, leader interviews and job advertisements). Key characteristics of passion for teaching, learning and for a teacher’s own subject was evident. Additional characteristics also emerged within this theme. These can be categorised as being student or teacher focussed. Student focussed characteristics related to motivating students and the ability to form relationships. Teacher focused characteristics related to resilience and resourcefulness.

Section 7.1 of this chapter considered knowledge bases (Shulman, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 1999) in relation to teacher qualifications. The relevance of teacher characteristics through the theme of passion, to knowledge bases is a key contribution made by this research. This builds upon the recognition by Evans, Hawksley, Holland and Caillau (2008) who acknowledge that passion corresponds to Shulman’s ‘*knowledge of self’* (1987, p8). Passion may also be viewed through representation of other knowledge bases as explored in Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.2 and 2.1.3. It relates to Shulman’s ‘*knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds’* (1987, p8)*.* Similarly, passion corresponds to Turner-Bisset’s *‘knowledge of educational ends, purpose and values’* (1999, p13)withpassion for a teacher’s subject considered within Turner-Bisset’s ‘*beliefs about the subject*’ (ibid) (see Table 7.1 of this chapter). Beyond this however is Turner-Bisset’s (2001) paradigmatic recognition of knowledge. Squires (1999) varied paradigms of teaching that range from teaching as craft to teaching as science (1999) and Turner-Bisset’s proposed paradigm of ‘*expert teaching’* are recognised. This sets the precedent that allows a key contribution to knowledge to be made through the proposal of the paradigm of *teaching as passion*.

This emergence of passion acknowledges its recent appearance in the associated literature (Fried, 2001; Day, 2004, Carbonneau et al., 2008; Downes and Figg, 2019). Whereas the extant literature suggested that work passion can be considered as harmonious or obsessive, this was not something that emerged from the teacher interviews. A reason for this may be that in recruiting teachers who have been identified as highly effective, teachers exhibiting obsessive passion (which can lead physical and emotional health problems) may have been excluded from selection. This is supported by Moe who associates harmonious passion with ‘*job satisfaction, positive affect, and self-efficacy’* (2016, p431) and Vallerand who notes that:

‘*Harmonious passion results from an autonomous internalisation of the activity into the person’s identity and can have a clear role in performance and resilience - one must love the activity dearly and pursue engagement especially when times are rough’* (2007, p6).

Cardon, Wincent, Singh and Drnovsek (2009) suggest work passion may be linked to self-interest and self-serving goals. However, this was not evidenced in this research. This may be due to specificities of the teaching profession, being one in which ambition and drive is focussed towards others rather than notions of self-focussed ambition noted by Perrewé et al. (2014). In considering the application of models of passion, a work-related model under these circumstances doesn’t quite fit with the day to day practice of teaching. Instead of a focus on self, the focus is on the outcomes of students rather than the worker themselves. Therefore, this research proposes a model of teacher passion that is both teacher and student focussed (as the participants themselves suggest) rather than singularly worker focussed.

#### 7.2.2.1 A Tripartite Model of Teacher Passion

Passion for teaching, subject and learning emerged as key characteristics within the passion and enthusiasm theme through various stakeholder lenses. Analysis of the interview data showed the emergence of ‘enthusiasm’ and ‘liking’ in relation to teaching, subject and learning (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1). Beyond this however many teachers interviewed were much stronger in their views and expressed passion within their definition of effective teachers. Alternatively, they may have evidenced the characteristic of passion during the interview. This involved expression of key words of *passion*, *love* or strong emotions in their discourse (see Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.2). This is a recognition that moves beyond enthusiasm to its ‘*related construct’* (Keller, Hoy, Goetz, and Frenzel, 2015). This construct of teacher passion (Fried, 1995, 2001; Day 2004) also corresponds to the application of work passion to teaching by Carbonneau at al. (2008). For those teachers who either expressed or defined passion, it was predominantly not a single faceted entity, supporting the notion of any model of teacher passion being a multi-faceted one.

In much of the research into passion, passion for work is the entity under investigation (see for example, Zigarmi et al., 2009; Vallerand, 2007). Zigarmi et al. (2009) had, however, proposed a work passion model based on a triad of cognition, affect and intention. Whilst this model proved useful in positioning the influences and consequences of work passion, it saw work passion itself as a singular entity, rather than the muti facetted entity which emerged from this research. Additionally, the model proposed by Zigarmi et al. (2009) (see Chapter 2 – Section 2.2.2) suggests that passion is organisationally built rather than a characteristic of a vocation which may be influenced by life experiences and factors outside of an organisation. In doing so this has acknowledged the wider antecedents which were evidenced in this research. For example the life experiences of teachers and in particular the emerging characteristic of resilience.

The notion of a vocation is particularly evidenced by the linking, of effective teaching to a love of **teaching** by teachers and leaders interviewed. This passion for teaching and for subject has much in common with Kunter, Frenzel, Nagy, Baumert and Pekrun’s (2011) two dimensions of teacher enthusiasm. However, these dimensions of enthusiasm are insufficient to explain the interview responses. This is acknowledged in the nuances that may be applied in terms of strength or application of an entity of enthusiasm or passion. Just as Keller et al. (2015) considers that there are no clear definitions of enthusiasm, the same difficulties are evident with passion. However, in aligning with enthusiasm, some distinction between the two terms is possible. For Lock and Baum (2019) passion is viewed as a strong emotion. For Day, considering passion for teaching, he notes that it is ‘*not only to express enthusiasm but also to enact it in a principled, values-led, intelligent way’* (2004, p12). Similarly, Keller et al. (2016, p746) confirm that passion is different to enthusiasm referring to it as a ‘*related construct’*.

Many of the educational leaders interviewed (FE and secondary) considered passion and enthusiasm for **subject** as a characteristic of an effective teacher in addition to their expectation of strong subject knowledge (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1.1.2). This corresponds with Fried’s view that ‘*to be a passionate teacher is to be someone in love with a field of knowledge’* (1995, p1). It similarly corresponds to the view presented by Sheridan (2019) who acknowledged the importance of passion for a teacher’s subject. It is further supported by Hobbs (2012, p718) who acknowledges the importance of passion for subject in teacher effectiveness, referring to it as a dimension of ‘*aesthetic understanding’* (2012, p718). Passion for subject was evident by several teachers in their definition of an effective teacher. This was a characteristic evidenced further through the interview discourse (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1.3.1. However, this was where there was a single divergence from two-sector (secondary and further education) consistency in terms of teacher characteristics. It was mostly secondary teachers who noted a passion for their subject within their definitions of teacher effectiveness. However, passion for subject *was* evidenced by some of the FE teachers through the interview discourse, rather than just in response to questions aimed at seeking views on effective teacher characteristics. In trying to uncover the reason behind this sector divergence, it may be that the absence of passion for subject in FE teachers’ definitions of teacher effectiveness may be attributed to the nature of FE teaching. In FE, more than schools, teachers do not always teach a specific subject as most secondary schools do. Instead they may be asked to teach on a range of courses allied to their professional experience, qualifications and interests (Prospects, 2020). This does contrast with the recognition of Turner-Bisset (2001) and discussed in Chapter 2 that teachers have been shown to teach well in one subject and only just adequately or inadequately in others. This therefore may be a consequence of another facet of teacher passion having an influence on the effective teacher, that of passion for learning and continual professional development.

A key finding of this research was that many of the teachers interviewed evidenced passion for their own learning or considered it a key characteristic of effective teachers. Day (2004) acknowledges the importance of passion for learning and development. Similarly, Sheridan (2019) also recognised the importance of a passion for learning. Given its prevalence in both teacher discourse and in their views of effective teaching, a third facet to teacher passion is noted, that of **passion for learning**. Teachers, both in professional standards (DfE, 2011; ETF, 2014) and in their own views of effective teaching, are expected to motivate students to learn. Similarly, the teachers themselves demonstrated strong affective attitudes to their own learning. In Stronge’s later 2018 model, there is a much greater focus on the teacher as learner within his reflective practice quality (2018, p275-276) (see Chapter 2 – Section 2.2.1). However, passion for learning extends beyond the expectations of the teacher as a learner. It is seen as a higher end aspect of student motivation by Lumsden (1999) and is hinted at by Fried in his comment that ‘*passionate teachers…are passionate learners in partnership with students’* (1995, p31). This is supported in research by Downes and Figg (2019) who acknowledge the impact that encouraging teachers to engage in associated learning can have on their passion for teaching. This love of learning moves beyond the passion for the learning of the students recognised by Serin (2017) and assumed of teachers. More than qualifications, this research suggests that it is passion for subject and learning that contribute to subject knowledge. The love of learning is further supported by the views of the teachers who had studied or expressed a desire to study at postgraduate level. None of the teachers expressed financial reasons for studying or wanting to study at higher levels, rather they noted pragmatic reasons, an interest in learning or a ‘*love*’ of the subject (see Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.3.1). This contrasts with the suggestion by Spence that the choice to study is extrinsically driven and that people will invest in education “*if* *there is sufficient return offered by the wage schedule”* (1973, p358). Given these findings, for teaching, the extension of education is not wage driven, but driven by other factors. This also contrasts with broader government educational policy, with a focus on student financial gain and consequent national economic gain, with policy decisions influenced by economic factors (Perry, 2010). Nick Gibb (2015, np), the schools minister supported Perry’s (2010) notion in commenting that ‘*education is the engine of our economy’* in a speech at the Education Reform Summit. However, later in his speech he noted the need to instil in [young people] ‘*a love of knowledge and culture for their own sake’*. For teachers, with their profession recognised by most teachers as a vocation (Heilbronn, 2015), Gibb’s (2015) latter comment relates more closely to the findings of this research.

Whilst, the maintenance of subject knowledge was important to leaders, (see Chapter 6 – 6.1.1.3) consideration of a passion for learning was only evidenced in this research through a teacher lens. The reason for this, may be viewed with consideration of the related enthusiasm construct. There are two ways in which enthusiasm can be categorised. Firstly, it can be displayed thorough a teacher’s style of delivery (Moe, 2016; 1986; Frenzel, Taxer, Schwab, and Kuhbandner, 2019). Alternatively, it can be experienced (Kunter, Tsai, Klusmann, Brunner, Krauss, and Baumert, 2008), which may ‘*serve as an antecedent of displayed enthusiasm’* (Keller et al., 2016, p748). Passion for subject and passion for teaching may be demonstrated pedagogically, through praxis. However, passion for learning, being experienced and typically occurring outside of the classroom, is likely to be less so. Therefore, passion for learning, as an internalised concept, is one that leaders, in their definitions are less likely to consider significant for teacher effectiveness than teachers. Beyond this, the *impact* of passion for learning was hinted at by FT Jessie who taught on teacher training courses. She acknowledged that some of her most effective colleagues were ones who had been required to frequently switch between subjects taught and consequently were continually having to upskill. The facet of passion for learning, therefore, presents an opportunity for further research to explore the extent to which it is experienced, displayed or recognised as a key characteristic by other stakeholders. This may also apply to different stakeholders, for example, the extent to which passion is seen as important by students. This adds affect to the notion in the teacher standards (DfE, 2011) that teachers be autonomous in developing their professional practice. It also corresponds to the 2008 QTS standards (Teacher Development Agency (TDA), 2008), and ETF Standards (ETF, 2014) with the emphasis ongoing teacher (and student) learning.

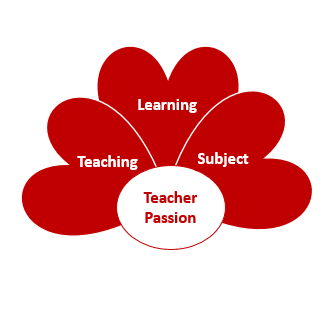
In addition to affective notions of passion, pragmatic notions of passion in terms of commitment also emerged. Whilst this view was only evidenced in teacher job advertisements and for both FE and secondary teachers (see Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.4.2), they are acknowledged here in their varied forms in order to align with facets of passion. These notions of commitment ranged from those of general commitment, which aligns with the passion for teaching, to gaining a teaching qualification (for FE teachers). They also included commitment to professional development, which also aligns to passion for learning and pragmatic aspects of passion for subject.

Dedication or commitment is recognised by Kalia (2016) who acknowledges that organisational commitment has so far been examined under different classifications involving different dimensions since the 1950s*.* Kalia finds *‘positive and significant relationships between the teachers’ affective, normative, and continuance commitment and teacher effectiveness’* (2016, p38).This notion of affective commitment allows the positioning of commitment within passion and enthusiasm. It also must be acknowledged, however, that some aspects of commitment, for example, ‘*a sense of obligation’*, rather than emotional attachment to an organisation (ibid) focus on the pragmatic application of passion and enthusiasm. However, in making this acknowledgement, the finding of commitment in advertisements, rather than in interviews, aligns with the view of advertisements as presenting the sanitised, corporate view noted in Chapter 4 – Section 4.6.2. This presents the possibility that commitment is the public face of passion, potentially of emotionless passion. The evidence for this however is inconclusive, with some adverts mentioning both passion and commitment. This is an area that is recommended for further investigation. To explore what schools and college expectations are when they advertise for a committed or passionate teacher in order to examine any areas of congruence or dissonance between them.

For teachers, commitment is considered an indicator of their professional identity alongside motivation (Canrinus et al., 2012). It is acknowledged in Stronge’s model of teacher as person in terms of his ‘*dedication to teaching’* quality (2017, p110). Within this quality it is considered in indicators of ‘*possessing a positive attitude about teaching’*, ‘*spending time outside of school to prepare’* and being a teacher who ‘*seeks professional development’* (ibid). Commitment, potentially due to being person rather than praxis based, is not evidenced in Coe et al.’s (2014) model of teacher effectiveness. Similarly, it may only be inferred through the teacher standards in terms of the expectation that teachers have *‘consistently high standards of personal and professional conduct’* (DfE, 2011, p14). Commitment is, however, explicit in the preamble to the ETF standards through an expectation that teachers ‘*are committed to maintaining and developing their expertise in both aspects of their role to ensure the best outcomes for their learners’* (ETF, 2014, p1).

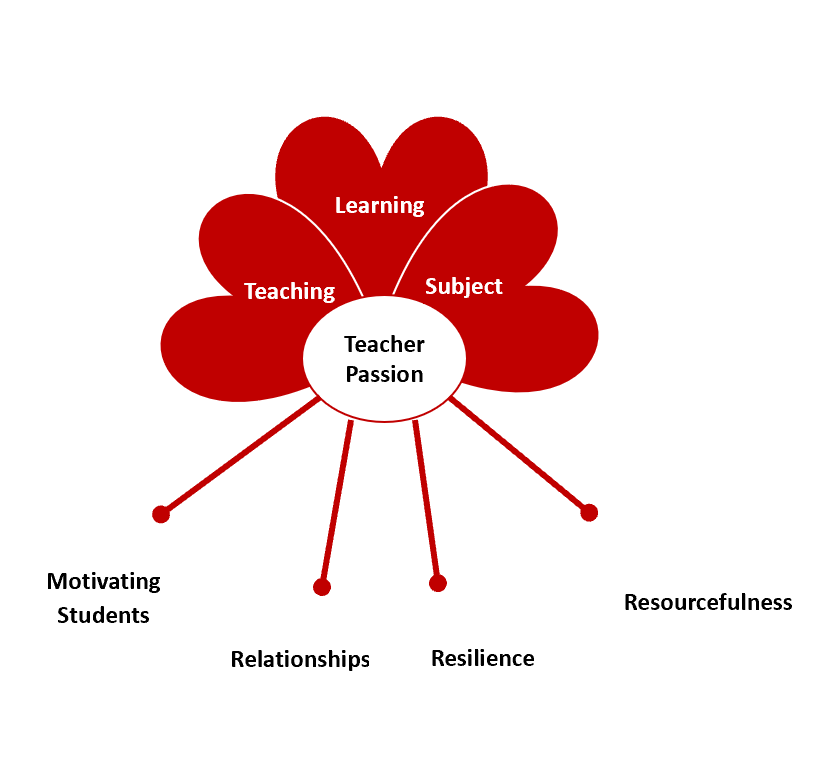
Passion for teaching, passion for learning and passion for subject are therefore intertwined. These findings build upon the previously acknowledged two dimensions of enthusiasm by Kunter et al. (2011). They also affirm recognition of the importance of passion for learning noted by Day (2004) in order to make a key contribution to knowledge. This allows the proposal of a new, tripartite model of teacher passion, with facets of **passion for teaching**, **passion for subject** and **passion for learning** as represented visually in Figure 7.4.This tripartite model is shaped by the findings of this research. The three facets receive comparable attention from highly effective teachers and two facets (passion for subject and teaching) emerged through leader interviews and teacher job advertisements.

Figure 7.4: Tripartite Model of Teacher Passion



#### 7.2.2.2 A Passion-Centric Model of Teacher Effectiveness

The tripartite model of teacher passion does not, however exist in isolation. It sits within the overarching theme of passion and enthusiasm and encompasses the associated characteristics of motivating students, the ability to form positive relationships, resilience, and resourcefulness. This is represented visually in Figure 7.5 and explored in this section. This builds upon the recognition of teacher as person as a key theme and the interrelation of passion with teacher characteristics that emerged from this research.

Figure 7.5: A Passion-Centric Model of Teacher Effectiveness

##### 7.2.2.2.1 Ability to Motivate and Engage Students

Literature in relation to what drives students is predominantly represented through notions of motivation, rather than the teacher centric view of their own passion and enthusiasm (see for example Daniels, Poth, and Goegan (2018) and Wentzel (2016). Stronge (2007) is clear, however, that teacher and student motivation are interlinked (see Chapter 2 - Section 2.2.1). It was motivation that emerged as a characteristic within the passion and enthusiasm theme. This may be analysed in relation to policy through the lens of teacher (DfE, 2011) and ETF standards (ETF, 2014). The ETF standards evidence a greater focus on the impact of teacher as person through categories of ‘*professional values and attributes’*, ‘*professional knowledge and understanding’* and ‘*professional skills’* (ETF, 2014, p5). However, the teacher standards’ categories of *‘teaching and personal conduct’* more closely map to praxis. In the teacher standards (DfE, 2011, p6), the praxis first approach is evidenced in terms of the placing of motivation in the categories of setting high expectations and managing behaviour. In the findings of this research, rather than a praxis first approach teachers responses were focussed on motivating students (see Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.2). In the ETF standards, however, there is consideration of both person and praxis. This is with factors that influence student motivation included though the category ‘*professional values and attitudes: Inspire, motivate and raise aspirations of learners through your enthusiasm and knowledge’* (ETF, 2014, p5). It is here that there is recognition of the passion and enthusiasm of the teacher influencing the enthusiasm, or motivation of the student.

The leaders’ expectation of a teacher to be able to motivate students extended from the need to have a teacher who can motivate and engage to the recognition that relationships formed an essential part of motivating students. Similar views were shared by teachers who considered motivation a consequence of good relationships with students (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1.1 and 6.1.2 respectively). This connection was noted by Wentzel (2016) who confirms a consensus around the link between teacher - student relationships and motivation for both social and academic outcomes. In acknowledging this connect, relationships are considered briefly here in terms of their influence on motivation but will also be considered further as a separate characteristic.

Underlying and underpinning the importance of teacher-student relationships is the view that teachers take personal responsibility for student motivation (Daniels et al., 2018). This notion of a teacher being able to motivate and engage being entwined with relationships is evident as both teacher as person and teacher praxis within Coe et al.’s (2014) model of teacher effectiveness. Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) attribute classroom climate to student to teacher relationships. However, Coe et al.’s (2014) category of classroom climate, whilst acknowledging the teacher as person through classroom climate, has a disconnect from the characteristics. They note the ‘*quality of interactions’,* (2014, p3) rather than referring to motivating students. Similarly, their language is stronger and imperative using the phrase ‘*demanding more’* (ibid) rather than motivating students. This mechanistic view and tone provided by Coe et al. (2014), perhaps due to the dominance of practice within their model, was not one that emerged in interviews. This may be a consequence of the interpretivist stance taken rather than the positivist focus of Coe et al.’s (2014) results focussed model. In Stronge’s (2007) model, however, the motivational quality of a teacher is more explicit through the quality of ‘*caring*’ and the indicator of ‘*creating a supportive and warm classroom climate’* (Stronge, 2007, p110). This caring quality, traverses between a teacher being motivating and forming relationships. Motivation of students is therefore driven in part by the passion and enthusiasm of the teacher and in part by relationships.

##### 7.2.2.2.2 Ability to Form Positive Relationships

Section 2.2.2 of Chapter 2 recognised that passion may be focussed towards activities or people (Perrewé, 2014). This allowed the recognition of relationships as a separate characteristic of passion in addition to their interconnected nature with motivating students (see Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.2.4). The need for an effective teacher to be able to form these positive relationships was represented through leader and teacher lenses and teacher job advertisements (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1). Relationships comprised affective and practical aspects such as communication. It was the practical aspect that had greater focus in teacher advertisements (see Chapter 6 –Section 6.1.4.4).

