Anglia Ruskin University

Faculty of Health, Social Care and Education

Doctor of Education

‘Enabling children to thrive through a school’s holistic approach: a case study’

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November 2017
Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere thanks to the many people who have worked with me during this research, their advice and support have been invaluable. Firstly, to my supervisor Dr Gerry Davis whose path I will be for ever grateful to have crossed, to Dr Eleni Lithari for her guidance and to Dr Paulette Luff as informed Reader of my thesis. Thank you too to all those who have acted as critical friends throughout this work.

I thank the staff at Shakespeare School who have given their time and energy to discuss their thoughts, materials and experiences with me, providing invaluable feedback on my understanding and representation of their philosophy and work with children.

I would like to thank the children and staff that I have met during my time working in education. They have inspired and motivated me to reflect, question and finally undertake research that seeks further ways for education to positively impact on children’s lives and opportunities.

Finally, I would like to thank my family for their belief in me. To Ann, Eddie, Charlie, Jenny, and James, for their continual love, interest, encouragement and understanding, as always.
Abstract

Inclusion has been recognised as an ongoing process, reflecting changes in political positions, values, policies and practice. As inclusion in the UK develops from focusing upon children with Special Educational Needs to recognising all children in order to resolve inequalities in society, inclusion in government policy is being equated with educational outcomes rather than the process by which it is achieved.

Within a constructivist paradigm, the research utilises a case study methodological approach carried out in one school, sampled for its uniqueness. Shakespeare School successfully supports a diverse group of children, many of whom are seen as vulnerable to underachievement, to make outstanding educational progress. Located within an inner city which currently sits at the bottom of the national educational league tables, this school is rated within the top 5% for academic progress within the country. Therefore, it is of significant interest for this thesis to detail the systematic and scientific inquiry undertaken into the relationship between inclusion and progress within this school.

The findings of the research demonstrate that Shakespeare School is a transformational organisation, where all children and staff are welcomed and empowered by and as valued members of a creative, academic, social and emotional learning collective. The research provides new knowledge challenging the way inclusion is currently understood and identifying a holistic model of inclusion and progress that is characterised by an alignment between the school’s philosophy, creative curriculum and leadership in practice. As a result, the research provides practical contributions in the detailing of the school's bespoke and creative approach in support of positive learning experiences for both the inclusion and progress of all its children so that they can thrive.

The research concludes that the methods by which children’s educational outcomes are achieved matters for their treatment, equity, social justice and entitlements. This thesis determines that the relationship between inclusion and progress can be a positive one, particularly when children are placed at its centre.

Key words: inclusion, progress, case study, leadership, curriculum and creativity.
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Chapter One
Introduction

‘There is a striking contrast between the environment behind and beyond the white electromagnetic switch that opens the door into school. Behind me are rows of houses, packed tightly with cars and trailers sandwiched together and filling every gap where once gardens and hedges would have been presented. As the switch is pressed and the door opens I am met by a wall of grass extending to the roof and filled with flowers, fairy lights and pixies hiding, altogether spelling out their welcome to the school.’ (Research diary extract)

This thesis provides a detailed account of why and how one school aligns their philosophy, curriculum and leadership within a framework that supports the learning experiences for all their children that is both inclusive and enables progress. Chapter One introduces the broader relationships between education, inclusion and inequality, setting them all within a national and local context. This chapter offers an understanding of how the aims and values of education have developed over time, providing recognition of the current focus on educational outcomes that will support both economic growth and respond to inequality. It includes a short description of a personal experience that initiated my professional and research interest in this field, as well as the beginnings of the research question for this thesis and a thesis outline.

My awareness of inclusion developed from the start of my teaching career when I worked with children with Down syndrome, and continued throughout my teaching in mainstream schools to latterly leading a course for initial teacher education. I come to the field of inclusion in practice research with what Gummerson (2000) considers to be a pre-understanding, a lived experience as a practitioner and researcher.

1.1 Personal context

As a teacher in a special school in the 1980s I observed the diagnostic assessment of children with Down syndrome that resulted in their selection and grading, a term of its time, into categories A, B or C. The children’s curriculum, experiences, opportunities, and destinations in, and welcome from, society were mapped out from that point. So too was their involvement in the progress that was assigned to them. Those children identified as C would receive a curriculum of life skills that focused on their own personal health care, and one that aimed at preparing them for the institutionalised life they would either continue to receive or enter at the age of sixteen. For children graded B, the curriculum would focus upon personal health care and vocational support for their move at sixteen to the school’s associated adult workshop. In preparation for life after school, children graded A would receive a curriculum organised to
achieve life skills for community living. Whilst this could have been regarded as differentiation in the form of adapting curricular provision to meet the children's needs as diagnosed, I continued to question the ethics of the whole process. The opportunities on offer, with their associated long term impacts, appeared to me to be based upon difference or otherness that inevitably involved stigmatisation. This experience, my involvement in it and my reflection on it, has remained with me throughout my teaching career and the lives of my own children. My research question therefore began over thirty years ago when I was not aware of the term inclusion, it started as a reflection asking the basic questions of how can this be right and what are the alternatives?