Relationships are evidenced within both teacher standards (DfE, 2011) and ETF standards (ETF, 2014) with the literature in relation to teacher-student interactions focusing on differing dimensions of relationships. These include rapport (Barr, 2016) and Stronge’s (2007) affective aspects of caring. They extend to a combined person / praxis approach. In doing so they are evidenced by indicators of showing an interest in students’ wider lives, showing ‘*concern for their emotional and physical wellbeing’* and being an active listener (Stronge, 2007, p110). The bridge between person and praxis aspects is documented through Coe et al.’s model via consideration of ‘*interactions with students*’ within their category of ‘*classroom climate’* (2014, p3).

Just as relationships were seen to be a driver of student motivation, relationships and student interactions are an important factor in learning. They increase *‘student connectedness, thereby improving classroom climate’* (Barr, 2016, p1) and enhance not only participation but ‘*consistently [predict]… affective learning, and cognitive learning’* (Frisby and Martin 2010, p146). Consideration of relationships through affective notions of empathy and caring was important to teachers and leaders. For one leader, relationships were more important than subject knowledge, suggesting a person first approach to teaching rather than qualification first approach (see Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.1.3). This once more focuses on the teacher as person as being an influence on teacher effectiveness. This holistic and affective focus suggests the organic formation of relationships that may not be documented as easily and sufficiently within a predominantly praxis model of teacher effectiveness.

The relevance of positive relationships may be seen in light of the knowledge bases considered in Section 7.1 of this chapter. Not all bases were represented through teacher subject qualifications. Some knowledge bases relate to an understanding of students. These relate to of ‘*knowledge of learners – cognitive and empirical and social’* (Turner-Bisset, 1999, p43) and ‘*knowledge of learners and their characteristics’* (Shulman, 1987, p8). Their relevance was acknowledged by teachers who considered them key to their effectiveness. This was both in terms of understanding their students’ abilities but also in terms of having a greater holistic understanding of them. (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1).

Whilst relationships were important to both secondary and FE teachers and leaders, there were twice as many secondary teachers who viewed relationships as important than FE teachers, contrasting with the importance placed upon relationships in ETF Standards (ETF, 2014). This may suggest a changing expectation of relationships of students in FE, with students considered as young adults. In secondary education, teachers working with students aged 11-16 often adopt a more pastoral role. This may, in the interviews have led secondary teachers to consider a relationship first approach to teaching. However, it does not explain the recognition of relationships to FE leaders, with two out of the three FE leaders mentioning relationships explicitly. Similarly, it contrasts with the recognition in section 7.2.1 earlier in this chapter, of a greater focus on teacher as praxis than person in the teacher standards (DfE, 2011). This is an opportunity for further research, to explore the extent to which teacher-student relationships matter in both sectors and how they may differ.

Teacher and leader views provide an insight into the many dimensions of relationships but present a limitation of viewing relationships holistically. To one teacher, or one student, a strong relationship may consist of different dimensions to another. Therefore, examination of the dimensions of the relationships considered important provides a further opportunity for further research.

Whilst relationships are multifaceted and influence motivation and student outcomes, they in turn are influenced by passion, a key finding of this research. Dual aspects of passion and relationships are acknowledged by both Day (2004), Fried (1995) and Stetler (2020). Most recently, Stetler (2020) notes that students document relationships as one aspect of what they would expect from a passionate teacher. Similarly, in his consideration of teacher passion, Day (2004) emphasises the underlying need for relationships in order to serve a teacher’s own morality. This ‘*includes and goes beyond the instrumental policy agendas of governments*’ (Day, 2004, p24). In doing so, he further acknowledges the intrinsically motivated nature of teaching. This affective approach to teaching is expressed openly by Fried:

*‘It’s all about the kids. Teaching is about you and the kids…nothing matters more than your relationship with the students’* (1995, p295).

##### 7.2.2.2.3 Resilience and High Self Expectations

Resilience was a further characteristic within the overarching theme of teacher passion and enthusiasm. Whilst it was only noted as an important characteristic by one of the teachers interviewed and none of the leaders, it was clearly evidenced through teacher interview discourse. Several of the teachers had overcome a range of life challenges in their formative years (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1.3). These may be seen to relate to antecedents of work passion beyond those noted by Zigarmi et al. (2009) in an organisational context and noted in section 7.2.2.1 of this chapter.

Resilience, being the response given by a teacher in the presence of challenges is often related to passion. This interrelation was noted by Vallerand et al. (2008) (see Section 2.2.2 of Chapter 2). It is further supported by Duckworth (2016) who considers resilience in terms of passion and perseverance. This therefore supports the positioning of resilience as a characteristic of passion and enthusiasm. Resilience for some of the teachers interviewed related to prior negative educational experiences. These included exam failure and lack of focus (see Chapter 6 – Section 6.1.3.2). These teachers recognised their experiences as an important aspect of their subsequent effectiveness. For some, they formed the basis of discourse in supporting and sharing their own experience for the benefit of their own students.

Resilience is evidenced in Stronge’s (2007) model in the quality of Dedication to teaching through the ‘*possesses a positive attitude about life and teaching’* (2008, p110) indicator. However, it is not evidenced in Coe et al.’s model (2014) and is not evident either in the teacher standards (DfE, 2011) or ETF standards (2014). It is though, a concept in common usage in relation to both teacher and student attitudes. For example, by Claxton (2002) as one aspect of his proposed four Rs - resilience, resourcefulness, reflection and relationships. Of Claxton’s four Rs, three, those of resilience, resourcefulness, and relationships have emerged as characteristics of teacher effectiveness in this research (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1.1.4, 6.1.2.4, 6.1.3.2 and 6.1.4.4).

The finding of this research, of resilience being a key characteristic of highly effective teachers, concur with those of Bowles, Hattie, Dinham, Scull and Clinton (2014). Here the recognition is that resilience should be a factor in teacher recruitment decisions in order to ensure teacher success. Resilience is also linked to teacher retention (see for example, Ainsworth and Oldfield, 2019). Given that most teachers interviewed had many years’ experience, the findings of this research support this view. However, to assume without further investigation that all passionate people are resilient, and all resilient people have passion would be an oversimplification and overgeneralisation. This, therefore, is an area of recommendation for further work - to examine any possible relationship between resilience and passion and vice versa. This could examine the positionality of resilience within the proposed tripartite model of teacher passion.

Thematically positioning resilience as a characteristic of passion is supported by the acknowledgement of its relationship with harmonious passion as noted by Fisher, Merlot and Johnson (2018). In their research, they found an indirect and direct association between harmonious passion influencing resilience and subsequent success of entrepreneurs. Similar characteristics were noted by Neto, Rodrigues and Panzer (2017) in their research into teacher job satisfaction. This provides insight into the comments by one of the teachers that he had taken time out of teaching with anxiety and depression and had recently returned to work (see Chapter 6 - Section 6.1.3.1). He made no comment that would lead to consideration of the application of obsessive passion (see Chapter 2 - Section 2.2.2 and section 7.2.2 of this chapter). However, he acknowledged that on his return he had a *‘renewed sense of learning*’ that he was transferring into his teaching practice. This suggests that prior to this renewal, diminished passion for learning had impacted on his resilience. This teacher’s absence from work may give an insight into an opportunity to maintain an equilibrium in relation to harmonious passion and resilience. Therefore, an area of further research is to explore the role of a teacher sabbatical in maintaining passion, teacher satisfaction and retention. This supports the vision by Coffield of ‘*expansive rather than restrictive’ learning environments’* in FE supported by teacher sabbaticals (2008, p20) and Damian Hinds’ (DfE, 2018e) acknowledgement that a sabbatical could play a key role in teacher retention. It also adds weight to the recognition by Gorter (2018) of the need to fuel passion to avoid burnout and Zhu (2020) that loss of passion contributes to teacher attrition.

In addition to the association between passion and resilience, passion can also be associated with high self-expectations. When Fried considers passion, he links it to achieving ‘*great things – to create works of art or defend the environment or right social wrongs or create new technologies’* (2004, p17). High expectations were evidenced as a characteristic of five teachers interviewed. They are represented in Stronge’s (2007) model via the quality of reflective practice, through the ‘s*ets high expectations for personal classroom performance’* indicator. Whilst not explicit in Coe et al.’s (2014, p111) model, high self-expectations may be inferred, within Coe et al.’s reflective practice category containing ‘*reflecting on and developing professional practice’* (2014, p3). However, the language utilised in the naming of their category is more praxis, rather than person focussed. High expectations are also evident in terms of both person (teachers’ high expectations of self) and praxis (high expectations of others) in the preamble to the ETF standards (ETF, 2014) and in the teacher standards (DfE, 2011). In the teacher standards, therefore, this creates an imbalance in favour of praxis over person. This was noted by Evans who acknowledges ‘*a lop-sided shape, indicating a professionalism that focuses predominantly on teachers’ behaviour, rather than on their attitudes and their intellectuality’* (2011, p851). At the time of writing, this imbalance perpetuates, with no expectations of any updating of the standards noted by Nick Gibb (the Minister of State for School Standards) (Croner-i, 2019).

##### 7.2.2.2.4 Resourcefulness

Resourcefulness was a characteristic evidenced only in teacher advertisements. It’s representation in the research findings aligns with that of commitment and the pragmatic representation of teacher characteristics viewed through a customer facing lens (Section 7.2.2). Resourcefulness can be explored through synonyms of innovation and creativity, being evidenced in both teacher (DfE, 2011) and ETF standards (ETF, 2014). These synonyms provide greater insight into the positioning of resourcefulness within the theme of passion and enthusiasm. The application of resourcefulness to teacher effectiveness is noted by Walker who comments that ‘*the most effective teachers are resourceful and inventive in how they teach their classes*’(2008, p65). Similarly, Serdyukov and Ferguson (2011) consider resourcefulness to be one of numerous desirable character dispositions. Here the focus on the effective teacher moves beyond the affective skills required of teachers. Resourcefulness blends the affective with the cognitive and is recognised by Stronge’s (2007) model of the effective teacher. Its positioning alongside commitment in Stronge’s model as an indicator of ‘*dedication to teaching’* quality, under ‘*finding, implementing and sharing new instructional strategies’* (2007, p110), supports its inclusion as a characteristic of passion and enthusiasm.

## 7.3 Conclusion

This chapter has drawn upon and analysed the findings of Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 in relation to the overarching research questions (Chapter 1 – Section 1.1.1). It has drawn upon associated theoretical frameworks (Chapter 2), policy (Chapter 3) and extant literature (Appendix A) in relation to effective teaching in order to analyse stakeholders’ perspectives. It has done so in order to explore key characteristics for effective teaching to ascertain whether they relate to subject qualifications or something else.

Chapter 8, which follows will consider how the research questions have been met. It will make recommendations for future practice and will detail the contribution to knowledge provided by this research. It will conclude by documenting professional reflections in relation to the journey travelled from the start of this research to the submission of the thesis.

# Chapter 8: Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter clearly reiterates the research questions and considers how they have been met. It makes recommendations for further research and professional practice and states the unique contribution to the field of knowledge and professional practice provided by this research. It concludes by documenting professional reflections in relation to the distance travelled from the start of this research to the submission of the thesis.

## 8.1 Answering the Overarching Research Question:

What are the key characteristics for effective teaching – subject qualifications or something else?

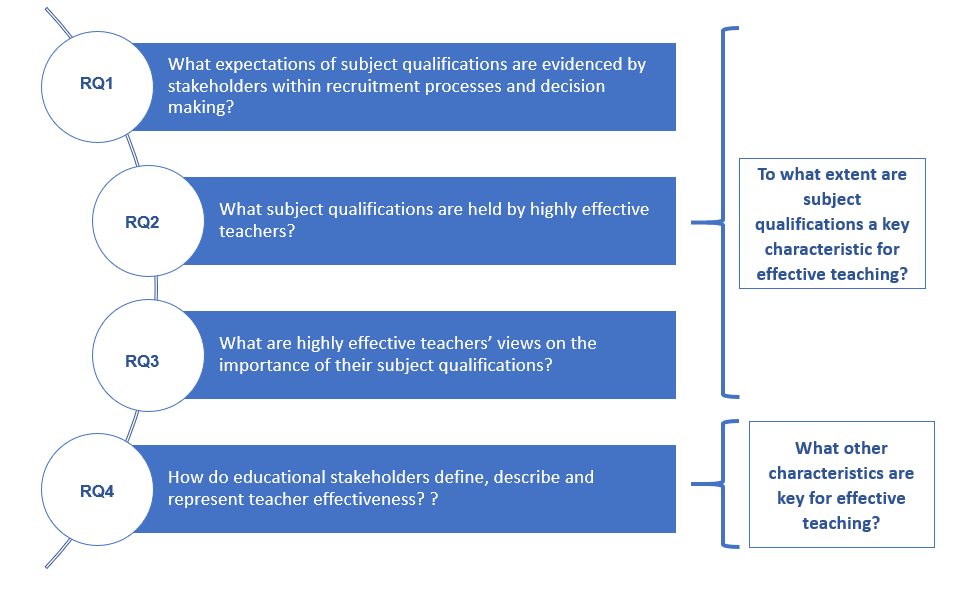
This research aimed to explore whether it was subject qualifications, or other behaviours or characteristics, that were key to teacher effectiveness. It also provided a response to government rhetoric that claims that the most effective teachers are those with the best subject specialist qualifications (DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011; DfE, 2016a; Foster, 2018; Teach First, 2018). This was an issue that was of interest for a number of professional and personal reasons (see Chapter 1 – Section 1.2).

A key finding of this research was that it was characteristics rather than behaviours that were considered important for teacher effectiveness through three stakeholder lenses (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.4). This therefore acknowledges the relevance of teacher as person, rather than praxis (Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.1). It was characteristics beyond qualifications (Chapter 7 –Section 7.2) that were found to be key to effective teaching. In doing so it acknowledged two strands to the research, one exploring teacher subject qualifications and one exploring teacher characteristics.

The sub questions related to this overarching question are shown in Figure 8.1 alongside the relevant strand relating to qualifications or characteristics.

Figure 8.1: Research Strands, Questions and Sub Questions

What are the key characteristics for effective teaching – subject qualifications or something else?



### 8.1.1 To What Extent are Subject Qualifications a Key Characteristic for Effective Teaching?

Research Questions RQ1 to RQ3 sought to explore the extent to which subject qualifications were a key characteristic for effective teaching. This was achieved through a focus on teacher subject qualifications in secondary and further education (FE) through different stakeholder lenses (see Chapter 1 –Figure 1.1). The expectations of qualifications in recruitment processes and decision making was explored through an educational leader lens. This lens utilised interviews that also allowed leader views and definitions of teacher effectiveness to be sought. In addition, a wider organisational lens was utilised in the form of teacher job advertisement examination and analysis (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.4). The qualifications held by highly effective teachers and their view of the importance of their qualifications was explored through the teacher lens through interviews (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.6).

This research found that the results of teacher subject qualifications are not a unique signal of teacher effectiveness for educational leaders in their recruitment processes. Similarly, they were not a key focus in teacher job advertisements (Chapter 7 – Section 7.1). The research findings show that for educational leaders, these qualifications do form one aspect of the overall holistic view of the teacher that they are recruiting (see Chapter 7 –– Section 7.2). In their two-dimensional approach to teacher recruitment, Leaders predominantly viewed qualifications, particularly degree classification, holistically, rather than judging them a sole signal of potential teacher effectiveness. This two-dimensional view evidenced the shiftingemployerexpectations in terms of qualifications and other characteristics noted by Spence (1973). The shifting or variance, however, is not only at a macro or sector level, being secondary or further education. It is also at a micro level in terms of school or college and, in recognition of teacher shortage issues, was a variance that occurred over time (Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2).

Qualifications were considered flexibly and as part of interwoven characteristics sought. This aligns with the view of Staiger and Rokoff (2010) of qualifications as a ‘noisy signal’. The findings of this research suggest that the 2-dimensional approach to teacher recruitment, with qualifications nested within the holistic view of the teacher, may be one way that leaders have found a way through the noise. Alongside the relative unimportance of degree classification to leaders and teachers, the highly effective teachers interviewed evidenced a range of degree and academic results (see Chapter 5 – Section 5.2 and Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2). These findings contrast with the policy representation and focus on the best qualifications (Chapter 3). They do, however, correspond with the findings by Staiger and Rockoff (2010) that teaching applicants with strong academic records are no more likely to be hired by school principals. The findings of the research presented in this thesis therefore provide insight, through an interpretivist lens, into the possible reasoning of educational leaders that underpins Staiger and Rockoff’s (2010) findings. The recognition in the research findings of qualifications not being a unique signal of a teacher’s effectiveness contrasts with Spence’s (1973) and Di Pietro’s (2017) suggestions of qualifications as signals. Instead, the signals to educational leaders were aspects of teacher enthusiasm and passion. This is discussed in Section 8.1.2.

Most teachers who held a degree considered their degree classification unrelated to their effectiveness (Chapter 5 – Section 5.3.3 and Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2). However, an exception was the emergence of a small but relevant voice from some humanities teachers of the importance of their degree result. This suggests a stronger mapping of their subject qualifications, with a more stable curriculum, to Turner-Bisset’s (1999) and Shulman’s (1987) knowledge bases (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2). There was also suggestion from the small number of teachers interviewed who held postgraduate qualifications that they had relevance in supporting stretch and challenge and meeting the higher-level academic needs of some students. This builds upon the recognition by Clotfelter, Ladd and Vigdor (2007) of an association between teachers gaining a master’s degree after entering the teaching profession and their effectiveness (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2). The research found little evidence of any cross-sector divergence in representations of qualifications as a characteristic for effective teaching in leaders, teachers or in job advertisements. If, as posited herein the results of qualifications, particular at degree level are not a signal of effectiveness, knowledge and skills, which are, must gained elsewhere. The findings of this research suggest that they are driven by other signals in the form of the characteristics as explored in Chapter 7 - Section 7.2 and considered in Section 8.1.2.

For higher level qualifications, there is a further contradiction to Spence’s view that the choice to study is extrinsically driven and that people will invest in education ‘*if* *there is sufficient return offered by the wage schedule* (1973, p358). The reasoning behind this may be attributed to the acknowledgement that the model does not consider the notion of employees, not as purely wage driven, but driven by other factors. With teaching recognised by most teachers as a vocation (Heilbronn and Foreman-Peck, 2015; Brookfield, 2017), the qualification signalling model falls short under scrutiny (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2). Therefore, this research finds that a qualifications-based approach to recruitment and policy will fail to take into account wider teaching skills and consequently prevent potentially effective teachers from entering the profession.

Insight into the knowledge and skills gained through a qualification and the experience gained whilst studying for a qualification is provided in this thesis through mapping to Turner-Bisset (1999) and Shulman’s (1987) knowledge bases (see Chapter 7 - Section 7.1). These highlight that only Turner-Bisset’s ‘*substantive subject knowledge*, *syntactic subject knowledge’* and ‘*beliefs about the subject’* (1999, p43) and Shulman’s ‘*content knowledge’* (1987, p8) are substantially met by qualifications. Of all the subject qualifications explored, it was predominantly those at level 3, and to a lesser extent having a degree, that teachers felt corresponded to the knowledge required to teach (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2). Consideration of a proxy of knowledge, therefore, is more closely aligned to level 3 qualifications rather than higher achievement in degree level qualifications. (see Chapter 7 –– Section 7.1.2). Given this and the recognition that degree classification was unimportant to many (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2), an opportunity exists for further research to explore this further. In doing so, this will enable an answer to be sought to the question ‘How much syntactic knowledge is enough for teaching?’

This research has shown that knowledge bases (Turner-Bisset, 1999; Shulman, 1987) are incompletely fulfilled by qualifications (see Chapter 7, Section 7.2). Correspondingly, leaders and teachers do not consider the results of qualifications substantially important for teacher effectiveness. Therefore, this research aligns with the findings of Slater, Davies and Burgess (2012, p629) of qualifications and education not forming an indicator and therefore a signal of effectiveness. In doing so this research acknowledges that wider aspects of knowledge and other characteristics that are key to effective teaching will be found elsewhere (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.2). These are considered in Section 8.1.2 of this chapter that follows.

### 8.1.2 What Other Characteristics are Key for Effective Teaching?

It was teacher as person, rather than teaching praxis, with characteristics rather than behaviours that emerged as a key focus through all three stakeholder lenses examined. The teacher as person and their characteristics though do not sit in isolation. Stronge (2007) (see Chapter 2 – Section 2.2.1) recognises the impact of teacher characteristics on student achievement. Similarly, Spence (1973) acknowledges signals beyond qualifications (see Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.4). In addition, Zigarmi et al.’s (2009) model of work passion acknowledges the consequence of interpersonal characteristics on behaviours. These characteristics were seen in part to correspond with Shulman‘s (1987) and Turner-Bisset’s (1999) knowledge bases. This suggests that whilst qualifications contribute to knowledge bases, the knowledge required for teaching is also a consequence of teacher characteristics. The relevance of teacher characteristics to knowledge bases is a key contribution made by this research and is documented in Table 7.1 of Chapter 7.

A further key contribution to knowledge by this research was the emergence of the theme of teacher passion and enthusiasm as a key factor in teacher effectiveness (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.2). Characteristics within this theme were passion for teaching, learning and a teacher’s own subject. Additionally, teacher or student focussed characteristics of motivating students, the ability to form positive relationships, resilience, and resourcefulness all formed signals of effectiveness (see Chapter 7 - Section 7.2).

### 8.1.3 Proposal of Models of Teacher Passion

The findings of this research provide insight into the characteristics of effective teachers. However, passion and enthusiasm emerged, not only in leader and teacher definitions of teacher effectiveness and teacher job advertisements. Passion and enthusiasm also emerged through the interview discourse and language used by highly effective teachers when discussing their own professional biographies. This research recognises the importance of passion and enthusiasm whilst also finding that in effective teachers, it permeates knowledge bases in a number of ways and influences the range of knowledge required of them (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2).

Passion was evident threefold, with passion for teaching, passion for subject and passion for learning emerging from the research. For the vast majority of teachers who evidenced or defined the characteristic of passion in relation to teacher effectiveness, it was not in relation to a single facet of teaching, learning or subject. Rather it was a combination of two or (for the majority), three facets. Passion for subject and passion for learning were therefore more relevant than teacher qualifications in informing teacher knowledge (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2).

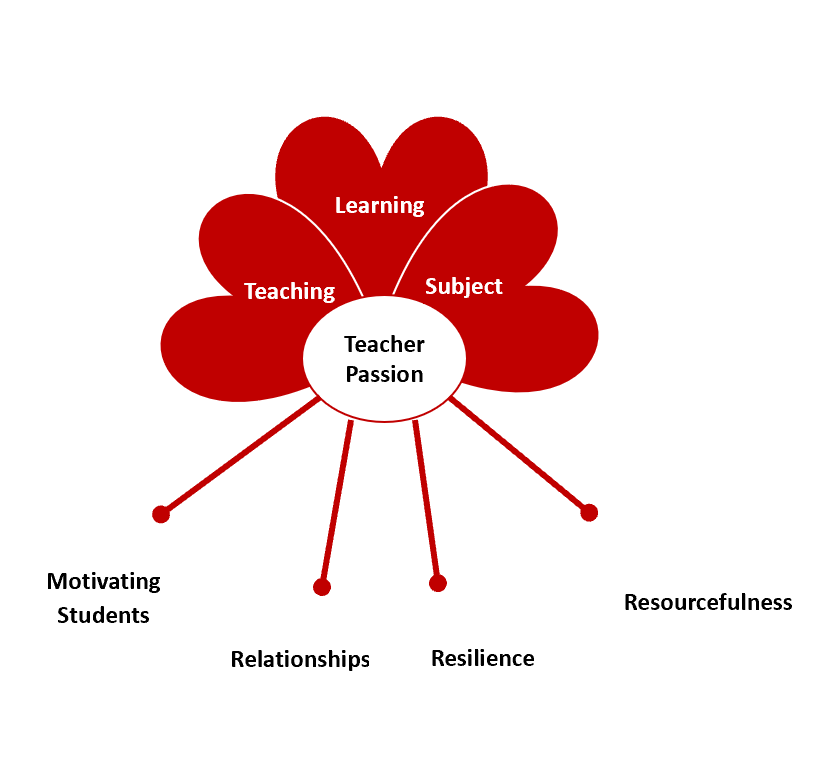
The findings of this research build upon the more widely acknowledged passion for teaching (Fried, 2001; Carbonneau and Vallerand, 2008) and the separate recognition by Day (2004) of passion for learning and development. Similarly, this research builds upon the recognition of the relevance of passion for one’s subject as noted by Stronge (2007) and as acknowledged by Sheridan (2019) in relation to passion for one’s subject area. Furthermore, it extends beyond the findings of Downes and Figg (2019) who report a strategy to improve passion for learning having a positive impact on professional teaching practice.

This research acknowledges the prior research and makes a key contribution to knowledge in the proposal of a tripartite model of teacher passion. This model comprises the aforementioned 3 facets of passion and recognises that passion for teaching, passion for learning and passion for a teacher’s subject informs their effectiveness (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2).

The tripartite model of teacher passion emerged out of this research and is, therefore, a significant contribution to knowledge. It appeared when there was no expectation of what would emerge. As a consequence of the model emerging out of the research, there are several questions that, had multifaceted passion been an expectation going in, could have been addressed. Instead, these unasked questions provide the opportunity for further research. These will be discussed in Section 8.4 that follows.

In acknowledging the tripartite model of teacher passion, the research findings suggest that it is passion and enthusiasm that lies at the heart of effective teacher characteristics (see Chapter 7 - Section 7.2.2.1). Passion is intertwined with associated characteristics of motivating students, forming positive relationships, resilience and high self-expectations, and resourcefulness (see for example, Fried, 1995; Daniels et al., 2018; Stetler, 2020, Serdyukov and Ferguson, 2011; Duckworth, 2016). These are explored in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2). They are therefore immeasurably interwoven in creating a view of an effective teacher, viewed as person. Given the recognition of these separate but intertwined characteristics the tripartite model of teacher passion is therefore developed further to form a passion-centric model of teacher effectiveness as proposed in Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.1 and reiterated in Figure 8.2.

This passion-centric model provides an opportunity to build on the shift in Ofsted policy (EIF, 2019) (see Chapter 3) away from solely outcome focussed views of teacher effectiveness and to make a key contribution to knowledge.

Figure 8.2: A Passion-Centric Model of Teacher Effectiveness

## 8.2 Methodological Reflection

This research undertook an interpretivist approach that sought to overcome problems noted in positivist research into teacher qualifications and effectiveness. These are documented in Chapter 4 – Section 4.1.2 and include those noted by Slater et al. (2012) of assigning individual teachers to students. The adoption of the interpretivist approach allowed aspects of effective teaching to be uncovered that did not solely relate to student outcomes and pedagogical aspects. The research also utilised the additional lens of teacher perceptions (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.4) in an area of research that widely utilises mentor, supervisor and faculty evaluation as the measure of teacher effectiveness (Bardach and Klassen, 2020). This methodological approach allowed the emergence of findings that confirmed the importance noted by Aaronson et al. (2007) of unobservable characteristics in teacher effectiveness (see Chapter 4 - Section 4.1). In exploring teachers’ and leaders’ views, the open questions asked of interviewees played a key role in allowing these potentially unobservable characteristics to emerge. Open questions allowed themes to naturally emerge, out of or outside, of the wide-ranging characteristics, attributes and practices considered important for teachers in the extant literature (see Appendix A – Literature Review). This would not have happened with the adoption of a tick box or similar approach to affirm or disaffirm any preconceived ideas of the researcher or evidenced in the literature. However, a limitation of doing this meant the recognition of themes only at the analysis stage meant that wider exploration was not possible. This limitation, however, provides an opportunity for further research that will be discussed in Section 8.4 of this chapter.

Initial reservations about the complexity of the research due to its cross-sector nature and ensuring an avoidance of it becoming a comparative study were unfounded. Instead, as noted in section 8.4 of this chapter, the cross-sector nature of the research provided further support for viewing teaching as broad profession across secondary and FE rather than supporting any secondary / FE divide (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.3).

The sample choice was a key one in being able to secure participants who were in a position to make an informed and purposeful contribution in their answers to the interview questions. The decision to engage with organisational leaders in secondary schools and departmental leaders in FE schools, was initially a pragmatic one. However, this proved invaluable in providing access to participants who were involved in day to day decision making in relation to teacher effectiveness (see Chapter 4 - Section 4.4). Had interviews in FE been undertaken with organisational leaders, who are not involved in day to day recruitment and appraisal of teachers, the results may have led to an inconsistent focus.

A key personal methodological finding was that a pilot study may not provide all of the answers and may send a researcher in a direction that does not provide the depth of responses required (see Chapter Four - Section 4.6.1). Having now reached the final stages of the Doctorate in Education, I am in a position to make decisions and choices that acknowledge a growth in experience and knowledge. Moving forward, the process of undertaking the EdD has provided me with the confidence that enable greater scrutiny of any future pilot study prior to action.

## 8.3 Contribution to Knowledge

Table 8.1 summarises the contributions to knowledge made by this research which will be discussed in this section. Section 8.1.1 of this chapter noted that the results of teacher subject qualifications are not a unique signal of teacher effectiveness for educational leaders in their recruitment processes. Qualifications instead formed one dimension of a two-dimensional approach to recruitment by educational leaders.

Table 8.1: Summary of Contributions to Knowledge

| **Aspect of research** | **Contribution to Knowledge** | **Location in Thesis** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Teacher Passion** | Proposal of a tripartite model of teacher passion. | Chapter 7: *Section 7.2.2* |
| **Teacher Passion** | Proposal of a passion-centric model of teacher effectiveness. | Chapter 7: *Section 7.2.2* |
| **Teacher Passion** | Passion recognised as a construct of effective teachers. | Chapter 7: *Section 7.2.2* |
| **Knowledge bases** | Mapping of teacher qualifications and characteristics to knowledge bases | Chapter 7:  Table 7.1 |
| **Knowledge bases** | Proposal of an alternative teaching paradigm – that of teaching as passion. | Chapter 7:  *Section 7.2.2* |
| **Methodological contribution** | Depth added to the breadth of inconsistent positivist findings | Chapter 4: *Section 4.1* |
| **Methodological contribution** | Novel epistemological approach in examining teacher qualifications and effectiveness. | Chapter 4: *Section 4.1* |
| **Teacher Qualifications** | Subject qualifications are not a unique signal of teacher effectiveness.  Subject qualifications are a partial proxy of knowledge. | Chapter 7: *Section 7.1* |
| **Teacher Qualifications** | Acknowledgement of a two-dimensional approach to teacher recruitment by educational leaders. | Chapter 7: *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Secondary and Further Education** | Recognition of the subject specialist teacher as a single entity across secondary education and FE. | Chapter 7: *Throughout* |
| **Own professional knowledge** | Recognition that both the process and product of the EdD was important for my own students. | Chapter 8: *Section 8.6* |

The findings of this research suggest the need to follow in the footsteps of Turner-Bisset (2001). In doing so, there is the need to present an alternative against ‘*itemised standards and the lists of qualities, skills and dispositions which dominate the findings from research into effective teaching’* (2001, p39). Turner-Bisset (2001) acknowledges expert teaching as a paradigm. In doing so, she builds upon Squires’ (1999) varied paradigms of teaching that range from teaching as craft to teaching as science (see Chapter 2 – Section 2.1.3). The findings of this research suggest a significant contribution to knowledge through the emergence of passion and enthusiasm as a key theme in relation to characteristics of teacher effectiveness. It therefore allows the presentation of a further paradigm, one of teacher passion*.*

In addition to the proposal of the tripartite model of teacher passion (Section 8.1.3 of this chapter and Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2) and the passion-centric model of effective teacher characteristics (Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.4), my research has taken a novel epistemological approach to exploring teacher subject qualifications. It builds upon research into teacher qualifications that utilised mentor, supervisor and faculty evaluation as the measure of teacher effectiveness (Bardach and Klassen, 2020). The usual positivist approach examines any relationship between teachers’ qualifications and student outcomes. However, the approach taken in this research has been interpretivist. This was utilised in order to access the perceptions of teachers and leaders in relation to the importance of their subject qualifications to their effectiveness. This interpretivist approach (which was also supported by analysis of teacher job advertisements) has not previously been applied to an exploration of teacher qualifications. In doing so, the research findings have made a key contribution to knowledge. The have added depth to the breadth provided in the inconsistent positivist findings in the literature in relation to the importance of teacher qualifications to teacher effectiveness (see for example Cara and de Coulon 2008; Slater, et al., 2012; Shuls and Trivitt, 2015). This has also enabled the mapping of the knowledge gained both in and through the acquisition of qualifications to be proposed (see Chapter 7 – Table 7.1). This therefore provides opportunities for further exploration in this area (see Section 8.4 of this chapter).

In undertaking cross sector research, this research further contributes to knowledge by adding to discussions of parity between secondary and FE teachers. It recognises the subject specialist teacher as a single entity, rather than two distinct entities of secondary teacher or FE teacher. (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2 and Section 7.1.3). This recognition of the same emerging characteristics in effective teachers, whether they be teaching in secondary education or FE, further justifies the recommendation and action following the Wolf Report (2014) that parity be given between FE teachers with QTLS and schoolteachers with QTS (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.3). Whilst this research predated the most recent combined school and college Education Inspection Framework (EIF) (Ofsted, 2019b), the choice to undertake cross sector research is validated by the combined approach to inspection. It therefore acts as a methodological contribution to knowledge into the consistency in findings in relation to teacher characteristics in secondary education and FE.

## 8.4 Recommendations

The findings of this research have provided answers to the research questions (Section 8.1). Contributions to knowledge in the area of teacher effectiveness have also been acknowledged (Section 8.3). In doing so, opportunities present themselves to acknowledge the unanswered questions that emerged out of the research and also to make recommendations in relation to professional practice and policy.

### 8.4.1 Recommendations for Further Research

Chapter 4 – Section 4.3 noted that a common criticism of interpretivist research is that it does not provide generalisability. In doing so, it acknowledged that a special kind of generalisation may be applied, that of a ‘*moderatum generalisation’* (Fairweather and Rinne, 2012, p2). Moderatum generalisation therefore is acknowledged whilst making wider recommendations to local and national policy and practice in this section.

Recommendations for further research were identified in Chapter 7 and are summarised in Table 8.2. They are considered in relation to the identified strands of teacher qualifications or characteristics in this section.

Table 8.2: Summary of Recommendations for Further Research

| **Aspect of research** | **Recommendation** | **Rationale** | **Location in Thesis** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Teacher Qualifications:**  *Higher Level Qualifications* | To explore, via an interpretivist lens, the importance assigned to higher degrees for effectiveness of maths and science teachers. | Positivist research suggests the relevance of higher degrees to maths and science teacher effectiveness. An interpretivist approach may provide more insight into the rationale for this. | Chapter 7:  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Teacher Qualifications:**  *Higher Level Qualifications* | To explore, via an interpretivist lens, the importance assigned to higher degrees for stretch and challenge. | Some teachers suggested higher degrees were key for stretch and challenge.  An Interpretivist lens, focussed on teachers with higher degrees, could explore this in more depth. | Chapter 7:  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Teacher Qualifications:**  *Higher Level Qualifications* | To explore, via an interpretivist lens, the effectiveness and knowledge bases of teachers with doctoral level qualifications. | The literature and findings of the research suggest that there may be an imbalance between high achieving teachers’ and students’ beliefs about their subject. | Chapter 7:  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Teacher Qualifications:**  *Higher Degree Classifications* | To explore further, via an interpretivist lens, the relevance of higher degree classifications for teacher effectiveness in humanities subjects. | The findings of this research suggest some support for the relevance of higher classification degrees for humanities teachers’ effectiveness. | Chapter 7:  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Teacher Characteristics:**  *Relationships* | To explore cross sector multidimensionality of relationships through stakeholder lenses. This could explore what aspects of relationships are considered most important to highly effective teachers. | Different aspects of relationships emerged from the research as being important to different teachers.  Relationships were noted as key to effective teaching by twice as many secondary teachers than FE teachers | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2.2* |
| **Teacher Characteristics:**  *Teacher Passion* | To explore the wider relationship between facets and characteristics of passion and between facets themselves. | To further develop the passion-centric model of teacher effectiveness that emerged out of this research. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2* |
| **Teacher Characteristics:**  *Teacher Passion* | To explore the relevance of maintaining or renewing teacher passion | The findings of this research suggested that time away from work for one teacher helped to renew passion for learning. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2.2* |
| **Teacher Characteristics:**  *Teacher Passion* | To examine any weighting that teachers and leaders may apply to each facet of the tripartite model. | The emergence of the model from the research meant that there was not an opportunity to explore any weightings in relation to each facet. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2.1* |
| **Teacher Characteristics:**  *Teacher Passion* | To examine the extent to which the tripartite model could be applied to other teaching contexts. | The research was only undertaken in FE and secondary education | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2.1* |
| **Teacher Characteristics:**  *Teacher Passion* | To explore the importance of passion through the student lens. | The emergence of the tripartite model has only been through engagement with leaders, teachers, and advertisements. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2.1* |
| **Teacher Characteristics:**  *Teacher Passion* | To specifically explore passion for learning through leader and teacher lenses to explore any areas of congruence or dissonance. | Passion for learning was only evidenced through the teacher and advertisement lens in this research. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2.1* |
| **Teacher Qualifications and Characteristics** | To explore the importance assigned to qualifications though the teacher training gatekeeper lens. | The recognition in the findings that gatekeepers may restrict the flow of graduates with less than good degrees into the profession. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Teacher Qualifications and Characteristics** | To explore the importance that parents and students assign to doctoral qualifications in their college and school selection decisions. | The recognition by one leader of the importance through which her organisation valued a teacher with a doctorate. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.1.2* |

#### 8.4.1.1 Recommendations for further research into teacher subject qualifications

This findings of this research suggest a number of opportunities for research into the importance of teacher subject qualifications for their effectiveness. For example, no maths teachers and only one science teacher, who did not hold a higher degree, were recommended by educational leaders and interviewed as part of this research (see Chapter 7 - Section 7.1). This was not a conscious decision, but rather the consequence of the sampling approach utilised (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.4). There are suggestions in the positivist research in the literature (Goldhaber and Brewer, 1997; Cara and de Coulon, 2008; Shuls and Trivitt, 2015) of the relevance of teachers’ subject qualifications and their effectiveness for maths and science teachers. This, therefore, forms a recommendation for further research. This would explore via an interpretivist lens, the importance assigned to higher degrees for maths and science teachers’ effectiveness. A similar recommendation for further research is to explore the relevance of higher degrees and better degree results in terms of higher classifications for stretch and challenge. This builds on the recognition by some teachers that degree classification and higher degrees can be important for meeting the needs of high achieving students. This would need to be balanced the views represented by some teachers that intellect could be a disadvantage (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.1.2).

Consideration of higher degrees provides a further opportunity for research. The findings of this research suggest that the possibility of an imbalance between the ‘*beliefs about the subject’* (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p43) between teachers with high academic achievement and their students. The recommendation here is to explore via an interpretivist lens the effectiveness and knowledge bases of teachers with doctoral level qualifications. This might focus specifically on their beliefs about their subject.

The emergence of the relative unimportance of results of qualifications left a number of further questions unanswered. In particular, there was an exception evidenced by some humanities teachers in favour of strong results in their subject qualifications. The sample for these teachers was too small to make any generalisations, moderatum or otherwise. Similarly, there was a contradiction of this view by other humanities teachers. However, an area worthy of further investigation is the extent to which strong results in some subject specialisms (beyond the currently noted exception of maths – see Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2) are a signal of effectiveness or a proxy of teacher subject knowledge.

#### 8.4.1.2 Recommendations for further research into teacher characteristics

In addition to the findings of this research providing opportunities for research into the importance of teacher subject qualifications for their effectiveness, further opportunities are also presented in relation to teacher characteristics. The focus here is in terms of teacher passion and also being able to form positive relationships.

Section 7.2.2.2 of Chapter 7 explored the importance, to highly effective teachers, of forming positive relationships. There was evidence of multidimensionality in terms of relationships through stakeholder lenses. There was similarly a variance in the importance of relationships between FE and secondary teachers. This, therefore, presents an opportunity for further research. This could explore these dimensions across secondary and further education to examine the extent to which stakeholders consider different aspects of relationships important for teacher effectiveness.

A number of opportunities to undertake research into teacher passion also present themselves. This might explore the extent to which each facet of passion (teaching, learning or subject) may be sustained across a teacher’s career. This would draw on the recognition by ST Fiachra that it was time out of teaching with anxiety and depression that had allowed a ‘*renewed sense of learning’* that he was transferring into his teaching practice. In doing so, this would support the recognition by Damian Hinds (DfE, 2018e) that a sabbatical could play a key role in teacher retention. It would also contribute to fuelling the passion noted by Gorter (2018) as important to avoid burnout (see Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2.2)

Further research into teacher passion could also examine the extent to which the Tripartite Model of Teacher Passion stands up to wider scrutiny with both teachers and leaders. It could also examine any possible weighting that teachers and leaders apply to each facet. Beyond this, further research could also explore the extent to which the tripartite model could be applied to other teaching contexts, for example, primary and higher education or to explore the importance of passion through the student lens.