As a teacher in mainstream education I continued to see examples of policy and practice with the aim of supporting children’s educational progress include or exclude children based upon their differences. As a researcher and lecturer I have explored those aims and values that underpin state educational legislation and policy and enable or reject exclusionary practices. I have not forgotten during the last thirty years that the impact of policy and practice have important implications, not only for developing theories of inclusion and inclusive education, but for children, their individuality, childhood, and their future within school and society. As a result, my initial thirty year old question continued to develop as I considered what understanding of inclusion was being sanctioned, practiced and demonstrated to children within an education system that calculates its own success only through the measured, educational outcomes of children.

1.2 Context of study
Inclusion cannot be discussed from a position outside or unrelated to the aims of reducing inequality through social, political and educational reform within society. Neither can inclusion be separated from the values demonstrated by a government’s economic aims for developing a competitive workforce to support a country’s national and global economy. The following section will provide the brief historical, national then local context of such reform that led to the further development of my research question and supports the theoretical framework of inclusion presented in Chapter Two.

Current English educational aims and values have their roots in history. At a time of industrialised development, and also as a result of religious and charitable pressure, The Newcastle Commission Report written in 1861 (cited in Alexander, 2010), called for an increased number of children to be educated in order that they could join the expanded workforce required for greater industrial productivity (Wood, 2004). Education for the masses was seen as becoming part of the state’s responsibility for the poor, with the aim of preparing
children for their adult, working lives. However, if any assistance was provided for children with Special Educational Needs (SEN) this was undertaken through legitimised segregation, supported vocational labour and funded through charitable means. The curriculum within schools aligned with the economic goals of productivity and a stable society, and therefore focused upon resolving and developing the required literate, numerate, religious and moral citizens of the future. Over one hundred and fifty years later the aims of education presented within the National Curriculum in England (DfE, 2013) remain largely unchanged. School must prepare children for the ‘opportunities, responsibilities and experiences’ of adult life, supporting their ‘spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development’ (p.5).

The growth of the current market economy approach to education, based upon the idea of competition to raise standards, interestingly has its roots in the changes happening during the 1960s. The Plowden Report ‘Children and their Primary Schools’ (1967) was delivered at a time of societal change; a more liberalised approach within society was acknowledged with legislation supporting the abolition of the death penalty in 1965 and the legalisation of homosexuality and the Abortion Act in 1967. Whilst criticised subsequently for her focus on needs originating from factors within a child, Plowden called for education to become child centred (Wearmouth, 2017). She argued for the development of children’s learning through their engagement as children and not as future adults, establishing an entitlement for children to a childhood within school. She linked educational aims to social reform, inviting schools to focus upon the creation of citizens who cared for the vulnerable. Plowden aspired to an educational system that avoided generating a society in pursuit of personal and material wealth at the expense of others (Thomas et al., 2007). This report led to an eight year period of a more progressive and liberalised style of child centred education. By 1975 however the United Kingdom (UK) was in deepening recession with the Labour Government facing financial crisis. A series of papers, referred to as the Black papers, were published by opposition politicians and educationalists who blamed progressive teaching approaches for the poor behaviour and outcomes of young people at a time of international difficulties (Brock, 2015). Fuelled by public reaction to the William Tyndale School, where inspectors reported staff as having lost control of its pupils, Callaghan’s Ruskin College Speech of 1976 called for greater control within education through a national curriculum and increased accountability. Such an approach was seen by those in power to support the future economic survival of the country in an internationally competitive world. By 1988 The Education Reform Act established both a national curriculum and testing, with the purpose again resonating with that of 1861, to prepare children for a competitive workforce. However, this time such aims of education were aligned to the government’s neo-liberal approach, based upon the meritocratic principles that emphasised individualism and the free market of competition (Pratt, 2016; Florian et al. 2017).
Neoliberalism has been identified by Bockman (2013) as an ideology and policy model that emphasises the value of free market competition in order to promote economic growth. Through the associated reduction of state involvement, the semi privatisation of education and associated accountability measures, and the distribution of limited services and benefits to citizens, the notion of meritocracy is supported and pro motes each member of society as ‘entrepreneurs in their own lives’ (p.14). As a result, schools began to model to children survival of the fittest from within their own walls.