The recognition by one leader of the importance through which her organisation valued a teacher with a doctorate in their marketing material (Chapter 7 - Section 7.1.2) also provides an opportunity for further research. This could engage with the intended recipients of the marketing (parents and potential students). It might consider any dissonance or consensus in views between a range of organisational stakeholders.

### 8.4.2 Recommendations for Professional Practice

A key requirement of a Doctorate in Education is a requirement of contribution to professional practice (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006). Accepting moderatum generalisation allows these wider recommendations to professional practice to be made. These recommendations are presented in this section and summarised in Table 8.3

The findings of this research acknowledge that degree classification does not form a signal of effectiveness during the recruitment processes. Similarly, degree classification only formed a partial proxy of knowledge within the holistic view of the teacher. Both of these findings contrast with policy and rhetoric (See for example DfE, 2010; DfE, 2011; DfE, 2016a; Foster, 2018 and Chapter 3 – Section 3.1). The recommendations of this research acknowledge qualifications are not a sole signal of effectiveness and aligns with Shulman’s (1987) caution against a singular focus on knowledge bases (see Chapter 2 - Section 2.1). This presents clear implications for future educational policy. It suggests the need for change, to ensure that applicants with potential, but not having a higher-class degree are not deterred or discouraged from entering the profession. This may have implications in particular for shortage areas and contrasts with the remuneration-based view of Hanushek (1986). It also contradicts government policy (see Chapter 3 - Section 3.2 and 3.3) that increasingly incentivises the candidates with the best degrees to enter the profession. The findings of this research suggest that the single-minded policy focus on enticing graduates with the ‘best degrees’ (who are less likely to enter teaching anyway (Ballou, 1996)) is an unnecessary one. This could have positive implications in terms of diversity too. As Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.3 noted, social class and ethnicity influence degree results and uptake and access to teacher training routes (Bratti, Naylor and Smith, 2001; Parker, 2010). This in turn perpetuates the absence of wider ethnicities within education. Any approach which was more holistic and less results focussed could convey a more inclusive and diverse message in terms of teacher recruitment. On this basis, the findings of this research suggest that the reference to ‘best degrees’ or ‘best qualifications’ as represented in policy at a local and national level be subdued. Alongside this, consideration should be given to a pilot study to attract teachers who may demonstrate less than the currently favoured qualifications. This pilot study should favour a more holistic view of characteristics for effective teaching. These findings echo those of Bardach and Klassen (2020) that cognitive ability is not a clear indicator of subsequent teacher effectiveness. This will need to be carefully balanced against any impact on the professionalism of teaching. However, is not without precedent, for example with the introduction of the 1951 and 2013 Troops to Teacher Initiative (DfE, 2013) (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.2).

The recognition by this research of the centrality of passion and enthusiasm to teacher effectiveness has reiterated teaching as an intrinsically motivated profession. This acknowledgement, in particular the recognition of passion for a teacher’s own learning, contrasts with the view in relation to some workplaces and espoused by Spence that people will invest in education if there is *‘sufficient return offered by the wage schedule’* (1973, p358). This has implications for bursaries and incentives to enter the profession. This should specifically include those (evident until very recently) that aim to entice applicants with first class degrees. The findings of this research, therefore, contribute to research which examines the effectiveness of bursaries, not only in attracting teacher applicants but the extent to which they subsequently remain in the profession. A review of any future degree class focussed bursary distribution is therefore recommended.

Whilst proposing the tripartite model of teacher passion, the recommendations for professional practice echo the caution suggested by Kunter and Holzberger (2014, p95). Whilst recognising the importance of passion, they suggest that there should not be a rush to employ teachers akin to those shown in popular films such as *Dead Poets Society* or *Dangerous Minds*. The passion-centric model of teacher effectiveness suggested herein acknowledges that other teacher characteristics act as signals and both interact with and inform teacher effectiveness and should not be overlooked.

Aspects of the findings of this research (Chapter 7 – Section 7.2.2) have already been implemented into my own professional practice in relation to the importance of teacher passion. In leading on the interview processes within my own organisation, I have implemented an interview question designed to extract passion in its varying forms from applicants to the PGCE in Post Compulsory Education and Training. Appendix K shows anonymised responses to the broad question ‘Why do you want to teach?’ which is followed up with ‘Why your subject?’ It is proposed that wider recruitment processes and questions should take a similar approach in order to recruit the candidates who demonstrate these facets of passion. This would focus less on qualifications. It would also contribute to Ofsted expectations that candidates who are recruited to teacher training courses have the potential to be ‘*become at least good teachers at the end of their training’* (2018, p47). To support this, further research is recommended to explore the views of teacher training gatekeepers. This is noted in Table 8.2 of this chapter alongside wider recommendations for further research.

The blurring of a vocational / academic binary emerged through this research. In recognising the post incorporation diversity in subjects taught in FE (see Chapter 3 – Section 3.3), the findings of this research suggest that this is an opportunity to look again at these categorisations. A starting point would be to consider that defining the two sectors does not continue on such binary lines and may comprise an ‘artisanal’ education category which more suitably fits arts-based subjects and acknowledgement that both sectors offer academic, vocational and artisanal education.

A final recommendation relates to the recognition of the relevance of teacher as person in relation to teacher effectiveness (see Chapter 7, Section 7.2.1). In light of this, it is suggested that this should be more consistently applied to the teacher standards (DfE, 2011) and widened to recognise more specifically enthusiasm and passion in both ETF (2014) and DfE (2011) standards.

Table 8.3: Summary of Recommendations for Professional Practice

| **Aspect of research** | **Recommendation** | **Rationale** | **Location in Thesis** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Teacher Qualifications** | That there is a need for change to ensure that applicants with potential, but not having a higher-class degree, are not deterred or discouraged from entering the profession. | A more holistic focus that is less focussed on qualifications results could encourage a more diverse but effective workforce. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Teacher Qualifications** | That reference to ‘*best degrees’* or ‘*best qualifications’* as represented in policy at a local and national level be subdued.  That consideration be given to a pilot study to attract teachers who may demonstrate less than the currently favoured qualifications. | This research has shown that the majority of effective teachers do not consider the results of their qualifications as key to their effectiveness.  The need for a more holistic view of the teacher applicant is evident through teacher interviews and supported by the literature. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Teacher Qualifications** | That there is a review of any degree class focussed bursary distribution. | This research has shown that the majority of effective teachers do not consider the results of their qualifications as key to their effectiveness. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Secondary and FE Education** | That there is a review of the terminology in terms of an academic vocational binary in favour of one which more accurately represents the 21st century secondary and FE sectors. | Research findings show that teachers in vocational areas have degrees.  Some subjects, e.g., Art or Dance, may not be easily categorised as either vocational or academic. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.1.2* |
| **Teacher Characteristics** | That teacher recruitment processes[[12]](#footnote-13), practices and policy utilise the passion-centric model of teacher effectiveness | This research has presented the passion-centric model of teacher effectiveness following engagement with stakeholders. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2* |
| **Teacher Characteristics** | That greater attention is paid to maintaining each facet of teacher passion to contribute to greater teacher retention and wellbeing. | Findings suggested time away from work for one teacher helped to renew passion for learning[[13]](#footnote-14).  This builds on the suggestion for sabbaticals by Hinds (DfE, 2018e) and Gorter (2018) of the need to fuel passion to avoid burnout. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2* |
| **Teacher Characteristics** | That teacher as person becomes more consistently applied to teacher professional standards | The prominence of the person-centred findings for teacher effectiveness suggest that a greater focus on teacher as person is necessary. | *Chapter 7:*  *Section 7.2.2* |

## 8.6 Reflections

My reflexivity as a researcher built on my reflective skills as a teacher. This had a key impact on data analysis, meaning that every decision, every code, categorisation or emerging theme was examined in numerous ways. This helped to ensure that any possible unintentional or unconscious bias was not driving the findings in any particular direction. The recognition that each decision made was supported by a clear rationale for its inclusion or exclusion (discussed throughout Chapter 7) helped to instil confidence that quality was achieved. In addition, the multiple lenses and different voices utilised helped to ensure the three questions required of quality in qualitative research were answered (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.3).

Beyond the quality focussed reflexivity, however, as I came to the final stages of the research, I started to examine any unexplored avenues, articles or recollections that may aid my final reflections. With this in mind, I read the foreword to Christopher Day’s book ‘*A passion for Teaching’*, (Day, 2004). This foreword, provided by Robert Fried, presented me with the realisation that my doctoral journey had come full circle out of a wilderness that I had been guided to avoid. In his foreword Fried (2004) acknowledges that only recently had research into teacher passion started to be accepted into the inner circle of academy. My initial considerations of researching inspirational teaching were met by similar concerns regarding the measurability or acceptability of such a subjective issue. At the start of my doctoral journey, as a novice researcher, I did not explore this further. Instead, I accepted that this would prove problematic and might be viewed by some as lacking in academic rigour. With hindsight however and with the skills and confidence developed along my journey, I would be tempted to challenge this view. I would seek alternatives and be prepared to justify my proposal. Despite this though, as with many detours in life, this academic refocus informed my journey to examine effective teaching. Furthermore, it influenced an ontological stance that teaching was more than that which can be measured (see Chapter 4 – Section 4.1).

This doctoral journey has not been an easy one, particularly juggling the multiple identities that emerged along the way. Submitting a reflective article for BERA allowed me to acknowledge that I was a teacher at heart and became a contribution to my own knowledge that I could share with my students. Although this reflection took place one year ago, the relevance continues at the time of submitting this thesis. I would always put my students first, but I recognised that both the process and product of the EdD was important for them too:

*‘My doctoral identity and experiences feed into my teaching and professional practice, from approaches to student recruitment and lecture content to the guidance provided to students at tutorials. I have gained greater insight into student realities and emotions and can provide hard-earned practical advice and guidance about managing workloads, avoiding procrastination and knowing when to take a break. The doctorate is providing me with the credibility of someone who has walked alongside students and shared their journey whilst they share mine’*

(Murray, 2019).

## 8.7 Dissemination

Whilst the completion of the Doctorial journey may be seen as the submission of thesis and subsequent viva, dissemination forms a critical ‘*future oriented’* element(Denicolo, Reeves and Duke, 2018, p6). Through dissemination the researcher is able to achieve impact through their work (ibid). The dissemination strategy for this research involves a combination of practitioner publications and peer reviewed journals in addition to presentation at a relevant conference. In taking this approach, contributions to both knowledge and practice, the key Doctoral aims, are achieved. The dissemination strategy for this research is noted in Table 8.4

*Table 8.4 – Dissemination Strategy*

| **Dissemination Medium** | **Title** | **Comment** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Practitioner Publication** | *Impact* – Professional Journal of Chartered College of Teaching | Predominantly Schools focussed journal |
| **Practitioner Publication** | *Intuition* – Professional Journal of Society for Education and Training | FE Focussed |
| **Conference** | *UCETT* Annual Conference | Relevant to both FE and secondary  UK Focussed |
| **Journal Article** | *JET* International Journal of Education for Teaching | Relevant to both FE and secondary  International |

## 8.8 Conclusion

This chapter has considered how the research questions have been met and has made recommendations for future research and professional practice. It has detailed the contribution to knowledge provided by this research. It has concluded by documenting professional reflections in relation to the distance travelled from the start of the doctorate to submission of the thesis.

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Key Characteristics for Effective Teaching: Subject Qualifications or Something Else?

Appendices

Sandra Murray

# Appendix A: Literature Review

Sandra Murray

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Literature Review:

10,440 Words

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1. In search of the effective teacher

This literature review will underpin proposed research into the extent to which teacher qualifications are an indicator of effectiveness. This section will achieve this by first exploring the interest in teacher effectiveness before setting out the structure of the review.

A natural starting point when considering teacher effectiveness, with teaching as a policy driven profession, is to explore the views of policy makers who continue to insist that children deserve the best teachers (DfE, 2015 ; Ofsted, 2013). With this in mind and the benefits of being taught by the best teachers supported by a range of empirical research (Muijs, 2005; The Sutton Trust, 2011; Slater, Davies, and Burgess, 2012; Mincu, 2013) identifying and ensuring this high quality teaching is clearly an area of interest. However, this interest applies, not only to policy makers but to a range of parties involved in education – from head teachers to teachers and to the general public with a vested interest in their children’s education.

What is not so clear is that which may be considered the holy grail of teaching: W*hat is it that makes a great teacher?* The ability to define and recreate this notion of a great teacher remains elusive, with many viewing it a near impossible task and suggesting that the qualities that make a teacher great may not be so easily pinned down (Goldhaber and Anthony, 2004; Slater, Davies, and Burgess, 2012). Despite this difficulty, researchers continue to pursue the area in detail, considering an array of teacher qualities, attitudes and characteristics in search of the secret behind their effectiveness.

In order to investigate these areas, this literature review will continue in Section 2 and will explore this vast area of what constitutes teacher effectiveness in terms of varying definitions, expectations and wide ranging qualities, attitudes and characteristics that have been noted in the research. In Section 3, consideration will be given to how effective teaching can be measured and the options to achieve this will be analysed. Following this, in Section 4, teacher knowledge and qualifications as a representation of that knowledge will be explored, drawing on theoretical frameworks to support the notion of teacher knowledge. Section 5 will consider the empirical research into teacher qualifications and effectiveness, before moving to Section 6 in which the factors that underpin teacher qualifications are explored further, drawing on issues of heterogeneity and social inequality. Finally, in Section 7, future directions will be considered and the scope for innovative research will be noted.

2. So many aspects of effective teaching and so much interest

Having noted the interest in teacher effectiveness in Section 1, this section will move this forward, commencing with a comprehensive rationale that draws on varying views and definitions of effective teaching. It will explore expectations of teachers in terms of government policy and teacher professional standards and will continue by further narrowing the focus to explore the characteristics that are considered to underpin effective teaching. This section will conclude by narrowing to one specific aspect of teacher effectiveness - that of teacher qualifications that will form a key area for the proposed research.

Why effective teaching?

The justification for an interest in teacher effectiveness is recognised in a number of areas, including outcomes for students, producing a skilled workforce and competing in a global economy (Mincu 2013; Leitch, 2006). Finding the key to teacher effectiveness has implications for teacher recruitment and in teacher training and assessment (The Sutton Trust, 2011; Kane, Rockoff and Staiger, 2008 and Slater et al., 2012). Furthermore, the recognition of the importance of having an effective teacher is noted by Slater et al. (2012, p643) who comment that “*Having a good teacher as opposed to a mediocre or poor teacher makes a big difference”.* Prior to moving to consider determinants of effective teaching, it is important to first explore definitions and constituent parts.

What is effective teaching?

With government rhetoric which is reproduced in recruitment policies considering the best teachers to be those with the best qualifications (Department for Education, 2015b) this notion of effective teaching is worthy of further investigation. Determining precisely what effective teaching is, is made difficult by a lack of consensus of terminology amongst professionals as noted by Coffield and Edward (2009) who note varying terms including, good, best or effective teaching. The view of effective teaching may differ according to the interested parties for example an educational provider, whether they are in compulsory or post compulsory education will be heavily driven by external factors and outcomes (Coffield, 2012; Perryman, Ball, Maguire, and Braun, 2011). These outcomes are traditionally seen as specific outputs in terms of qualifications and test results. Indeed, the presence of Ofsted regulation in the judgement of the quality of teaching adds further evidence to this view. However even views of effective teaching are fluid when viewed under the omni-changing frameworks produced by Ofsted (see September 2012, September 2013, September 2014, April 2014 and September 2015). This is something apparent in recent Ofsted guidance to remove their previously preferred teaching approach of collaborative learning from any inspection reports (Kemp, 2014.) and their decision to remove ‘satisfactory’ as a judgment grade in September 2012 (Ofsted, 2012)

Effective teaching can also be considered in terms of superlatives with Inspirational teaching being a phrase frequently found in literature (Sammons, Kington, Lindorff-vijayendran, Ortega, and Riggall, 2014; Slater et al., 2012). According to Sammons et al (2014, p4) Inspirational teaching can be considered as

“*Exciting, innovative and/or creative, involve immediate student engagement in the classroom* or have a *lasting effect on student aspirations and self-concept or interest in a particular subject”*

What is noticeable though, from this comment is the focus on what, when compared to Ofsted’s frameworks (Ofsted, 2015b, 2015c), would be considered to be unmeasured outcomes.In contrast to the notions of innovation and engagement noted by Sammons et al (2014), Coe et al. (2014) consider *great teaching* and suggest that great, rather than inspirational teaching is determined by government policy*.*  They suggest thatthis notion of great teaching, recognised by government policy, can be narrowed to six components. Coe et al. (ibid) further draw on literature from both USA and UK and, whilst recognising that *great teaching* hassix components, they note that only pedagogical content knowledge and quality of instruction have strong evidence of impact on student outcomes (Coe et al, ibid). It should be noted, however that, when considering teacher effectiveness, student outcomes is just one approach to measuring teacher effectiveness, despite policy focus suggesting otherwise. Section 3 will explore this further.

Teacher standards

Teacher standards, as laid down by professional bodies and government policy are a natural area of exploration when exploring teacher effectiveness. They document specifically what is expected of teachers in both the compulsory sector[[14]](#footnote-15) (Department for Education, 2013) and in the post compulsory sector.[[15]](#footnote-16) The recognition of a framework for teacher standards and expectations of effective teachers is clearly visible from the outset of a teacher’s career and is represented by the relevant teaching standards. It should be noted that the standards for teachers in the compulsory sector are based on minimum expectations of teaching practice (Department for Education, 2013). Conversely, the standards for teachers in the post compulsory sector are considered to be *aspirational* (Society For Education and Training, 2015). This is one clear inconsistency between the standards in the two sectors.

Neither teacher standards are static, they are continually evolving, with updates in school standards in 2013 which replaced the combined TDA / GTC[[16]](#footnote-17) standards. The evolving nature of these standards is also evident within the post compulsory sector, with the associated standards undergoing a major overhaul in 2014 with the move from standards provided by Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK) to those documented by the emerging Education and Training Foundation (ETF, 2014).

The teacher standards address a number of areas in relation to expectations of effective teachers, ranging from planning, assessing, behaviour management and interpersonal qualities, with a specific section referring to the need for “*good subject and curriculum knowledge* in order to *foster and maintain pupils’ interest in the subject, and address misunderstandings” (DfE, 2013, p12).* There are clear commonalities between these standards, with themes including behaviour, equality, diversity and inclusion, differentiation and assessment evident throughout both sets of standards. (See Appendix 1 for detailed analysis and comparison of these standards). Of specific interest to us for the proposed research is the area of teacher knowledge, and area that is clearly evidenced within the both sets of standards. This notion of teacher knowledge will be explored further in Section 4.

Figure 1 : Knowledge representation in teacher professional standards

Teacher Standards

*Have a secure knowledge of the relevant subject(s) and curriculum areas, foster and maintain pupils’ interest in the subject, and address misunderstandings*

*Demonstrate a critical understanding of developments in the subject and curriculum areas, and promote the value of scholarship* (DfE, 2013)

ETF Standards

*Maintain and update knowledge of your subject and/or vocational area* (ETF, 2014)

Teacher characteristics, qualities and behaviours for effective teaching

There is a wide range of, teacher characteristics, qualities and behaviours that continue to be explored in relation to effective teaching. Research explores areas ranging from teacher motivation (Gu and Day, 2006; Kunter et al., 2011; Firestone 2014) to teacher professional development (Orr, 2008; Boyle et al., 2004). Whilst research into motivation in education has primarily focussed on student rather than teacher motivation (Richardson et al., 2014) the impact of teacher motivation and in turn to student motivation and learning, as noted by Richardson and Watt (ibid) is an area of growing interest to those who are exploring teacher effectiveness (Kunter et al, 2011). This is allied with issues of a motivated teacher in turn motivating learners and leading to improved outcomes for learners.

Teacher resilience is also of particular interest when considering teacher effectiveness and is noted by Gu and Day (2006). They make it clear that an understanding of resilience is instrumental in improving teacher quality and effectiveness. Gu and Day (Ibid) further note the justification behind an interest in teacher resilience in terms of a positive relationship with outstanding teaching. The import of resilience as a teacher characteristic is further noted by Ofsted in their inspection reports of Initial Teacher Education Ofsted comment on the requirement for Resilient trainees (Ofsted, 2011). Interestingly though, the focus on resilience is absent from the latest Initial Teacher Training Inspection Handbook (Ofsted, 2015a).

This breadth and diversity of research is indicative of the interest in the area though for the purposes of the proposed research, the field needs to be narrowed considerably in order to focus on the specific area of interest – the extent to which teacher qualifications are an indicator of teacher effectiveness. However, prior to doing this consideration must be given to how teacher effectiveness may be measured.

3. How do you measure teacher effectiveness?

The question of why it is important to measure teacher effectiveness (rather than just to ensure it occurs) also leads to consideration of the role of teacher evaluation. This section will explore how effective teaching may be measured, drawing on methods ranging from observation, student outcomes in terms of value added models and student evaluation.

Teacher evaluation (in which the a judgment is made is to the quality of teaching) is noted by Firestone (2014) who comments as to its import in employment issues in relation to recruiting, maintaining and dismissing teachers.This outcome driven approach to assessing and evaluating teaching is further discussed by Muijs (2005) who considers the relevance of teacher effectiveness research to *policy* makers. In particular, he specifies the rationale behind this interest and suggests that teacher evaluation is based upon *accountability* and inspection.

An exploration of the extent to which qualifications are a measure of a teacher’s effectiveness, requires that attention be given to how that effectiveness may be measured. This will allow analysis and comparison of the alternative methods. There is a clear focus in teacher effectiveness research on measured outcomes (Buddin and Zamarro, 2009; Clotfelter, Ladd, and Vigdor, 2010; Metzler and Woessmann, 2012). These measured outcomes, focussing on the product of learning are necessitated by the target driven approach to funding, grading and quality control that is evident in both the compulsory and post compulsory sectors. It is only to be expected, therefore that the dominant methods and approaches of measuring teacher effectiveness are shaped on the same model.

Approaches to measurement including classroom observation, value added models and student ratings have proved to be the most effective and are supported by notions of their validity, however, this is not clear cut as Coe et al. (2014, p4) suggest they can only be considered to have “*moderate validity”.* The methods utilised to analyse teacher effectiveness are further noted by Muijs (2005) who too considers classroom observation and surveys of students as widely used. However, he also notes the appropriateness of surveys and interviews of teachers. It can be seen that classroom observation can be utilised, as noted previously, in terms of both product and process (product being the outcome of learning with process being the observed teaching practice). The methods utilised to analyse teacher effectiveness are further noted by Muijs (2005) who also considers classroom observation and surveys of students as widely used. However, he also notes the appropriateness of surveys and interviews of teachers, in addition to students, providing another lens through which teaching may be evaluated (Brookfield, 1995).

Figure 2 - Approaches to teacher Evaluation (Coe et al, 2014)

**Approaches that demonstrated moderate validity in signalling effectiveness**

* Classroom observation
* Value added models
* Student ratings

**Approaches had limited evidence in signalling teacher effectiveness:**

* Principal or head teacher judgement
* Teacher self-report
* Analysis of classroom artefacts and teacher portfolios

What is particularly interesting in light of these findings is the recent decision by Ofsted to incorporate analysis of students work as a key element of the triangulation of data on which they will formulate a judgement of teaching quality (Ofsted, 2013a). It is important therefore to now explore the effectiveness of using these particular aspects of triangulated data, notably observation, outcomes for students and learner evaluation.

Classroom observation

Classroom observation has been adopted across both the compulsory and post compulsory sector for a number of years (O’Leary, 2006). However in light of research, primarily undertaken by O’Leary (2006) noting the limitations of observation as a valid tool for measuring teacher quality, organisations are moving away from this as a single method of evaluation. This is supported by actions of Ofsted who, in 2014, specified that they would no longer grade individual lessons when undertaking inspections and is embedded within the current Ofsted framework. (Ofsted, 2015b, 2015c)

In more recent research, O’Leary (2015) emphasises that in order for classroom observation to remain a valid method of evaluation, those who undertake classroom observations should undergo relevant training to ensure consistency in grading and feedback. Additionally he notes that a single lesson in itself, or a single observer should not be used as the basis of teacher evaluation as it is cannot be reliable. Instead, he suggests “*pooling the results of observations by multiple observers of multiple lessons.”* (O’Leary, 2015). If teacher effectiveness is to be measured using observations, then clearly reliability is an essential characteristic in order to ensure its value to all parties.

Value Added Models and outcome driven approaches

The notion of using Value Added Models as a means of measuring teacher effectiveness is becoming increasing prevalent across both the school and FE sectors and is evidenced by Ofsted Inspection frameworks (Ofsted, 2015b, 2015c). These value added models are again outcome driven and note the difference in learner outcomes from entry to exit. Teachers in the post compulsory sector are regularly advised that they will be judged on ‘Value Added’ and in schools the focus is the same, but under a different name. Key to all of this is the progress of the learners, and teachers are asked to evidence this in each lesson and in student progress overall. This consideration of returns the discussion back to the measurable outcomes of learning and is “*highly dependent on the availability of good outcome measures”* (Coe et al, 2014). This availability of outcome measures is somewhat problematic. The nature of the outcome measures is important in this discussion and may vary between examinations, teacher assessments for short tests. Performance in a test is only indicative of performance on a particular day and time and is subject to a range of factors from health, gender, self-efficacy and motivation. As Coe et al (2014) further consider the shortcomings of utilising a value added approach to measure teacher effectiveness, not in terms of the influences on assessment outcomes, but in relation to the variables utilised and comment that:

”*the* r*esults can be quite sensitive to some essentially arbitrary choices about which variables to include and what assumptions underpin models”* (Coe et al, 2014, P4).

Similarly, the move of the British government to coursework only GCSE qualifications, a move which recognised the variability in performance, has been subject to a U turn under the instruction of the then Education Secretary, Michael Gove (Department for Education, 2014). Given the aforementioned discussion, when measuring teacher effectiveness in terms of outcomes it is essential to include an accurate measurement of their progress.

Student evaluation

As noted, previously, student evaluation has been adopted widely in Higher Education and is having increased importance in the compulsory and post compulsory sector (Coe et al., 2014). This is further evidenced by Ofsted’s introduction of Parent and Learner view (the former for the compulsory sector and the latter for the post compulsory sector). These surveys are used to gather information from interest parties as noted in order to inform their inspection judgements, though the extent to which they achieve this is questionable. Validity is a key consideration in terms of student surveys, though Coe et al (ibid) note that research supports their use in schools, their suggestion that there is more evidence of validity in higher education suggests that there are inconsistencies between the use of surveys in each sector.

The judgements that are made in relation to frameworks continue to be ultimately outcome based (Ofsted, 2015b, 2015c). What cannot be denied, though is the ease with which these surveys can be delivered and completed (Coe et al, 2014). In a similar vein, Mather and Seifert (2014) identified that, whilst student evaluations were a regular occurrence, the main focus of managers in the compulsory sector seemed to be on performance data and student recruitment and retention.

This approach in using learner evaluations draws on Brookfield’s (1995) theory in which teachers reflect through a range of lenses to inform evaluation. In this case, learner evaluation links to consideration of the student lens. Brookfield (1995) also suggests that reflection can be achieved through the eyes of peers (which fits with peer evaluation), and their own eyes (building on the notion of self-reflection). Interestingly it is these 3 lenses[[17]](#footnote-18) that are considered the least effective approaches to teacher evaluation (Coe et al., 2014).

4. Teacher qualifications and knowledge

In this section, the focus will move from how teacher effectiveness is measured towards the specific element that will underpin the proposed research, that of teacher knowledge. It will commence by exploring the position of teacher knowledge within expectations of teachers and will draw on government policy in relation to qualifications as a representations of a teacher’s knowledge. From this it will move to note the relevance and import of models of teacher knowledge. Following this, two key models will be explored as presented by Shulman (1986) and more recently by (Turner-Bisset, 2001) .

Prior to commencing an exploration of empirical research into teacher qualifications as a predictor of effectiveness, it is important to note and briefly discuss qualifications that are a pre-requisite to teaching. A range of research has explored *professional* teaching qualifications and their influence upon teacher quality across the sectors (Cara and Coulon, 2008; Kane et al., 2008; Mincu, 2013). It is therefore important to explore these briefly in terms of literature as professional teaching qualifications are often examined alongside and amongst research into teacher characteristics and also the narrower field of teacher subject qualifications.

Teacher professional qualifications

Teacher professional qualifications, in terms of pedagogical approaches and profession specific qualifications have, until recently been seen as an essential prerequisite for entry to teaching in the compulsory sector[[18]](#footnote-19). Conversely the need for teaching qualifications within the post compulsory sector has followed an inconsistent path with the introduction of mandatory teaching qualifications in 2007 and their becoming optional in 2012 following the Lingfield report (Lingfield, 2012) that recommenced deregulation of teacher qualifications in the post compulsory sector..

Research in relation to teacher training is aligned to issues of teacher effectiveness. Indeed, “*enhancing teacher quality is intrinsically linked to the quality of initial and continuing teacher education programs”* (OECD, 2012, in (Mincu, 2013), p2). Teacher training may not necessarily be in the form of pre-service or initial teacher training. As The Sutton Trust (2011, p2) note, improving teacher effectiveness would result in “a *major impact on the performance of the country’s schools”.* They further note that a significant improvement would occur if the bottom 10% of teachers could be improved to match those of the average teacher.

Professional teaching qualification are also important. In particular, (Cara and Coulon, 2008), who conducted research into teacher qualifications in the post compulsory sector, found strong evidence of increased progress in learners who have qualified teachers. They noted in particular that consideration of wider characteristics of teachers, for example, age, gender and entry qualification did not influence the outcomes when drawn into the issue of teacher professional qualifications. Cara and Coulon (2008) propose a link between the quality of qualification, the quality of teaching and the outcomes for learners and further note that, when drawing on research into literacy teaching, the progress for learners is higher for those whose teachers have both generic and literacy or ESOL[[19]](#footnote-20) teaching qualifications.

Government policy in relation to teacher qualifications

The Schools’ White Paper (2010) heralded continuing incentivisation for entrants with higher degree classifications to the teaching profession and this is a key driver behind the proposed research into teacher qualifications. The legacy of this report, which also noted the removal of funding for applicants with lower class degrees, has continued with current incentives awarding graduates increased funding (in the form of bursaries) depending on the classification of their degree (BIS, 2015; Department for Education, 2015b). Interestingly though, for graduates in teacher shortage areas, this latest iteration of bursaries has been a reintroduction of funding – even for those with lower class degrees. Interestingly though, government reports themselves have noted that there is no evidence that degree class is an indicator of teacher quality (DfE, 2012).

In support of the decisions contained within the Schools’ White Paper (2010), was recognition that two of the countries with the most successful students selected their teachers from the top 5-10 % of graduates (South Korea 5%; Finland 10%). This may seem a reasonable rationale, however there are a number of problems with this comment. Indeed the education systems are markedly different, for example, with Finnish children not commencing school until their 7th birthday and South Korean students studying an extra 3 hours per day in comparison to students in other OECD countries. Differences abound in numerous other ways, including salary differences between the leaders and the UK– with South Korean teachers paid > the OECD average (NCEE, 2015). Indeed teachers in the UK have 17 countries with greater starting salaries above them in the OCED ratings (OECD, 2013) Furthermore the Finnish system encourages greater teacher autonomy and is lacking the increased pressure of a country wide inspection system (Sahlberg, 2010). It should also be noted that student social and emotional wellbeing (Ofsted, 2015) is considered a core expectation of UK schools. However the fact that South Korea also has the unhappiest students (OECD, 2014) and Finland is situated just 4 places above them is something that may well counter a UK based drive towards similar teaching approaches. Such differences add further weight to the need for further research into teacher qualifications and effectiveness.

A final thought in relation the rationale behind policy makers’ expectations of teacher qualifications may also be linked to Bourdieu (1986) and theories that will be considered further in section 6. Bolton & English (2015) consider Bourdieu’s notion of symbolic violence and note the role of *privileged agents* who in this case are the policy makers. They note the unlikelihood of policy makers, as the social agents, supporting anything that would undermine their social position. This perpetuation would only further compound the unsatisfactory outcomes for children from disadvantaged backgrounds as noted by Ofsted (2013)

In Section 2, it was noted by Coe et al (2014) that, having explored a range of research into teacher effectiveness only pedagogical content knowledge and quality of instruction had strong evidence of impact on student outcomes. This knowledge element of teacher effectiveness is underpinned by the view of teaching as a knowledge based profession (Winch, 2004). Perhaps though, a missing aspect of this relates to teachers skills in a specialist area – especially those who are teaching skills based sectors which still dominate in the compulsory sector and evidenced. This is embodied within the Education and Training Foundation, the sectors professional body, and their commitment to *vocational education and training* (ETF, 2015)

In exploring notions of teacher effectiveness in relation to teacher qualifications, the natural first port of call is to explore the knowledge that is both measured by and underpins those qualifications. By exploring this notion of teacher knowledge further, two key models are uncovered, the first by Shulman (1986) is the most oft cited and widest known. The second, a model by Turner-Bisset (1999), builds on Shulman’s (1986) knowledge bases and model of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) to synthesise an alternative model of knowledge bases.

Models of teacher knowledge - Shulman’s model of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (1986)

As noted, the dominant theorist in terms of teacher knowledge is Lee Shulman (1986). He established that teacher knowledge is not merely defined by subject knowledge, it is underpinned by the deep understanding, not only of subject knowledge, but in the knowledge required to teach others – pedagogical content knowledge. When considering teacher effectiveness and evaluation, he suggests that there is insufficient focus on the content of the lessons and teacher knowledge. He supports this with a novel twist on the much criticised adage of ‘those who can, do; those who can’t, teach’ with a statement in recognition of the importance of in-depth understanding of a subject in order to convey that subject to learners. With his view of *‘those who can, do; those who understand, teach”* (Shulman, 1986, p11), he further suggests that teachers’ qualifications play a greater role in teacher effectiveness. Shulman (1986) further adds fuel to the importance of qualifications debate by noting that subject knowledge must be demonstrated by teacher applicant. However what he fails to comment on is whether this subject knowledge should be demonstrated by qualifications, or as is more often the case in USA schools and colleges, by subject knowledge tests. Interestingly, teachers who apply to train to teach in England and Wales are required to complete mandatory knowledge and skills test in relation to maths and English (though this differs for applicants to train to teach in Further Education). They do not; however need to undertake any kind of subject knowledge testing. This is a limiting factor when considering US and international based research into teacher knowledge and teacher quality, which a number of key articles use as part of their data set (see as examples Buddin & Zamarro (2009); Metzler & Woessmann (2012). Such limitations provide difficulties when comparing international and UK research and further question any opportunities to build on the findings as part of the proposed research into teacher qualifications and effectiveness.

The model proposed by Shulman (1986) is key in the exploration of teacher qualifications and effectiveness. Recruitment decisions in all sectors are based to a large extent on one element of knowledge, that of subject knowledge, which is just one aspect of Shulman’s (1986) model. In his exploration of knowledge, Shulman (1986, p9) considers the knowledge bases that underpin effective teaching. In doing so, he acknowledges teaching as “*essentially a learned profession”.*  It is interesting to note though that Shulman (1986), as do many researchers in the area of teacher effectiveness, considers the solitary output of *achievement gains* as a measure of effectiveness. Shulman presents knowledge bases as shown in Figure 3

Figure 3 - Shulman’s Knowledge Bases

Content knowledge

General pedagogical knowledge

Curriculum Knowledge

Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Knowledge of learners’ and their characteristics

Knowledge of educational contexts

Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds

(Shulman, 1986, p8),

These knowledge bases draw on a range of factors that influence the knowledge required of teachers, moving from pure content and the application of the content to teacher’s own practice to expectations of knowledge in terms of philosophical issues and the context in which the teacher is positioned. What is clear from this is that a subject specialist qualification cannot hope to evidence knowledge in all of the knowledge bases. Additionally, Shulman (1986), notes a limitation of any teacher preparation courses that focus solely on pedagogical approaches at the expense of subject knowledge.

Having noted the knowledge bases as proposed by Shulman (1986), the opportunity for further analysis, adaptations and synthesis was advanced by Turner-Bisset (2001). This adaptation appears to have been predicted by Shulman (1986, p12) himself when he points out that he considers the “*A knowledge base for teaching is not fixed and final”* and suggests that his framework represents *“only the most rudimentary place-holders”*.

Models of teacher knowledge Turner-Bisset – Knowledge Bases for Teaching (2001)

Just as Shulman (1986) predicted, his PCK model and consideration of knowledge bases laid the foundation for a range of further research and models which explored knowledge in a variety of ways. However, whilst his model is attractive by its simplicity, alternative models are worthy of further consideration. In particular that proposed by Turner-Bisset (2001) which builds on Shulman’s (1986) knowledge bases but additionally has particular relevance to the proposed research as it draws on notions of teacher standards, which are seen as the cornerstone, particularly by the UK government, of teacher practice. Just as Shulman (1986, p9) considers teaching a “*learned profession”,* Turner-Bisset (2001) supports this with her view of teaching as a knowledge based profession. However Turner-Bisset (2001, p39) recognises a disparity between teacher standards and practice, commenting that the standards are ‘*impoverished’* and suggests instead, ‘*a more sophisticated theoretical underpinning of teaching’* by the application of an alternative model of knowledge bases for teaching. These new knowledge bases for teaching can be seen to clearly map across and build on the work of Shulman (1986) – See Appendix 3. Indeed all but one of his knowledge bases are present in the eleven bases proposed by Turner-Bisset (2001), however pedagogical content knowledge – seen as a separate base within Shulman’s model, is viewed, not as a separate knowledge base, but an overarching theme that encompasses all of the newly synthesised knowledge bases.

Figure 4: Turner- Bisset’s Knowledge Bases[[20]](#footnote-21) for teaching (2001)

1. Substantive subject knowledge
2. Syntactic subject knowledge
3. Beliefs about the subject
4. Curriculum knowledge
5. General pedagogical knowledge
6. Knowledge/models of teaching
7. Knowledge of learners: cognitive
8. Knowledge of learners: empirical
9. Knowledge of self
10. Knowledge of educational contexts
11. Knowledge of educational ends , purpose and values

Turner-Bisset (2001), views teacher knowledge, or more specifically, these ‘*knowledge bases’* as a paradigm that teaching may occupy. She notes 6 different paradigms of teaching ranging from teaching as an art to teaching as a competence but suggests that none of these is sufficient. Instead she suggests that teaching should be viewed in terms of these knowledge bases and the wider view of knowledge, incorporating *concepts, facts, processes, skills, beliefs and attitudes* (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p159).

When viewing teaching paradigms, Turner-Bisset (2001) draws on the notion of teaching as a competence as identified by Squires (1999) and if indeed teaching is viewed solely as a competence this simplifies identification of effective teaching. It is the view of teaching as a competence that much policy in place today derives. As noted previously this link to standards lies at the heart of teaching practice given government policy, though Turner Bisset (2001) criticises the standards for their prescriptive approach to knowledge. For example, in the standards she examines, they state specifically what level of qualifications are expected of teachers, however, such specificity is absent from current standards and replaced by more general views (Department for Education, 2013). Furthermore Turner-Bisset (2001), whilst recognising its use in providing teacher objectives, suggests that what is required is an alternative paradigm. She suggests that this will draw on other paradigms, draws, not only on competences but the full range of knowledge elements and attributes that contribute to teacher effectiveness. This newly synthesised paradigm of knowledge bases proposed by Turner-Bisset (2001) incorporates elements of teaching paradigms viewing teaching as a craft, a competence, an art, an applied science, as reflective practice and even a system and therefore incorporates *all of the subjective and syntactic knowledge of teaching.* (Turner-Bisset, 1999, px).

Of particular interest in the examination of cross sector teacher quality, is Turner-Bisset’s (2001) recognition that the extent of a teachers PCK in the various knowledge bases varies according to the subject being taught. The implications for primary education are therefore greater (she notes) than the secondary sector, however this has key ramifications to teachers in the post compulsory sector who have a range of qualifications and are often required to teach in allied areas. These areas extend, with increasing regularity, to functional skills in maths and English as part of their teaching role (IfL, 2013). Indeed, in the research undertaken by Turner-Bisset (2001) there was evidence that teachers had been shown to teach well in one subject and only just adequately or inadequately in others.

Of the eleven knowledge bases identified by Turner-Bisset (2001), there are four that have a key relevance to the proposed research into teacher qualifications (See Appendix 3 for further analysis):

* Substantive subject knowledge
* Syntactic subject knowledge
* Beliefs about the subject
* Knowledge/models of teaching

Substantive subject knowledge can be viewed as the facts and core knowledge of a subject, those elements often viewed at the lower levels of Bloom’s learning taxonomy (Bloom et al.,1956) whereas the syntactic subject knowledge moves to a higher level and evidences the in depth understanding. Indeed (Turner-Bisset, 2001) compares these knowledge bases to Ryle’s (1969) view of knowing what and knowing how. Beliefs about the subject are also a core element of teacher knowledge and introduce an element of inter teacher variability. This knowledge base depends on how teachers view their subject and it therefore builds upon prior personal experiences and interpretations. The final of the four knowledge bases that can be viewed as closely allied to teacher qualifications is that of *knowledge / models of teaching*. With this knowledge base, the view is again influenced by teacher’s beliefs, though in this instance it relates to teachers beliefs about teaching. Whilst a cursory glance may consider that it only relates to teaching qualifications, the recognition that beliefs gained about teaching whilst gaining their subject qualifications must not be ignored and may be viewed as an additional input to teacher knowledge.