Since the year 2000, children’s educational outcomes from the UK have been visible within an international context through the testing undertaken by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Unlike the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), the OECD has no legitimate mandate to improve education. However, they conduct a Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) testing young people aged fifteen across seventy two countries. Its purpose in creating an international league table for education is considered by OECD as providing governments with an opportunity to develop effective, educational policy that will lead to their own economic development. This is considered to happen through the identification of characteristics belonging to other highly performing, international education systems. This competitive approach to raising standards has found support within the neo-liberal, English education system that considers increased educational outcomes as the approach required to ameliorate national, social and economic disadvantage (DfE, 2016a; Pratt, 2016). Therefore, when the latest OECD report was published in 2016 the government expressed its concern that when ‘compared to other advanced economies, England has a long tail of low achievement’. By establishing the country’s future economic development and growth as the responsibility of ‘the most academically able’ (DfE, 2016a, p.101), government was also able to position schools as accountable for the production of those required children. The OECD report placed children from the UK in twenty third position for reading, fifteenth in Science and twenty seventh for maths. Twenty two percent of UK children were reported as not meeting the level two baseline results for maths (OECD, 2016). Citing Shanghai, Singapore, Poland and Germany, whilst choosing to ignore others such as Finland (Alexander, 2014), the commitment to ‘an education market’ (Pratt, 2016, p.892) in England in order to compete in an economic, international market appears to have been further established.

Tomlinson (2013), noted the influence of decreased PISA test scores on educational policy as a result of an anxious government’s short term decision making. In England this contributed to not only continuous testing of children in core subjects to measure progress, but the
utilisation of that testing to make judgements about learning and teaching. Since 2012 the quality of teaching has been considered as directly related to children’s progress in learning, with performance related pay for teachers based upon their accountability for children’s test results. Over eighty leading academics from across the world wrote an open letter in 2016 to Dr Andreas Schleicher, director of the OECD’s project. Amongst their criticisms of PISA, they made reference to the impact of resulting short-term fix responses for children and teachers as a consequence of the international educational league table. They expressed their anxiety not only with the resulting narrowing of the curriculum, but also the lack of concern for children’s personal development and the well-being of both children and staff in school. However, as the English education system is a consequence of the government’s commitment to neoliberalism that minimises the role of the state, government has positioned itself to avoid the accountability associated with the methods schools choose in order to produce the educational outcomes government requires of them.

The devolvement of power and accountability to schools within the ‘government’s devolution agenda’ (DfE, 2016a, p.21) has led to the creation of academies and free schools. As a result these schools have been provided with the control to make choices regarding teachers’ pay, the curriculum, admissions, and services. The government retains their control by holding schools and teachers to account for those choices by measuring the outcomes of national assessments, ensuring compliance with the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011) and through the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) whose quality control inspections police learning in school as a product. Due to the centrally organised surveillance and accountability measures, Pratt (2016) argued that schools find it increasingly difficult to deviate their practice from such a culture, focusing heavily on maths and English as the priority areas of children’s learning, whereby assessment is regarded ‘as learning’ (Hewitt and Tarrant, 2015, p.155). If based upon children’s poor progress in learning, a school is judged by Ofsted to be a lower performing school and considered not to have the capacity to improve, devolution is forced as required action by national and regional school commissioners whose role it is to promote multi-academy trusts, academy conversion and the free schools programme (Norwich, 2014). As an academy or free school they would then be able to act as their own admissions authority and control their own student intake, potentially enabling schools to consider the contribution children, and their differences make to required teacher and school performance (Fielding and Moss, 2011).

Within the publication Educational Excellence Everywhere (DfE, 2016a) Nicky Morgan as Secretary of State utilised the narrative of social, economic and educational reform, indicating the importance that all children achieve high educational outcomes in order to resolve not only
the country’s economic development but the inequalities within society. She identified education as ‘the engine of social justice and economic growth’ (p.8), with the power to deliver a fairer and more cohesive society. Critics have long argued that such dialogue provides nothing more than a ‘veneer of social justice and moral authority’ to what remains government’s central purpose of raising standards for economic growth (Benjamin, 2005, p.176), whilst diverting attention from state action or inaction that contributes to social inequality and poverty outside the school walls. Educational Excellence Everywhere (DfE, 2016a) not only equates social justice with educational outcomes, but the same educational discourse that holds teachers and schools to account for the required ‘high expectations for all children’ (p.11) also ensures children are accountable through a focus on meritocracy displayed by their individual hard work in order to achieve. With meritocracy positioning the concept of work ethic as a within person deficit or strength, differential outcomes in society can be reconceptualised as a product of that work ethic and therefore poverty can be portrayed as a matter of the personal choice of the ‘unmotivated, unambitious and underachieving’ (Reay, 2009, p.24).

From national educational statistics and research, inequalities of educational outcomes for children within schools have been clearly identified (Mourshed et al., 2010). From over 8.2 million children in English schools (DfE, 2014a), 11.6% are identified as requiring support for a SEN that is defined as ‘a learning difficulty or disability which calls for special educational provision to be made’ (DfE, 2015a, p.15). A further 2.8% of children are in receipt of a statement of SEN or disability, or an Educational Health Care Plan (EHCP). Along with Roma children, children with SEN are identified as having the largest attainment gap from those achieving the national average for educational outcomes. Only 20.5% of children with SEN achieve the government expected educational outcome at the level of General Certification at Secondary Education (GCSE) of five A*-C grades including maths and English compared to 65.3% of children without SEN. Other vulnerable groups achieving below the national average outcomes include children eligible for a Free School Meal (FSM), an indicator of low family income, children with English as an Additional Language (EAL), those from a minority ethnic background and boys (DfE, 2016b). National Statistics show that children with SEN are significantly represented within each of the vulnerable groups, 27.2% of children with SEN are eligible for FSM, 19% are classified as EAL, 35% are from a minority ethnic background and 14.7% of all boys are on SEN support compared to 8.2% of all girls (DfE, 2016b). The figures above represent the context of national inequalities. However, within the city where the research is located the inequalities are exacerbated further with half of all children achieving well below nationally expected educational outcomes. The city is also one of the fastest growing and culturally diverse cities within the country, with the Local Authority (LA) being
judged as one of the lowest performing authorities. Over 60% of children within this location do not achieve the expected outcomes on leaving primary schools compared to 47% nationally (Perera et al., 2016). The Joint Strategic Needs Analysis document published by the Local Authority in 2015, indicates that not only is this a diverse city in terms of heritage, with 40.8% of children having a minority ethnic heritage compared to just over 26% nationally, but has high levels of social deprivation that include: poverty, poor housing stock, overcrowding and unemployment. In 2017 the city’s Public Health Outcomes Framework recognised poor health outcomes for those within the city, identifying issues relating to alcohol, drugs, sexually transmitted infections, teen pregnancies, smoking, low birth weight and infant mortality.

I have worked within this city in Higher Education for the last eight years, visiting a number of primary schools and working with trainee teachers to support children’s learning, their teaching and engagement with the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011). I have continued to question how children are considered and how difference is treated within schools, particularly when the measurable aim of education remains focused upon children’s attainment in a few specific curriculum areas. During my visits I came across Shakespeare School, a school in an extremely deprived area of the city with a diverse cohort of children and evident inequality. I became interested as this school appeared to be unique within the vicinity by enabling all children to make good or outstanding educational progress between key stage assessment points when compared to other children nationally with similar prior attainment (Standards and Testing Agency, 2016). Whilst not accepting this view of progression as the only one available, as a practitioner visiting the school I knew that this school felt different, and therefore as a researcher I started to question what was happening within it and became keen to learn more. Therefore, the planning of a detailed, systematic and scientific inquiry into this school, which had not been studied in this way previously, began to be formulated in order to answer the question which developed from its original thirty year old form when assessing children with Down syndrome. The question I wanted to answer was ‘How does Shakespeare School support both the inclusion and progress of all children?’ In answering it, I wanted to unpack the detail and complexity of this school and in doing so learn how it viewed and effectively supported both inclusion and progress for all their children, what impact that had for understanding each concept and the treatment of difference being considered, practiced and modelled to children.

1.3 School context
Shakespeare School opened in 1935, and most of the original building remains in place. Currently over one hundred and twenty adults work on site. The 2016 data from the school, the local authority and Ofsted indicates that it is larger than most primary schools, and that
instead of the national average of two hundred and seventy five children Shakespeare School has over seven hundred children on roll, with a diversity of groups of children regarded as vulnerable (DfE, 2016a). 30% of children at school are considered as having SEN, a greater proportion of children than the national average of 14.4%. Greater too is the percentage of children in receipt of pupil premium, with a quarter of all children eligible for FSM at Shakespeare School instead of 14.5% nationally. 80% of children have EAL at school compared to 20.1% nationally and over thirty different languages are spoken within the school.