All of these knowledge bases have key links to either to the level and grade of the subject specialist qualifications gained or the experiences inherent in gaining those qualifications. This is an interesting finding and employed within the proposed research – not only in exploring the level and grade of the qualification but also the learning experience that preceded the award of the qualification. Of course, as with any model, it is not without its shortcomings. Just as Shulman (1986) noted the transient nature of his model, Turner-Bisset (2001), accepts that the view of knowledge that her model represents itself is indicative of the ever-changing nature of teaching knowledge.

Figure 5 – Knowledge Bases applicable to the proposed research (Turner-Bisset, 2001) (see Appendix 3 for all knowledge bases)

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Knowledge Base** | **Representation in subject specialist qualifications** |
| Substantive subject knowledge | Yes – represented by lower level qualifications akin to lower levels of Bloom’s taxonomy (year) |
| Syntactic subject knowledge | Yes – represented by increasingly higher level qualifications akin to lower levels of Bloom’s taxonomy (year) |
| Beliefs about the subject | Yes – built upon experiences that will include a program of study in which subject specialist qualification are gained. |
| Knowledge/models of teaching | Gained by educational experiences including those gained acquiring subject specialist qualifications |

5. Narrowing the field – Teacher qualifications as a predictor of effectiveness – Empirical Research

Having explored the position of teacher effectiveness. Teacher qualifications and teacher knowledge the field is now narrowed further. This section will explore the empirical research evidenced in the literature that will provide a firm underpinning for the proposed research into teacher qualifications as a predictor of effectiveness.

*“Variables often used to determine entry into the [teaching] profession….. explain little of the quality of teachers so measured”* (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010)

To commence this section on empirical research into teacher qualifications and effectiveness with such a stark statement may suggest little benefit of further research in this area. However there are clear opportunities for innovation in research into teacher subject specialist qualifications. In particular, what is evident from the research is a focus on international, rather than UK research. The majority of the research into this area has been undertaken in the USA or overseas and there is no visible research into degree class or specific levels of qualifications for teachers across the compulsory and post compulsory sectors. These will provide further opportunities for my own research, building on representations of teacher knowledge and teacher qualifications to underpin this research.

An overview of empirical research into teacher qualifications and effectiveness

A range of studies into teacher qualifications and certification have been carried out in the USA and internationally (See for example Darling-Hammond, 2000; Zuzovsky, 2003; Cara & Coulon, 2008; Buddin & Zamarro, 2009; Rangel & Guimarães, 2015; Shuls & Trivitt, 2015). The findings of these have been mixed and have been undertaken in a range of contexts, though there is no cross sector investigation, of the nature proposed herein, of the possible relationship between teacher qualifications and effectiveness. This is a clear opportunity for further research.

As noted in Section 3, value added models or measures based on student outcomes and achievement form a key area of published research into teacher effectiveness. (See for example Goldhaber & Brewer, 1996; Buddin & Zamarro, 2009; Clotfelter et al., 2010; Metzler & Woessmann, 2012) This consideration of teacher effectiveness, based on outcomes for learners is the dominant field in research in relation to teacher qualifications. A thorough exploration of the literature has noted that such research is predominantly undertaken in the United States with occasional research in wider areas including Brazil and Israel but with very limited UK based research. (Rangel & Guimarães, 2015) suggest this USA dominance may be due to the ease of access to longitudinal data within the USA educational system.

The research evidences little consensus and a range of findings. (Buddin & Zamarro, 2009) found no discernible influence of teacher qualifications on learner outcomes (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Cara & Coulon, 2008; Rangel & Guimarães, 2015) Whereas Shuls & Trivitt (2015) found that teacher qualifications were key to student outcomes in specific subject areas. Sector variances are also apparent in some research, with primary or middle school sectors differing from secondary school research findings, for example Clotfelter et al. (2010) found that that teacher qualifications were a strong indicator of student performance in USA secondary schools, whereas (Metzler & Woessmann (2012) found little relationship between outcomes in reading in Peruvian primary schools. One clearly noticeable pattern that is emerging in relation to teacher qualifications and effectiveness is that when considering mathematics teaching, whether in primary (Metzler & Woessmann, 2012; Shuls & Trivitt, 2015), secondary, (Rangel & Guimarães, 2015) or post compulsory education (Cara & Coulon, 2008), the qualifications of mathematics teachers, from level 3 to level 6 have a clear input in improving achievement and outcomes for learners.

Delving into the research

It is useful to commence this in depth consideration of literature in relation to teacher qualifications and effectiveness with UK based research, in this case that as presented by Slater et al. (2012). This is the one of the two UK papers available in this area and the authors note the limitations of their research, suggesting that a more in depth data set may provide a greater insight into how qualifications (and attributes in general) inform teacher quality.

In their research, Slater et al (2012) drew on a 1999-2002 data set in 33 UK secondary schools and consider a range of characteristics including degree class (1st / 2nd), gender, age, degree subject, experience and salary. An advantage of this research is that, by utilising GCSE data (exams consistently taken at a fixed point in time across a number of schools), it attempts to reduce issues of data validity, something that is noted by Coe et al (2014) who emphasise the importance of good outcome measures. A further advantage of this research was that it was based on both student and teacher fixed effects (they note that not many do this). The findings of this research support the view of no relationship between teacher characteristics and effectiveness. This is an interesting point in light of the previously noted government polices (BIS, 2015; Department for Education, 2015b) to attract the teachers with the best degrees and is alluded to by Slater et al (2012) who comment that the difficulty in identifying teachers ex ante may have strong implications for teacher recruitment. Given the lack of research in the UK, Slater et al (ibid) make comparisons by drawing on US based research. What is lacking though is any consideration of the distinctions between international education systems which may make comparisons irrelevant or lead to reduced validity. Their suggestion that their findings support international findings may therefore be lacking in substance.

Cara & Coulon (2008) undertook research in relation to qualifications and effectiveness of numeracy teachers within the UK post compulsory sector. In considering the positioning of their research, they note that most research has focused on *learners and their progress* [whilst] *few studies have paid attention to the teachers, tutors and trainers* (Cara & Coulon, 2008, p2). Their research focussed on both teacher professional qualifications and subject qualifications and explored the extent to which teacher qualifications appeared to influence learner progress. Cara & Coulon (2008) also explored socio economic factors in addition to age, gender and ethnicity in addition to a detailed account of the teachers’ qualifications. Of particular interest was an exploration of whether it was beneficial for numeracy teachers to have qualifications at numeracy at all in addition to the specific level of qualification that may be held. The research comprised a sample of 1000 teachers who took part in 3 interviews between 2004 and 2007 and was narrowed and 270 of the interviewed teachers were randomly selected to test some of their learners, both early in their numeracy course and also towards the end of the course. Whilst much of the empirical research in this area has focussed on measured outcomes in terms of test results, Cara & Coulon (ibid) also looked at traditionally unmeasured outcomes in terms of confidence, attitude and application of numeracy skills following completion of the course. The findings of their research confirmed the importance of subject knowledge in the post compulsory sector. In addition they noted that, when considering the measured outcomes in terms of progress, those teachers who held qualifications at L3 and above were the ones whose learners evidenced the greater improvements. Higher level qualifications though were not overlooked and a positive effect was also evident when the teachers in question held numeracy qualifications at level 6 or above. What is not noted though is the grade at which these level 6 qualifications were attained. Any consideration of, whether for example degree class made any difference is absent from the research. In addition to the positive effect of level 6 qualification in terms of progress is the impact in terms of learners’ attitude, however conversely, at the conclusion of the course, a negative impact was evidenced in terms of confidence in their numeracy skills. The authors don’t make suggestions for this result, though it may be that this can be attributed by the removal of the teacher as scaffold.

Research in USA within the high school environment (years 9 to 12 if compared with UK Schools), was undertaken by Clotfelter et al. (2010) who undertook large scale research with 4 cohorts of year 10 / 10th grade students. This was large scale research drawing on 30,000 students in each cohort and utilised end of course tests that were key to the data analysis. They found “*compelling evidence that teachers’ credentials are predictive of student achievement”,* However when exploring this finding further, only the college/university qualityrather than degree results were used to determine this conclusion. Interestingly though a further finding of this research was that if a teacher was in possession of a PhD, the outcomes for students were considerably worse. (Though, as the authors themselves note, the small number of participants with this qualification suggests a need for caution before jumping to conclusions) . In their research they too undertook quantitative research into student achievement, however they drew on a wide range of characteristics, from years of experience, licensure scores, qualifications and type of teaching certification. Of interest in relation to the proposed research is the consideration of undergraduate qualification. However, whilst the authors explore the quality of the undergraduate institution, they do not consider the degree result.

Buddin & Zamarro (2009) undertook a large scale quantitative research project in California, USA that looked at teacher qualifications in relation to student achievement. This research was based on teaching in grades 2 – 5 (approximately comparable to UK primary schools) and is a longitudinal project that utilised 5 years of achievement data. It drew on subject tests taken by teachers at the start of their teaching career and considered “*2 level fixed effects and teacher heterogeneity”* (Buddin & Zamarro, 2009, p111) which the authors note some other researchers do not. The validity of the data utilised, being validated school data further supports expectations of good outcome measures noted by Coe et al. (2014). As also noted by elements of Clotfelter et al.’s (2010) research, Buddin & Zamarro (2009) discovered that student achievement is unaffected by whether classroom teachers have advanced degrees. They similarly noted that the achievement of students increases with teacher experience. However they don’t elaborate on this and therefore unanswered questions remain with regards to whether experience includes training or is purely a numerical value of years in the teaching profession.

Goldhaber & Brewer (1996) report on their longitudinal study that explores the extent to which teacher qualifications influenced students’ outcomes. His study was K-12 – what in the UK would be approximately considered as primary education. They explored key subject areas of maths, science English and history. Data is specific and quantitative with student test results utilised to identify student outcomes and teachers qualifications were identified via institution records. As Goldhaber and Brewer (2010, p202) themselves note they have the advantage of a *nationally representative* dataset that contained a *comprehensive set of educational variables*)*.* The data set also contains a range of variables in relation to teacher characteristics including degree and higher level qualifications, though it does not consider degree class. What is noted though is that often teachers have allied degrees to their subject area, rather than specifically focussed or pure single subject qualifications.

An advantage of comparing like to like research within the USA research is the teaching approaches and educational system evident, therefore a little more caution is required when considering the relationship between international research of any nature. However this is not to say that wider research should be ignored, but considered in the context in which it was undertaken. For example, research undertaken in Beijing by Lai et al. (2011) found that “*Teacher qualifications have about the same predictive power for student test scores as do school fixed effects”.* Though this research only distinguished between teachers with a degree and without, rather than individual categories of degree. It did, however consider their role or rank within the school and years’ experience.

It is essential to continue to explore current research and trends in this area and, whilst the research undertaken by Altinok (2014) has taken place in 14 Sub Saharan African countries, the large scale of the research and its relevance cannot be ignored. Altinok (2014) also notes the dearth of research into teacher qualifications and achievement. In his research into the achievement of students, he focussed on those subject areas that have wider relevance internationally – maths and English. This is a pattern that continues to emerge in the research – possibly for ease of comparison or in order to produce a larger volume of results. As with a number of other research projects undertaken, this research focusses, not specifically on teacher qualifications, but on achievement in tests that are designed for the purpose of gathering data on teacher subject knowledge. Altinok (2014, p7) further cites a range of research by Eide, 2004; Goldhaber & Brewer, 2004; Hanushek, 2006 & Rivkin, 2006) to support his findings that the key factor in any possible relationship between teacher knowledge and student outcomes is the results on teacher knowledge tests.

Of course, it should be noted, that, as previously discussed there is limited research on judging teachers academic skills by other means. This may be due to the complexity of judging ability with wider degree results or alternative qualifications or the ease with which knowledge can be measured with a specifically focussed test. Altinok (2014) does however also briefly consider the role of a university education and notes no noticeable difference in knowledge of what he refers to basic skills, between university educated and non university educated teachers. Yet again, though this research has been conducted overseas and the difference in the education system in Sub-saharan Africa and the UK, makes drawing conclusions for the UK system at best, problematic.

Recent research undertaken in Brazil by Rangel & Guimarães (2015) draws on data from 4th to 8th grade (comparable to the later stages of primary and early stages of secondary education in the UK) and drew on a sample of 6 states with *the lowest education indicators.* This longitudinal research followed the students through the education system*.* Rangel & Guimarães (2015) suggested thatsubject matter may prove an important component in any consideration of teacher effectiveness models, with different models being necessary for different subject areas. In reaching this conclusion, they drew on their own findings that whilst teacher qualifications did not have a significant impact on teaching of Portuguese, there was a positive result when considering mathematics. This research does, however focus on one socio-economic group, so the extent to which it may be compared with other wider samples is limited.

6. Factors influencing teacher qualifications

Having explored literature in relation to teacher qualifications and effectiveness, this section will now look further into qualifications as representations of that knowledge. It will consider the factors that influence achievement of those qualifications and draw on key issues of heterogeneity and social inequality.

A Heterogeneous Population

Imbalances in academic achievement from an early age is noted by (Ofsted, 2013b) and the recognition of the import of considering student differences in planning approaches to teaching is an expectation of teachers in order to ensure effectiveness (Machin, Hindmarch, Murray, & Richardson, 2014). These noted differences in age, gender, background and ethnicity cannot therefore be ignored when considering their impact on the qualifications achieved by applicants to the teaching profession.

Social class is a key area when considering heterogeneity and is noted by Hills et al. (2010) as a key indicator in relation to educational achievement. Of interest in the consideration of teacher qualifications is the recognition that those who achieve the higher class degrees are more likely to originate from the higher socio economic groups (Crawford, 2014). It is clear then, that when analysing the qualifications of teachers, consideration must be given to the equity in distribution in terms of both achievement and grade awarded for a heterogeneous population. The relevance of this is supported by Sirin (2005) who notes the wide use of socioeconomic status as a research variable.

This notion of inequality is supported by Ofsted (2013) who further comment that a large number of young people who do not achieve in education originate from lower social classes.They do, however counter this by noting that the relationship is not set in stone. If, therefore the students from disadvantaged backgrounds are not achieving the qualifications and grades necessary to enter the teaching profession, this will lead to a dominance of teachers from non-disadvantaged backgrounds. It is therefore important to question whether the dominance of one social class within the teaching profession is a limiting factor to teacher effectiveness with a heterogeneous student population.

Social class is not the only area for consideration as Dandridge (2010, p2) notes that, when considering ethnicity:

*“Being from a minority ethnic group (except the Other Black, Mixed and Other groups) was still found to have a statistically signiﬁcant and negative effect on degree attainment”.*

Again this perpetuates the absence of wider ethnicities within education and limits role models for the diverse UK student population. This issue was analysed by Parker (2010) who noted the lack of consideration for BME[[21]](#footnote-22) pupils in the Importance of Teaching (2010) white paper (Department for Education, 2010) and recognises that lack of access to teaching courses may be a consequence of the changing government policy.

Are all degrees equal?

Exploration of degree results leads to the questioning of equality between comparable degrees. Indeed, this is something noted by Bolton & English (2015) who comment on the variances in how different universities are viewed. Elton (2004) also notes issues with the current 4 grade system in terms of

“*the problem of the conflation of incompatibles such as knowledge and practical abilities in a science degree or knowledge and writing ability in an arts degree to name but two*”.

In considering degree results, the UK system awards 4 pass grades or bands which may be awarded to graduates[[22]](#footnote-23). It is suggested by Elton (2004) that there is an argument for abolition of this system to replace it with either a percentage grade or a portfolio of evidence. A change to an approach to grading and assessment would have consequences for decisions made both in terms of funding and in relation to teacher recruitment. Elton (2004) suggests that will be also be benefits in terms of interpretation of results. As Elton (2004) notes, citing Willot (2002), a change to percentage grading will lead to a much clearer representation of knowledge rather than a 4 point scale of quality. Elton (2004) notes the link to recruitment and employer decision making, with the suggestion that such arbitrary decision making by employers to exclude applicants without the preferred 2:1 or higher could exclude high quality applicants. The nature of these applicants, the ones who do not make it as far as teacher training may mean that they have highly desirable attributes in the teaching profession but will never get the opportunity to prove themselves through traditional routes.

The levels and grades of degree awarded by universities may also be influenced by Institutional Bias, as noted by Heritage & Thomas (2007) who note the increase in UK higher education students gaining > 60% . Whilst Heritage and Thomas (2007) note that this may be due to a large scale improvement of teaching, they suggest that institutional factors and grade inflation may have a role to play. In particular they note that the use of a wide range of assessment algorithms has led to an inconsistency in grades between universities. Heritage and Thomas further Cite Murphy (1995) who comments as to the problematic nature of inter institution comparison.A consequence of this to those making recruitment decisions implies that comparing degrees awarded by different institutions may not be as reliable as it would appear on the surface and lead to inconsistencies and unfair judgments being made in terms of degree quality.

Pierre Bourdieu – Notions of Cultural Capital and Habitus

An exploration of qualifications gained by potential teachers draws on the social background of those teachers. As (Ofsted, 2013b) note, social background is a key indicator of academic success. The work of social theorist Pierre Bourdieu (1986), who drew on this key issue of social background is particularly relevant to the proposed research. Bourdieu (1986) formulated the notion of symbolic capital - the non-monetary attributesthat are held by groups and members of society that support reinforcement of social class. This symbolic capital is central to school success, with those students who have the best chance of achieving being the ones in possession of those characteristics that are seen as desirable by the school.

To Bourdieu (1986), therefore capital moves beyond its day to day meaning and he explores a range of forms including *cultural capital, linguistic capital, scientific and literary capital*. (Grenfell 2008, p103). It is this cultural capital that is of key interest to the proposed research as answers are sought to questions that build on influences for educational success. In this instance, the educational success is that which that precedes teachers’ entry to the profession. Cultural capital is a key aspect of Bourdieu’s consideration of social structure and reproduction. This is further supported by Grenfell (2008) notes that cultural capital has a key influence due to the way in which the *education system confers legitimacy, prestige and value (symbolic capital) upon the culture of the middle*. (Grenfell, 2008, p86). It is therefore this notion of cultural capital that, according to Bourdieu (1986) and noted by Bolton & English (2015) influences a student’s journey through education and their opportunity for achievement.

Cultural capital is of particular interest in the proposed research as the teacher applicants will have been subjects of an education system that, intentionally or otherwise, rewards cultural capital. Dumais & Ward (2010) note the importance that cultural capital plays in terms of reinforcing and reproducing social classes within society. Such reproduction is noted in a number of ways and recognises the way in which upper middle class children benefit over their peers in lower social groups. This may be in terms of relationships with teachers and grades awarded and therefore has clear links to the proposed research which explores the grades gained by students at university that influence their entry to a teaching career. In research that drew on notions of cultural capital, exploring the success of American college (university) students, Dumais & Ward, (2010) found a distinction between applications from students who were the first in their family and those who came from a family that had benefitted from a university education. However what was not evidenced was any impact on outcomes for the students when measured in terms of their final grades[[23]](#footnote-24)

Also of interest when considering teacher qualifications are factors that draw on notions of Bourdieu’s *scholastic habitus* (Bolton & English, 2015). This notion of habitus is often overlooked when researchers explore the extent to which social class influences academic achievement (Gaddis, 2013). This scholastic habitus informs how the importance of and guidance towards education is instilled within individuals and is noted by Gaddis (2013, p1) in terms of an *individual’s disposition*. In particular, he suggests that cultural capital and habitus should be explored together, suggesting an interrelatedness between the two, with habitus being formed by an individual’s cultural capital.

For the proposed research the scholastic habitus relates to that held by potential teachers. As Bolton and English (2015) note, applicants from the higher social classes have the inside knowledge in terms of what is required, in terms of subject choices, to acquire a place at the educational establishments that will benefit them most. This advantage to students with the desired habitus can be extended further in terms of the educational outputs from those schools and universities and links clearly with the grades and qualifications gained by applicants to the teaching profession.

7. Future Directions and the worth of the proposed research

This literature review commenced with the broad field of teacher effectiveness to explore the many facets that exist within. From this, the field has been narrowed to explore notions of teacher knowledge and qualifications held by teachers. It has drawn on literature in relation to teacher characteristics and government policy and explored theoretical frameworks in relation to teacher knowledge (Shulman, 1986; Turner-Bisset, 2001) and forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1986) in relation to both the compulsory and post compulsory sector. A range of further opportunities for research have presented themselves and it is from within these that the proposed project will be drawn.

The need for research into this area has been noted herein, both in terms of the implications for government policy and the dearth of UK research into this area. It is also required to overcome the lack of any UK or international cross sector research into both the compulsory and post compulsory sector. In particular, this lack of cross sector research in this area has provided a further opportunity to question the similarities and differences in teacher effectiveness in each sector and also within subject specific areas both within and across sectors. This research project will therefor build on the findings from this literature review to explore the extent to which teacher qualifications are an indicator of teacher quality.