Originally Shakespeare School was two separate schools, an infant and junior school. In 2001 both were judged to be in special measures, an assessment by Ofsted that they were failing to provide an acceptable standard of education and did not have the capacity to improve. The current Executive Principal took over as head teacher of both schools shortly after that inspection, and their special measure judgements were removed in 2003. Subsequently, in 2004 the infant and junior school merged into one school and the head teacher, in opposition to Local Authority advice at the time, sought to develop greater creative learning opportunities for their children. In 2012 Shakespeare School was graded as an outstanding school by Ofsted. Compared to the average city results where 39% of children achieve the expected outcomes by the end of primary school, 70% of the school’s children continue to reach this level within Shakespeare School. The measurement of progress that compares the results of children nationally with similar prior attainment, puts Shakespeare school in the top 5% of schools within the country for adding value to children’s learning, a measurement that government regards as an indicator of school effectiveness and relative uniqueness. The school cites its aim as striving for excellence, enabling children to achieve their highest creative, social, emotional and academic potential. Following the Ofsted inspection in 2012, the school converted to an academy and has since made an application to join with a secondary school to develop a Multi Academy Trust (MAT) and build an additional Primary School within the city. As a researcher I was enthusiastic to explore this school in detail, to examine the documentation in place, talk to staff and gather a rich understanding of what was happening within it. In particular, I was keen to investigate and understand how the terms progression and inclusion were considered in school, the nature of the relationship between the two concepts and the implications of that for understanding inclusion in reality.

1.4 Thesis terminology
The definition of the term Special Educational Needs (SEN) records; ‘A child or young person has SEN if they have a learning difficulty or disability which calls for special educational provision to be made for him or her’, a child who is of compulsory school age has a ‘learning difficulty or disability if her or she has a significantly greater difficulty in learning that the
majority of others of the same age or has a disability which prevents or hinders him or her from making use of facilities of a kind generally provided for others of the same age in mainstream or post-16 institutions (DfE, 2015a, p 15). It is recognised within The Special Educational Needs and Disability Code of Practice: 0 to 25 years (DfE, 2015a) that some children with a disability, as defined through the Equality Act (2010), may also have SEN. Special Educational needs and Disability are referred to as SEND. As SEN is the term used within government policy and legislation, and SEND is a term not legally determined currently, I will refer to SEN throughout the thesis.

_Free School Meals_ (FSM) refers to a statutory benefit available to all school-aged children as a result of family income, or since 2013 as a current entitlement for all children in school years reception, one and two. Those children entitled to FSM as a statutory benefit, are recognised by government as a disadvantaged group who are at risk of lower educational outcomes than their peers. Each child eligible for FSM as a result of low family income, recorded at any point within the previous six years, will bring to their school an annual payment named Pupil Premium (PP). PP payment for each primary aged, eligible child in 2016-17 currently stands at £1320.

The term _English as an Additional Language_ (EAL) is ‘the expression used in the UK to refer to the teaching of English to speakers of other languages’ (Devarakonda, 2013, p.81) and those whose early exposure at home and/or community is a language ‘other than English’ (DfES, 2007 p.4).

The term _outcomes_ refer to educational attainment and ‘the personal achievement of pupils’ (Hewitt and Tarrant, 2015, p. 4). Evidence of outcomes is measured in Primary schools at the end of Key Stages One and Two through the national testing procedures for maths and English. Educational _progress_ is a measurement that calculates the progress children make between those key stage assessment points, and compares those results with children nationally who had a similar prior attainment (Standards and Testing Agency, 2016).

Within government literature the term _pupil_ is used throughout. However, within Shakespeare School all staff participants and documentation refer to _children_. Therefore, the term _children_ will be used throughout this thesis except when making reference through direct quotations from government policy or legislation. _Staff participants_ refer to the members of Shakespeare School staff who agreed to, and participated in, the research.

A glossary of key abbreviations used within the thesis is presented following Chapter Six.
1.5 Thesis structure

Chapter Two forms the theoretical framework and critical stance that informs the construction of the research within the thesis. It provides an understanding of how inclusion has developed over time within the context outlined in Chapter One. It establishes how and why the legislation and policy of inclusion have been constructed, moving from one which focused upon children with SEN, to one which currently focuses upon all children and its relevance to social justice. Alongside the development of government policy, this chapter examines both the models and definitions of inclusion, as developed by educational researchers and their perspectives, and develops the literature regarding inclusive school leadership, curriculum and pedagogy.