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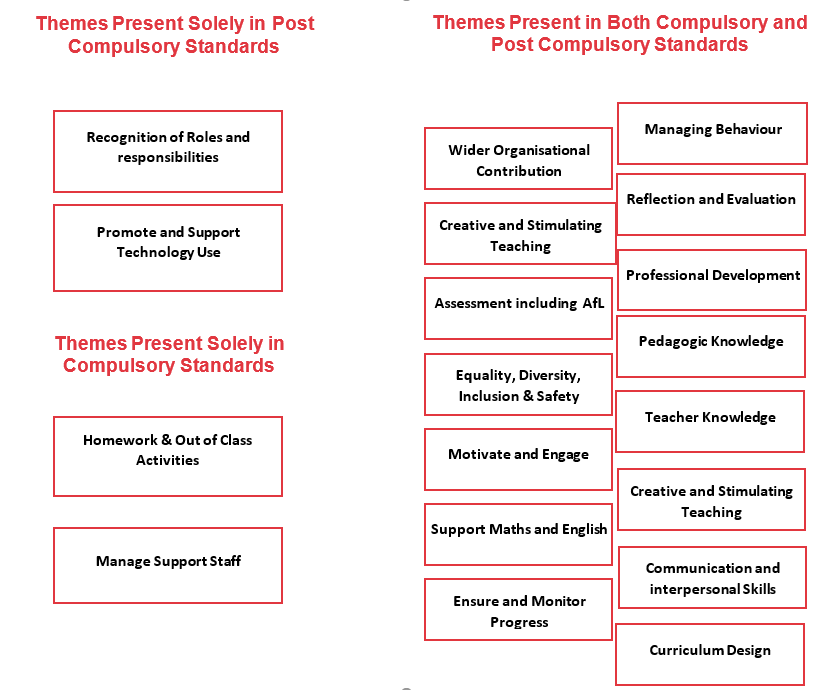
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Appendix 1: Comparison of Compulsory and Post Compulsory Teacher Standards



Appendix 3 : Knowledge Bases for Teaching

Knowledge bases for teaching as noted by (Turner-Bisset, 2001), analysed to identify elements that may be represented within subject specialist qualifications

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Knowledge Base** (**Turner-Bisset, 2001)** | **Knowledge Base (Shulman, 1987)** | **Representation in subject specialist qualifications** |
| Substantive subject knowledge | Content Knowledge | Yes – represented by lower level qualifications akin to lower levels of Bloom’s taxonomy (year) |
| Syntactic subject knowledge | Content Knowledge | Yes – represented by increasingly higher level qualifications akin to lower levels of Bloom’s taxonomy (year) |
| Beliefs about the subject | No equivalent | Yes – built upon experiences that will include a program of study in which subject specialist qualification are gained. |
| Curriculum knowledge | Curriculum Knowledge | No |
| General pedagogical knowledge | General Pedagogical Knowledge | No |
| Knowledge/models of teaching | General Pedagogical Knowledge | Gained by educational experiences including those gained acquiring subject specialist qualifications |
| Knowledge of learners: cognitive | Knowledge of learners and their characteristics | No |
| Knowledge of learners: empirical | Knowledge of learners and their characteristics | No |
| Knowledge of self | No equivalent | Not Specifically |
| Knowledge of educational contexts | Knowledge of educational contexts | No |
| Knowledge of educational ends , purpose and values | *Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds* | No |

# Appendix B: Teacher as Person

## Stronge (2007, p110-111): The Teacher as Person Checklist

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Quality** | **Indicators** |
| **Caring** | Exhibits active listening |
| Shows concern for students’ emotional and physical well-being |
| Displays interest in and concern about the students’ lives outside school |
| Creates a supportive and warm classroom climate |
| **Showing Fairness and Respect** | Responds to misbehaviour on an individual level |
| Prevents situations in which a student loses peer respect |
| Treats students equally |
| Creates situations for all students to succeed |
| Shows respect to all students |
| **Interactions with Students** | Maintains professional role while being friendly |
| Gives students responsibility |
| Knows students interests both in and out of school |
| Values what students say |
| Interacts in a fun, playful manner, jokes when appropriate |
| **Enthusiasm** | Shows joy for the content material |
| Takes pleasure in teaching |
| Demonstrates Involvement in learning activities outside of school |
| **Motivation** | Maintains high quality work |
| Returns student work in a timely manner |
| Provides students with meaningful feedback |
| **Dedication to Teaching** | Possesses a positive attitude about life and teaching |
| Spends time outside school to prepare |
| Participates in collegial activities |
| Accepts responsibility for student outcomes |
| Seeks professional development |
| Finds, implements, and shares new instructional strategies |
| **Reflective Practice** | Knows areas of personal strengths and weaknesses |
| Uses reflection to improve teaching |
| Sets high expectations for personal classroom performance |
| Demonstrates high efficacy |

## Stronge (2018, p274-276): Professionalism Checklist

| **Quality** | **Indicators** |
| --- | --- |
| **Caring** | Actively Listens |
| Shows concern for students’ emotional and physical well-being |
| Displays interest in and concern about the students’ lives outside school |
| Creates a supportive and warm classroom climate |
| **Fairness and Respect** | Responds to misbehaviour on an individual level |
| Prevents situations in which a student loses peer respect |
| Treats students equally |
| Creates situations for all students to succeed |
| Shows respect to all students |
| Shows cultural sensitivity when interacting with culturally diverse students |
| **Interactions with Students** | Maintains professional role while being friendly |
| Gives students responsibility |
| Knows students interests both in and out of school |
| Values what students say |
| Interacts in a fun, playful manner, jokes when appropriate |
| **Enthusiasm and Motivation about Learning** | Shows joy for the content material |
| Takes pleasure in teaching |
| Uses a lively, energetic and exuberant teaching style |
| Makes students excited about learning |
| Understands how student motivation works and uses various strategies to increase students’ academic motivation |
| **Attitude to Teaching** | Possesses a positive attitude about life and teaching |
| Participates in Collegial Activities |
| Accepts responsibility for student outcomes |
| Seeks professional development |
| Acts as a well-informed consumer of educational policies, instructional innovations and internal changes that influence student learning |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Quality** | **Indicators** |
| **Reflective Practice** | Identifies and evaluates personal strengths and weaknesses |
| Has a commitment to continuous improvement and perpetual learning |
| Reflects on the effectiveness of implemented strategies |
| Sets high expectations for personal classroom performance |
| Demonstrates high efficacy |
| Engages in self-directed learning based on a set of established goals and in a community with like professionals |
| Engages in learning activities outside the classroom intended for school and student enhancement |
| Incorporates learning from professional growth opportunities into instructional practice |
| Sets goals for improvement of personal knowledge and skills |
| **Communication and Collaboration** | Works in a collegial and collaborative manner with administrators, other school personnel, and the community to promote students’ wellbeing and success |
| Builds positive and professional relationships with parents through frequent and appropriate communication concerning students’ progress |
| Serves as a contributing member of the schools professional learning community through collaboration with teaching colleagues |

# Appendix C: Coe et al.’s (2014, p44-45) Framework for Teaching Quality

*A number of frameworks for conceptualising the elements of effective teaching have been presented. Broadly speaking they include the following components:*

**(Pedagogical) content knowledge**

*The evidence to support the inclusion of content knowledge in a model of teaching effectiveness is strong, at least in curriculum areas such as maths, literacy and science. Different forms of content knowledge are required. As well as a strong, connected understanding of the material being taught, teachers must also understand the ways students think about the content, be able to evaluate the thinking behind non-standard methods, and identify typical misconceptions students have.*

**2. Quality of instruction**

*Quality of instruction is at the heart of all frameworks of teaching effectiveness. Key elements such as effective questioning and use of assessment are found in all of them. Specific practices like the need to review previous learning, provide models for the kinds of responses students are required to produce, provide adequate time for practice to embed skills securely and scaffold new learning are also elements of high quality instruction.*

**3. Classroom climate / relationships / expectations**

*Again, the empirically based frameworks all include something on classroom climate, though this heading may cover a range of aspects of teaching. Some (e.g. CLASS) emphasise the quality of relationships and interactions between teachers and students. Also under this heading may come teacher expectations: the need to create a classroom environment that is constantly demanding more and never satisfied, but still affirming to students’ self-worth and not undermining their feelings of self-efficacy. Promotion of different kinds of motivational goals may also fit here, as may the different attributions teachers make and encourage for success and failure (e.g. fixed versus growth mindset, attributions to effort and strategy rather than ability or luck). Related to this is the valuing and promotion of resilience to failure (grit).*

**4. Behaviour / control / classroom management**

*All the empirically based frameworks include some element of classroom management. A teacher’s abilities to make efficient use of lesson time, to coordinate classroom resources and space, and to manage students’ behaviour with clear rules that are consistently enforced, are all relevant to maximising the learning that can take place. These factors are mostly not directly related to learning; they are necessary hygiene factors to allow learning, rather than direct components of it.*

**5. Beliefs (theory) about subject, learning & teaching**

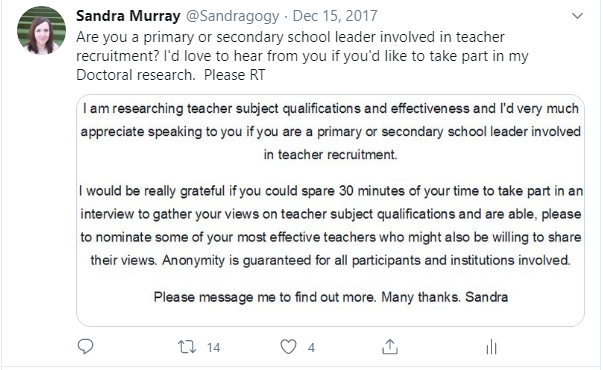
*The idea that it matters why teachers adopt particular practices, the purposes they aim to achieve, their theories about what learning is and how it happens and their conceptual models of the nature and role of teaching in the learning process all seem to be important. Although the evidence to support this claim is not unequivocal, it seems strong enough to include it at this stage.*

**6. Wider professional elements: collegiality, development, relationships**

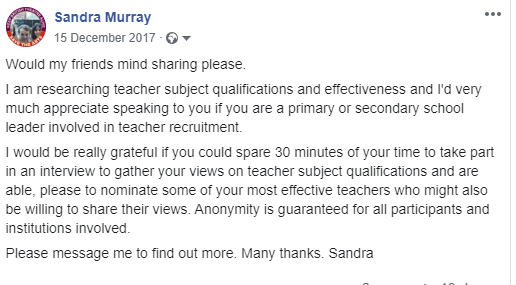
*It seems appropriate to include a final heading that captures some broader aspects of professional behaviour. Danielson’s Framework for Teaching includes elements such as reflecting on and developing professional practice, supporting colleagues, and liaising and communicating with stakeholders such as parents. There may not be direct evidence linking these practices to enhanced student outcomes, but if we want to capture a broad definition of effective teaching, they should probably be included*

# Appendix D: Approaches Taken to Recruit Participants

## Social Media - Twitter



## Social Media - Facebook



## Email Approach to Leaders

## Email to Teachers Following Agreement to Participate

# Appendix E: Information Sheet Leaders

**Title of Research Project:** *Exploring the role of* ***subject*** *qualifications in teacher recruitment and subsequent teacher effectiveness*

You are invited to take part in a research study. This sheet will provide you with information about the project, why you are being asked to participate and what will be expected of you. Please take time to read this document carefully.

**What is the project about?**

The project will explore the views of teachers and leaders in primary, secondary and further education. It will explorethe role played by subject qualifications (for example, degrees, A Levels etc) in teacher recruitment and subsequent teacher effectiveness.

**Why have I been chosen?**

**Interview Schedule 1 – Senior Leader:** You have been chosen because you have a key role in both teacher recruitment and evaluation within your organisation. This will mean that you are able to provide an insight into the recruitment processes in addition to being able to identify the most effective teachers within your organisation.

**What does participation in the research involve?**

Taking part in the research will involve participation in a face to face interview with the researcher who is undertaking this project. The interview will last for approximately 30 minutes and will take place at a time and location that is convenient for you.

**Are there any risks or benefits?**

There are no perceived personal risks associated with your involvement in this research. If you decide to go ahead, you will be asked to sign a consent form to make sure that you fully understand what you are agreeing to. The research has been approved by the Faculty Ethics Committee at Staffordshire University.

There are no personal benefits for the people who take part.

Your participation is completely voluntary. If you change your mind at any point, you can withdraw at any time up to the point at which the data becomes aggregated for analysis purposes and you don’t have to give a reason for doing so. If there are any questions in the interview that you would prefer not to answer, you do not have to answer them.

**Will I be identified in the report?**

No. None of the information that you provide will identify you or be attributed directly to you in the final report. The anonymity of everyone who takes part will be protected in the final document.

Any personal information that you provide will be confidential and accessed only by the researcher. Transcripts of the interviews will be stored securely whilst the research is being undertaken and will be destroyed in accordance with University and Faculty procedures that are in force when the project is completed.

**FOR FURTHER INFORMATION**

This research is being undertaken for the purpose of completing a dissertation for a professional Doctorate in Education at Staffordshire University. If you have any queries or questions related to this research, please contact me on 01782 294315, or by email at [sandra.murray@staffs.ac.uk](mailto:sandra.murray@staffs.ac.uk) . If you have any concerns about this research, please feel free to contact my supervisor, Dr. Lynn Machin. Her email address is [l.b.machin@staffs.ac.uk](mailto:l.b.machin@staffs.ac.uk)

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet.

# Appendix F: Information Sheet Teachers

**Title of Research Project:** *Exploring the role of* ***subject*** *qualifications in teacher recruitment and subsequent teacher effectiveness*

You are invited to take part in a research study. This sheet will provide you with information about the project, why you are being asked to participate and what will be expected of you. Please take time to read this document carefully.

**What is the project about?**

The project will explore the views of teachers and leaders in primary, secondary and further education. It will explorethe role played by subject qualifications (for example, degrees, A Levels etc) in teacher recruitment and subsequent teacher effectiveness.

**Why have I been chosen?**

**Interview Schedule 2 – Teacher:** You have chosen because you have been identified by leaders within your organisation as being a highly effective teacher in your organisation. This will mean that you will be able to provide insight and information regarding your own subject specialist qualifications and their relevance to your effectiveness as a teacher.

**What does participation in the research involve?**

Taking part in the research will involve participation in a face to face interview with the researcher who is undertaking this project. The interview will last for approximately 30 minutes and will take place at a time and location that is convenient for you.

**Are there any risks or benefits?**

There are no perceived personal risks associated with your involvement in this research. If you decide to go ahead, you will be asked to sign a consent form to make sure that you fully understand what you are agreeing to. The research has been approved by the Faculty Ethics Committee at Staffordshire University.

There are no personal benefits for the people who take part.

Your participation is completely voluntary. If you change your mind at any point, you can withdraw at any time up to the point at which the data becomes aggregated for analysis purposes and you don’t have to give a reason for doing so. If there are any questions in the interview that you would prefer not to answer, you do not have to answer them.

**Will I be identified in the report?**

No. None of the information that you provide will identify you or be attributed directly to you in the final report. The anonymity of everyone who takes part will be protected in the final document.

Any personal information that you provide will be confidential and accessed only by the researcher. Transcripts of the interviews will be stored securely whilst the research is being undertaken and will be destroyed in accordance with University and Faculty procedures that are in force when the project is completed.

**FOR FURTHER INFORMATION**

This research is being undertaken for the purpose of completing a dissertation for a professional Doctorate in Education at Staffordshire University. If you have any queries or questions related to this research, please contact me on 01782 294315, or by email at [sandra.murray@staffs.ac.uk](mailto:sandra.murray@staffs.ac.uk) . If you have any concerns about this research, please feel free to contact my supervisor, Dr. Lynn Machin. Her email address is [l.b.machin@staffs.ac.uk](mailto:l.b.machin@staffs.ac.uk)

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet.

# Appendix G: Consent Form

**Full title of Project**:

*Exploring the role of subject specialist qualifications in teacher recruitment and subsequent teacher effectiveness*

**Name, position and contact address of Researcher**:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | Please tick to confirm acceptance |
| 1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. |  |
| 1. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason. |  |
| 1. I agree to take part in the above study I understand that I am free to leave any question unanswered without giving reason |  |
| 1. I understand that my data will be treated with full confidentiality and if published, every effort will be made to ensure that it will not be identifiable as mine |  |
| 1. I understand that I will be given the opportunity to find out more about the study and its results. |  |
| 1. I agree to the interview being audio recorded |  |

*Sandra Murray, Lecturer in Education, Staffordshire University, Brindley Building, Leek Road, Stoke on Trent, Staffordshire. ST4 2DF*

Name of Participant Date Signature

Name of Researcher Date Signature

# Appendix H: Leader Interview Schedule

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Interview Schedule 1 – Leaders** | |
| **Background Questions** | |
| **Can you tell me a little about where you work and your current job role?** | * *Organisation, Sector* * *Job title* |
| **Can you provide me with a brief professional biography in terms of your own education and job roles?** | * *Work outside of education* * *Traditional or non-traditional qual route?* |
| **Recruitment Questions** | |
| **Can you tell me a little about what experience you have in relation to recruitment of teachers?** | * *Number of years* * *In a particular subject area?* * *Vocational or academic courses?* |
| **How important are subject qualifications as part of your sifting and interview process?** | * *GCSE Qualifications* * *A Level / level 3 qualifications* * *Vocational qualifications* * *Having a degree* * *Degree class* * *Degree focus* * *Postgraduate quals -Masters / PhDs* |
| **Why do you look for these subject qualifications?** | * *Building on own prior experience in recruiting* * *organisational policy* * *prestige* * *prerequisite (by whom?)* |
| **In your experience, do applicants that you interview have the qualifications that you seek?** | * *Single subject / dual honours degrees.* * *Qualifications in related rather than specific subjects* * *Ability to teach second subject,* * *Ability to teach range of levels* |
| **Do you sometimes have to accept lower qualifications than you would prefer?** | * *If so, why do you do this?* |
| **In your recruitment processes is there any way other than via qualifications that you ascertain applicants level of subject knowledge?** | * *Discussion* * *Microteach* * *Test* |
| **Do you consider any qualities or characteristics of applicants do you consider to be of equal or greater importance than subject qualifications?** | * *Interpersonal skills, classroom management, teaching experience, professionalism, communication* |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Questions related to teacher evaluation following appointment** | |
| **Can you tell me a little about what experience you have in relation to evaluation of teachers?** | * *Number of years* * *Development or Judgement based?* * *A particular subject area?*   *Vocational or academic courses?* |
| **How would you define an effective teacher?** |  |
| **What approaches do you use to determine the effectiveness of teachers in your organisation?** | * *observation, student results, peer observation,* |
| **Do you assign a grade to teacher’s effectiveness during your evaluation or observation process?** | * What frameworks do you use? * *Ofsted or other Why do you choose those?* |
| **And finally…** | |
| **Do you have any other views in relation to subject qualifications and effectiveness that you would like to share?** | * *Based on your own experience as a leader or teacher* |

# Appendix I: Teacher Interview Schedule

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Interview Schedule 2 – Teachers** | |
| **Background Questions** | |
| **Can you tell me a little about where you work and your current job role?** | * *Organisation, Sector, Job title* * *What subjects taught* * *What level / year groups* |
| **Can you provide me with a brief professional biography in terms of your own education and job roles?** | * *Work outside of education* * *Traditional or non-traditional qual route?* * *Number of years teaching* * *Sector, Different schools?* |
| **What subject qualifications do you have in relation to the subject that you teach?** | * *GCSE Qualifications* * *A Level Qualifications* * *Vocational qualifications* * *Have a degree, Degree class, Degree focus* * *Postgraduate quals -Masters / PhDs* |
| **How would *you* define an effective teacher?** |  |
| **Questions related to the impact of your subject qualifications** | |
| 1. **How well do you think that your ……….** 2. **(subject qualifications)** 3. **match the *knowledge needed* to teach your subject?** | * *GCSE s, A Levels:* * *Vocational qualifications:* * *Have a degree, Degree class, Degree focus* * *PG quals -Masters / PhDs:* |
| 1. **How useful do you think that your ………** 2. **(subject qualifications)** 3. **were in helping you *gaining employment* as a teacher?** | * *GCSE Qualifications:* * *A Level Qualifications:* * *Vocational qualifications:* * *Have a degree, Degree class, Degree focus* * *PG quals -Masters / PhDs:* |
| 1. **Do you think that your …….** 2. **(subject qualifications)** 3. **have *contributed to your effectiveness* as a teacher?** | * *GCSE Qualifications:* * *A Level Qualifications:* * *Vocational qualifications:* * *Have a degree, Degree class, Degree focus* * *PG quals -Masters / PhDs* |
| 1. **What is your overall view on the importance of subject qualifications and effectiveness?** | * *Experience of other effective teachers and their qualifications* |