Chapter Three, in following on from the literature review confirms the research paradigm, methodology, methods of data collection and analysis undertaken in order to answer the research question. It establishes the strengths of case study research and addresses misunderstandings around its use. The chapter highlights ethical considerations, and provides information endorsing the credibility of the research and its results as shared within the subsequent chapters of this thesis.

Chapter Four presents the results of Phase One of the research acknowledging three main themes, identified as a result of Thematic Analysis of the entire data set. Phase Two results present the feedback provided by staff participants on the findings from Phase One. This chapter is presented prior to the discussion in Chapter Five as opposed to combining both within one chapter. This decision was made in order to provide transparency of the results within the research, clearly stating the detailed and rich description of the values and practices provided by staff participants within the school in relation to the research question before interpretation. This approach supports the authenticity and rigour of the research and considered important for transferability.

Chapter Five analyses the resulting three themes from both research phases and the subsequent school model, discussing the results and why they matter. The analysis is informed by the legislation, policy and academic research identified within the previous chapters. The chapter provides consideration of Shakespeare school's current practice, analysing it and connecting it to what had previously been known, thereby adding to the currency of the scholarly literature and professional practice within the field of inclusion.

Chapter Six concludes the thesis, and in answering the research question both discusses limitations of the research and establishes the theoretical and practical contributions this research has provided.
In summary, Chapter One has established that an early career experience of how differences between children were considered and valued initiated my professional and research interest in inclusion and the treatment of children. The context in which that interest developed identified a relationship between education, social justice and economic growth, with high stake lines of accountability for children’s educational outcomes and progress lying with children, teachers and schools. Furthermore, the different contributions each child makes to a teacher’s and school’s performance is inextricably linked with the contribution they each make to a child’s educational outcomes and progress that is seen as a measure of inclusion. Shakespeare School, with its diverse cohort of children all of whom were judged to be making above average progress in school, was therefore of interest to me in researching an understanding of how this school supported both children’s inclusion and their progress. The following chapter presents a review of the research literature for inclusion, establishing it as a theoretical framework for the research undertaken within this thesis.
Chapter Two
Literature Review

‘I have looked today to see what signs point to particular children as having a ‘special’ educational need. It was difficult, with no obviously isolated children, ‘special’ areas or one to one velcro TA clues inside or outside the classroom... but to be honest it was challenging to know who was the teacher and who was the TA.’
(Research diary extract)

Chapter One established the broader context for inclusive primary school education for all children. Chapter Two provides the theoretical framework for this research thesis (Carnwell and Daly, 2001) that acknowledges inclusive education as the basis for a socially just education system. By reviewing national legislation, policy and research literature that focuses on inclusion, an understanding of how difference is perceived, managed and treated within schools can be seen to inform that framework. A systematic search of the literature and government publications was made initially from a retrospective position, finding the most recent and relevant materials and following up on work cited. However, that approach then led to a further search being undertaken from a developmental perspective in order to understand key theoretical, policy and perspective developments within the field of inclusion that originated within the context of SEN. Key authors were searched for and read critically, for example: Ainscow, Dyson, Farrell, Florian, Glazzard, Hodkinson, Norwich, Oliver, Rix, Slee, Thomas and Warnock. Key search terms relating to inclusion combined with: special educational needs, social justice, children, progress, assessment, education, pedagogy, teachers, teaching assistants, curriculum and leadership, were utilised to ensure a comprehensive coverage of themes.

The literature review is divided into the following five sections, which I considered pertinent to the research question, with inclusion used as a lens through which children’s education and the practices of schools are considered:
One: The development of inclusion - legislation and policy
Two: Definitions of Inclusion
Three: School Leadership
Four: Curriculum and Pedagogy
Five: Focus of the research

2.1 The development of inclusion – National legislation and policy context
The field of inclusive education has become a focus of debate and policy throughout the world (Farrell and Ainscow, 2002). Recognition of the key issues and tensions in the field is required
in order to understand how, and why, inclusive education has developed in schools and for researchers over time.

In England, including children based upon the categorisation of difference has its roots in how inclusion was originally established for children entering education from a position of exclusion. The social welfare reform that led to the Education Act of 1870 created a basic right to education, with the state becoming responsible for the educational provision for children with special educational needs, or *handicaps* as it was referred to then. Whilst the Act did not specifically mention children with handicaps neither were they excluded. Therefore, children who had previously remained at home became entitled to enter mainstream education. As soon as this act of integration occurred the practice of segregation was sanctioned. Medical officers were appointed to school boards in order to enforce categorisation, determined by the assessment of children’s educational capability and potential to achieve. Over the years this approach was further developed through the power of psychometric testing. Testing was considered to offer not only the opportunity to measure levels of intelligence but to also predict a child’s potential to achieve educational outcomes. Led by London’s first educational psychologist Burt in 1937, national legislation and policy was influenced by psychometric testing, with segregation based upon the categorisation of deficit and handicaps legitimised as a result (Thomas and Loxley, 2001). Based upon the notion of some children’s incapacity to receive ordinary teaching in mainstream schools, specialised educational treatment was established. This approach to segregation was rooted in what is now referred to in inclusive education research as the medical model of disability. The model considers disability as constructed from a medical perspective, with the identification and categorisation of difference based upon a within-person impairment (Johnstone, 2011), owned by the individual and resulting from an individual’s pathology (Norwich, 2013). The notion of difference within the model therefore has the comparison of children at its core, with a subsequent judgement of normality and abnormality to be made. In criticising the medical model, disability researchers suggest that the consequential labelling of some children led to their segregation, and established a national education system in England that supported an illusion of the protection and care of the few whilst also maintaining social order through advertising meritocracy as fairness of opportunity for the many. Therefore, the resulting allocation of educational opportunities was able to be considered as legitimately providing for the majority of learners who were considered not to have impairments (Pijl et al., 1994).

By the end of the 1960s, at a time of societal change and a more liberalised approach, Burt’s research was suspected for its lack of robustness. Psychometric testing was being questioned not only for its narrow view of a child, but also its lack of recognition of the impact of external
influences (Norwich, 2013). The practice of segregation was also being examined more widely, with consideration given to the effect of stigmatisation upon children and society. The call for integration and the introduction of the term SEN was identified by the Warnock Report (DES, 1978), and was subsequently enshrined in law through the 1981 Education Act. Norwich (2013) identified that Warnock’s report was based upon two premises. Firstly, children’s educational needs were considered to lie along a continuum, with difference between needs occurring by degree as opposed to by categories of need. Difference was viewed as a normal bell curve with regions of tolerance, and as such Warnock recognised that there would be a greater number of children outside the edges of tolerance with educational needs in school than previously considered. Based upon this premise, she considered around twenty percent of the school population would fall into this area. The committee introduced the term integration, and along the continuum of need children could be integrated at a locational, social and functional level. Secondly, the report identified an interactionist model in that a child’s educational progress should be recognised as the interaction between their own strengths and difficulties on the one hand, and the support and obstacles of the environment in which they were taught on the other (Weddell, 1993). Whilst the report advocated the removal of categorisation, it also recognised the state’s responsibility to provide educational resources and provision for those with special educational needs. As a result, Warnock’s report suggested that a multi-professional team would consider what a child’s special educational needs were. This became known as the statutory assessment or statementing process of SEN. As a result, and perhaps inadvertently, Warnock created what Norwich (2013) now refers to as a ‘super category’ of labelling (p.17), providing the negative connotations she had acknowledged she had wanted to avoid. Whilst Warnock’s report had been based upon an interactionist model, the process of statutory assessment when enacted by Local Education Authorities focused on the child and their degree of difference. Critics point out that professionals held the power over children through their construction of medical conditions and their associated specialised systems of treatment (Lewis, 1991), with Thomas et al. (2007) referring to it as the ‘entrapment of a child in a cocoon of professional help’ (p.55). The influence of the school with their policy, decision making and processes within that interaction was considered to be lost. Decisions of integration were consigned to the Local Education Authorities (Jones, 2004), and a postcode lottery ensued (Farrell, 2004). While some authorities developed integrative practices for children whose needs were seen to be met without detriment to other children (Wearmouth, 2001), other authorities retained segregated provision (Dyson and Millward, 2000).

The 1981 Act in principle recognised that teaching children with SEN was part of every teacher’s responsibility (Coune, 2003). So, as part of the developing performance agenda,
when The Education Reform Act (1988) established all children’s entitlement to the national curriculum and testing procedures, this included those children with SEN. The resulting enactment of integration policy in practice was identified by researchers at that time, particularly those working within the field of disability studies such as Mike Oliver and Bengt Lindqvist, as creating issues of equality of access, opportunity and marginalisation of children with SEN in school (Ainscow, 2005). The disability researchers identified a social model of disability and started to draw attention to disability as being socially constructed instead of resulting from impairments. As a result the social model of disability was identified. The basis of the model recognised that an individual may have an impairment, identified by The World Health Organisation (WHO) in 1980 as a deviation from the biomedical norms, but disability was not caused by that impairment but through the external and disabling beliefs, values, systems and society surrounding a person. From this perspective, the exclusion and marginalisation of children being experienced in schools was seen to be generated by policy makers, professionals and their practices (Oliver, 1990; Barton, 1997; Slee and Allen, 2005). The disability movement called for a change, suggesting: ‘the term inclusion... as developed from the social model perspective should replace the term integration as developed by politicians’ (Oliver, 1996, p.15).