# Appendix J: Why do you want to teach?

**Sample responses from successful teachers for applied for PGCE (PCET)**

*‘I have a genuine passion for my subject. Art is often overlooked and seen as unreachable.’*

*‘I want to make a difference.’*

*‘I taught myself to play the guitar.’*

*‘I want to give back.*

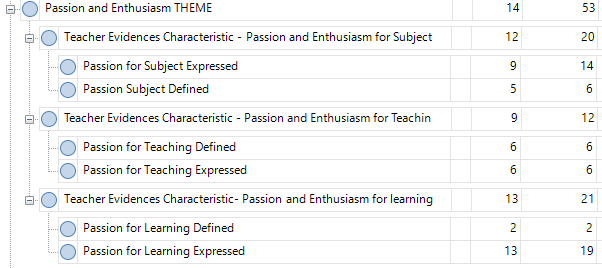
*‘I want to be like one of my great teachers and inspire and motivate.’*

*‘I love learning about something I am interested in.’*

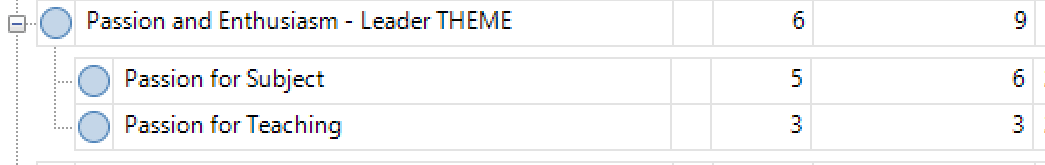
*‘Music was always a passion.’*

# Appendix K: Examples of key Themes in Nvivo

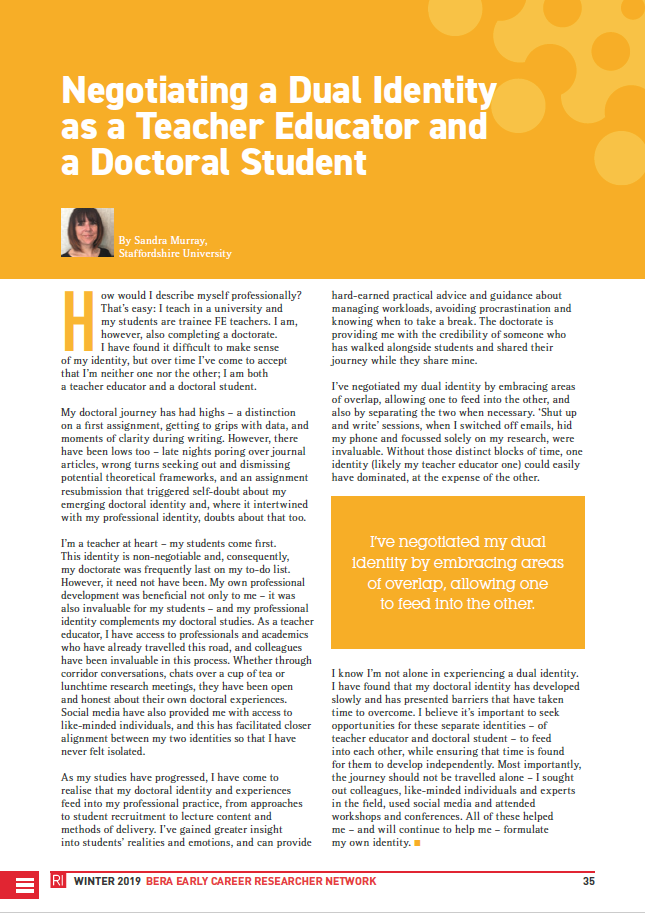
## Teacher Representations of Passion



## Leader Representations of Passion



# Appendix L: Published Article – Research Intelligence (BERA, 2019)



# Appendix M: Sample Interview Transcript

**NOLA – Rose College**

SM: Can you tell me a little bit about where you work and your current job role?

NOLA: Yes, certainly, so I work at ***Rose College*** and I’m an English teacher predominantly, but I also teach creative writing to adults and I teach study skills to access to higher education students and also health studies.

SM: What kind of levels are they, Access to HE, is that a level 3?

NOLA: It is, yes, so I teach level 2, level 3 and then the creative writing is a non-accredited course, purely for enjoyment really

SM: Can you give me a brief professional biography in terms of your own education and job roles?

NOLA: Er, certainly, yeah. I sort of left school after GCSEs and went to work in the sort of laboratory industries and sort of through promotion ended up working with the MOD and erm sort of testing, MOD and private testing and then I went and had a total change and trained as a medical secretary and took on a little bit of just sort of erm, lower managerial roles within a GPs practice. Then I left there to have two children and decided to go back and do a degree, so I went back and did a short level 3 course then a level 4 certificate and a full honours degree and then decided I’d quite like to teach so I did a post grad.

SM: Right, quite a non-traditional route then?

NOLA: Yes.

SM: How long have you been teaching for then?

NOLA: So, I’m in my second official year but I did two years of work experience in the same setting alongside the post grad – the PGCE.

SM: Have you always been at ***Rose College*** then I take it?

NOLA: Yeah. Yeah. I haven’t taught anywhere else.

SM: Ok, brilliant, now I want to try and get a little bit more information about those subject qualifications that you’ve got. So, I’m gonna go back all the way really to GCSEs. What kind of results did you get at GCSE level?

NOLA: Erm, I had English Language at B, English literature at C, Maths at C and then two others at C. Which were sort of social science I think it would be called now and do you know – I can’t remember the other one but it’s not related to English or to health.

SM: OK, So you didn’t do the traditional A levels, you said you did a level 3?

NOLA: I did. When I decided to take my degree erm, I did it through the Open University. I didn’t feel confident to go from GCSEs straight into degree level so I did what would be equivalent to sort of an access course at level 3 looking at a range of the Arts. It was humanities based.

SM: Was that the old Arts foundation year?

NOLA: Not really it was called making sense of the Arts and it was a level 3 course, but I think it was around and about 9 months. It wasn’t even your traditional sort of year.

SM: Ok, but very much that level 3 foundation for your degree?

NOLA: Yes.

SM: So you then went on and did your degree. What was your degree title?

NOLA: I did an English language and Literature degree but I also did, a course before that that entitled me to the level 4 certificate in humanities.

SM: OK. So was that part time or full time?

NOLA: Erm I did that part time. Yeah, and it took about seven years I think. Including the level 3 course and the start of the level 4.

SM: What was your degree result?

NOLA: That was a 2:1. I was offered a first but it wouldn’t have been in English language and literature split which I wanted. Thinking about teaching for the future. Credits for an Open degree or an Open degree with either English language or literature but not the combined honours degree that I wanted.

SM: Ok, so your post graduate qualifications that you’ve done, what are those?

NOLA: That was the PGCE with **XXXX** university.

SM: I take it that wasn’t graded then?

NOLA: It sort of is but it’s a strange grading. I’ve got full level 7 accreditation, the masters level accreditation and a first on the teaching part of it. So outstanding on the teaching part of it if that makes sense?

SM: So, how would you define teacher effectiveness?

NOLA: I think an effective teacher:

Reflects - aiming to continuously improve practice, has a good knowledge base (and the desire to expand this). Has a desire to teach/enjoyment of teaching (and a willingness to work out of hours)

SM: Ok, so just moving on from that I want you to think about the impact that those subject qualifications might have had. So the first question is, how well do you think that those subject qualifications you’ve spoken about, how well do they match the knowledge needed to teach your subject?

NOLA: Erm, very closely and certainly on the English side of it. The terminology, the structuring, all of the qualifications I’ve done, right from the GCSE though to the post grad have all been useful. With regards to teaching on the health course, my work experience has been much more useful there than subject specific knowledge bit again the craft of teaching and the learning of that is a benefit there.

SM: Ok, but you are saying, very much so even from your GCSEs even - matching what you learned in terms of English?

NOLA: Yes, I mean obviously the way we teach it changes how it’s sort of tested changes but the essence of the subject is still, yeah.

SM: How useful have those subject qualifications, so if we leave aside your PGCE, so your level 3, 4 and your degree, how useful have they been for you in gaining employment as a teacher?

NOLA: Erm, I think, well they are a requirement now for any, I did look at several other sort of jobs before applying for and getting the job at Rose college but they are all kind of essential requirements, looking through erm, you know the job specs etc, so I imagine they would be crucial.

SM: So, your PGCE is that focussed on any particular sector, is it the FE PGCE?

NOLA: It was, yes.

SM: OK and how well do you think that those subject qualifications have contributed to your effectiveness as a teacher?

NOLA: I would say that they are absolutely key. I’m thinking back at sort of looking through the information you sent to me yesterday and thinking what teaching might have looked like. As I’m sure you’re aware, it’s not a requirement to have a PGCE to teach in FE. But yes, thinking back to the early days, I think its absolutely key to outstanding teaching, just the processes and how you learn and what we learn about assessment, understanding our students and their needs, without that, I think it is difficult to move from your sort of average lesson into a lesson where you really can drive progress.

SM: But what about the actual, you know the core subject stuff, so what you’ve learned about English, you know English Language, English literature,

NOLA: Yes, ah yes, I see what you mean. Absolutely key, because I think. As you know teaching is quite pressured and it’s quite tricky and in the limited amount of time you have to prepare. So if you already have that background knowledge and that is quite firm and broad then you can spend your time on tailoring lessons and dealing with other issues XXX administration etc. So it is key. You clearly can’t know everything but the time it takes to kind of research these things, to do reading around it to make sure you know it well enough to teach has a significant impact on the other things you could be spending your time on.

SM: OK, great. Have you thought about doing any even higher-level qualifications? So perhaps a masters in English or anything beyond that?

NOLA: I have, yes. Doing the PGCE through **XXXX** means that I’ve done sort of half of the masters, anyway, so there really is a temptation there to go and do the master’s in education and possibly something after that. There’s quite a list of things that I’d like to do qualification in mentoring and coaching, qualification at level 5. I ‘d like to do something around mental health needs cause it’s such a growing issue you know in the area and with the cohort that I work with, yes is the short answer.

SM: So, in you teaching, because you’re not teaching at degree level, but you are educated to degree level, how does that inform how you teach your subject in terms of, does it help you make links in terms of progression. What your learners might be moving on to do?

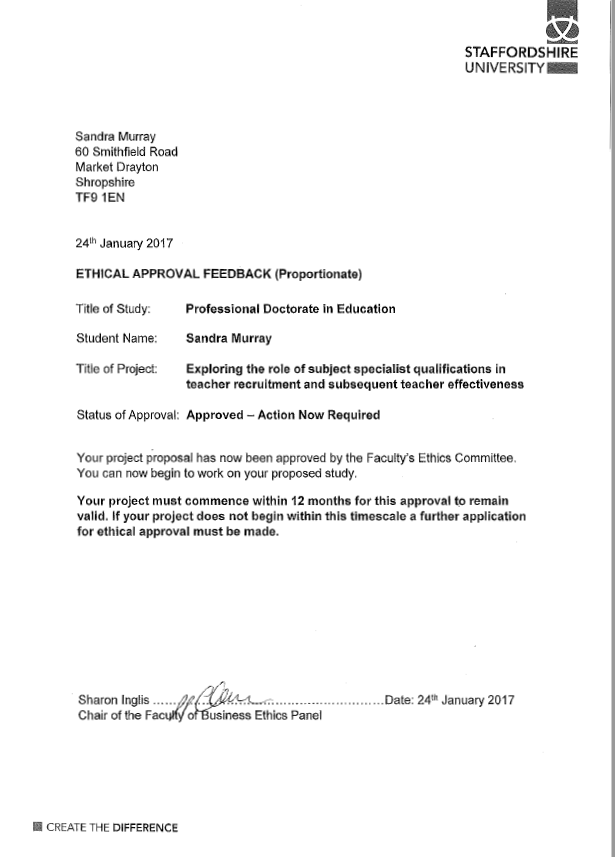
NOLA: Erm, it. Yeah, that’s a very good question, I’ve been thinking about that lately as well because in quite a few of the groups I have there’s a huge range of abilities. And I think being educated to higher levels really helps with the stretch and challenge and really helps interest those learners who perhaps find some things a little bit too accessible. I mean I certainly feel that it’s quite good for learners to be a bit uncomfortable and push themselves wherever they can so the degree level and higher and I did teach on an A level program whilst I was training and the degree level teaching was definitely useful at kind of stretching those A level students and yes, I’m not sure it has a massive benefit to the average level two learner to be honest

SM: Ok, but the expectations of you as an effective teacher are aren’t, they, meeting the needs of the absolutely everybody so that’s quite interesting. Ok, so final question, do you have any particular views. My research is really gathering people’s views rather than specific statistics, have you got any overall views on the importance of subject qualifications to teachers?

NOLA: yeah, I do, and I can’t imagine totally – somebody asked me this the other day. One of my colleagues has is erm, is also a very effective teacher but has not, doesn’t hold a degree or any teaching qualifications – came into it through a different route but through her experiences is a very effective teacher and we were talking about this and how myself personally you know not starting out in education and not having any years of experience or building experience I can’t imagine going into teaching without having had the subject specific degree and the post graduate qualification. I think that the challenges that you face erm, as a teacher these days in FE I just wouldn’t have felt equipped. But my colleague has built her experience over many, many years so you know, has adapted to the change and her subject specific knowledge is probably second to none because she’s been teaching in that particular subject for many, many years and has also developed sort of behavioural strategies

SM: OK

# Appendix N: Ethical Approval



# **Appendix O: Example of Teacher Job Advertisement and Corresponding Job Specification**

**Teacher of English**

**Full Time Temporary for 1 Year – Teachers Main Pay Scale (1-6)**

**Required for September 2017**

XXXX is seeking to appoint an enthusiastic individual to teach English and some Drama across KS3 and KS4.  The candidate may be looking for their first appointment within the profession but applications from colleagues with additional experience will be warmly received.

You will be joining a very successful and supportive department. This is a great opportunity for an ambitious person to join an experienced team where you will have the chance to develop professionally and make a significant contribution to the ever-growing success and reputation of XXXXX School.

We are looking for a skilful teacher who can demonstrate:

 • Excellent communication skills across all levels

• Resourcefulness and team spirit

• Proactive strategies for raising attainment

In return, we can offer:

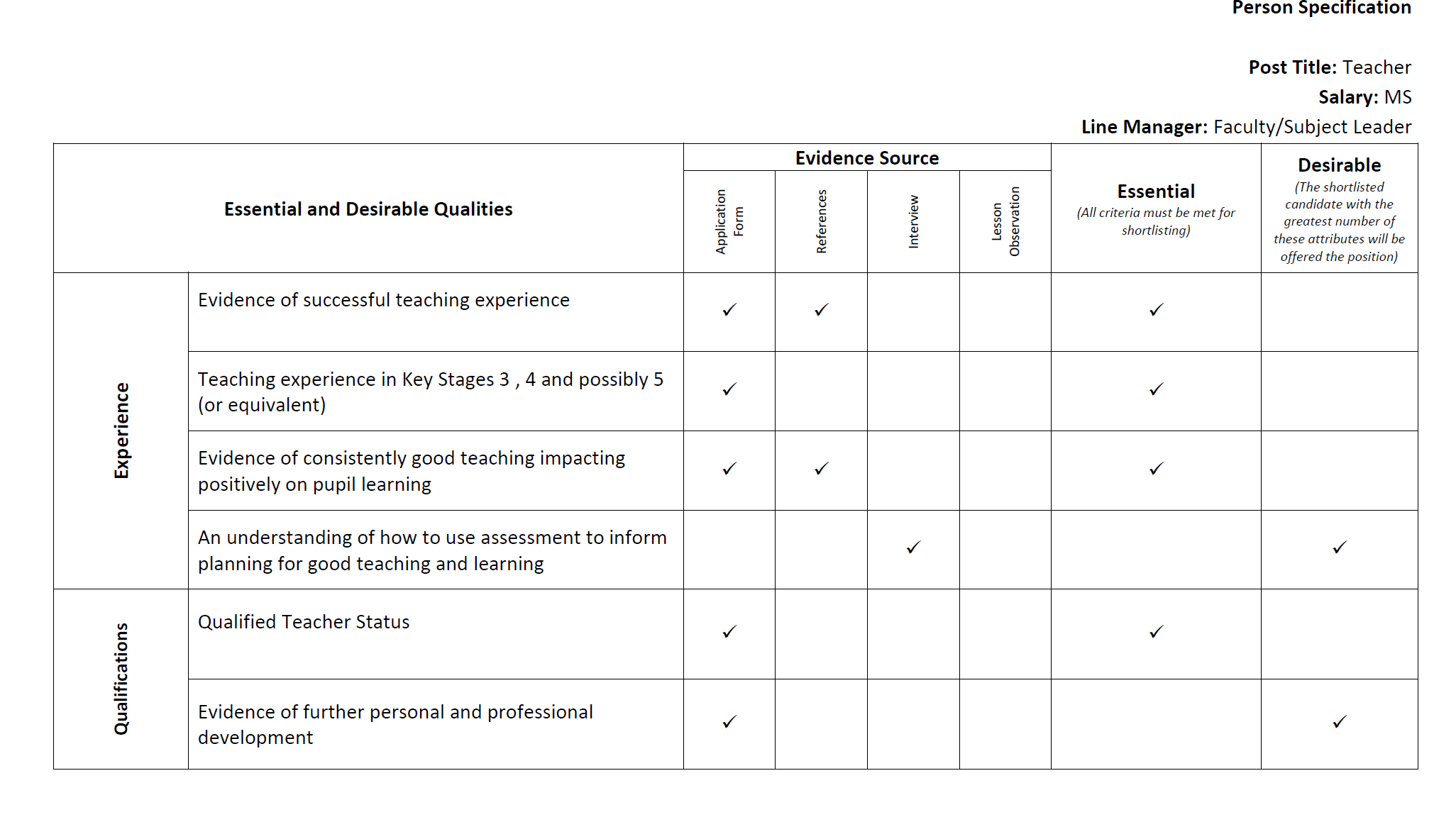
• A well-qualified and experienced team of specialists

• A modern and well-resourced faculty

• A broad spectrum of abilities to encourage across the 11-16 age range

An application pack is available on the vacancies section of the school website, XXXXXXXX

For further information about this role please contact XXXXX by email **XXXXXXX**or telephone **XXXXXXX**



1. The post 16 educational sector in England can encompass FE colleges, private training providers, sixth form colleges and also prison and young offenders’ institutes. However, for the purpose of this research, the focus is restricted to FE colleges. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
2. GPA – Represents the USA College system representation of degree results comparable to UK degree classification. A 4.0 is equivalent to a first-class honours degree and a 2.0 a third-class degree (Fulbright Commission, 2020) [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
3. Praxis tests are undertaken as part of USA teacher preparation programs and measure academic skills, pedagogical skills and subject knowledge (ETS, 2020) [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
4. PANAS is a psychological scale that uses two different scales for self-assessment. One scale uses positive vocabulary and the other negative thus providing a reliable measure of affect through the distinct vocabulary. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
5. FE teachers may take a pre-service or in-service route into teaching. The pre-service route is for aspiring teachers whereas the in-service route is for those teachers who are already teaching. [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
6. The voluntary badge of professionalism for FE teachers [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
7. The mandatory status assigned to primary and secondary teachers [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
8. SATs are USA College Entrance Tests [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
9. SKE Courses aim to develop teacher applicants’ knowledge in the subject they wish to teach. They are usually aimed at teachers who have studied the subject at A level but who do not have a clear degree level focus. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
10. USA GPA corresponds to UK Degree classification [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
11. PISA is an international comparative study of student outcomes [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
12. Already implemented into own professional practice [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
13. Also noted as a recommendation for further research [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
14. The compulsory sector is viewed herein as primary and secondary education up to the age of 16 [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
15. The post compulsory sector is viewed herein as including further education colleges, private training providers and post 14 education outside of the schools’ sector. [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
16. Teacher Development Agency / General Teaching Council [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
17. The fourth lens is that of reflecting through theoretical literature [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
18. Teaching qualifications are currently not required for teachers in Academies [↑](#footnote-ref-19)
19. English to Speakers of Other Languages [↑](#footnote-ref-20)
20. See Appendix 3 for further exploration of these knowledge bases [↑](#footnote-ref-21)
21. Black and Minority Ethnic Students [↑](#footnote-ref-22)
22. Ist Class, 2nd Class (Upper and Lower) and 3rd Class) [↑](#footnote-ref-23)
23. Measured in in terms of Grade Point Average (GPA) – a USA measure of academic achievement. [↑](#footnote-ref-24)