Inclusive education as a term evolved during the 1990s in England (Hodkinson, 2005), with recognition of the social model of inclusion informing international as well as national policy. The World Conference on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994), held in Salamanca, Spain, issued a statement on behalf of the ninety two governments. This statement included agreed principles, policy and practice in Special Needs Education that focused upon inclusive education from a social model and human right’s perspective. All European Union (EU) countries were to have appropriate legislation to not only promote, but also require inclusion. Therefore, national policies and practices that supported the exclusion of some children from their human rights were to be removed by government, and all children were to be educated together. In England, authors and researchers adopting this social model perspective, for example the authors of the Index for Inclusion Booth and Ainscow (2002), were seen to become part of the next phase of inclusion and school reform (Norwich 2016).

As the government in England committed to the international agreements for children’s inclusion, tension between the government’s allegiance to neoliberalism, raising educational standards and the models of inclusion started to be exposed. As national legislative changes were made, and inclusive education as a term was first used but not explained within the 1997 Special Educational Needs Green paper (DfEE, 1997); government continued to develop its inclusive policy through the introduction of a revised curriculum (DfEE, 1999). Within the
curriculum three inclusive principles were established that resonated with the social model of inclusion: ‘setting suitable learning challenges; responding to pupils’ diverse needs and overcoming potential barriers to learning and assessment’ (DfEE, 1999, p.30). The requirements of government and school to co-ordinate both the policies of inclusive education with that of raising academic standards were established from that point. The use of the term **barriers**, whilst welcomed by disability groups for its associations with a social model, enabled government to avoid expressing a belief as to whether children’s impairments or differences could be altered, and at the same time positioned children with **needs** as one complex group (Thomas et al., 2007). However, whilst outwardly demonstrating a commitment to the social model of inclusion, government provision and resource allocation remained firmly fixed in the medical model. The diagnosis of impairments and abnormalities, referred to as needs, was required as a prerequisite for the assessment and statementing process and the provision of additional resources. The Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) introduced eleven categories through which those needs could be identified and treated. Tension between utilising both the medical and social models within an education system based upon the policy model of neoliberalism and a market economy of accountability, as identified in Chapter One, led to what Barton (2003) refers to as the twin-track system. This system was considered to enable legislation and policy to exhibit an outwardly strong commitment to inclusion, whilst at the same time continuing to support the practices of segregating some children within special schools (Hodkinson, 2010). It also enabled the process of classifying, labelling and categorizing the diversity of children as **special** within mainstream education in order to allocate resources to provide for their equality of opportunity (Florian et al., 2006). Critics, such as Runswick-Cole and Hodge (2009), argued that the need for labelling children as **special** continued to contribute to their exclusion rather than inclusion. Skritic (1991) noted that such a system was able to do this by providing an impression of a commitment to inclusion through the use of inclusive ‘symbols and ceremonies’ (p.165), an example of which can be seen within the government’s own three inclusive principles within the national curriculum (DfEE, 1999) as already outlined. ‘The goal of full inclusion’ (Hornby, 2002 p.4), and for what some saw as a genuinely fairer education system, was identified by Evans and Lunt (2002) as having its limits; the policy of inclusion was being ‘steam-rolled by the stronger standards agenda’ (Dyson and Slee, 2001 p.17).

During the year 2000, the metrics of accountability in support of raising educational standards were further strengthened. At the same time that educational outcomes became visible within an international context, Ofsted shared with schools that they would judge the effectiveness of a school’s inclusivity based upon the equality of educational outcomes of all its children (Ofsted, 2000). This implied that effective schools were inclusive schools, and inclusion was
to be developed from a focus on children with SEN to one that acknowledged all children (UNESCO, 2005; Ainscow et al. 2006). It was perhaps not a coincidence, but at the same time as the commitment was made to including all children, an argument for reducing the number of children requiring additional educational support and finance was developing.

The OECD produced an international ‘resource-based’ (Florian et al., 2006 p.40) model of categorisation of SEN in 2000, providing an opportunity to overcome international differences in definitions and classification. The model structured educational needs as falling into three categories, A referred to disability, B to differences in learning and C to disadvantage. Whilst the United Kingdom identified a similar number of children within category A to the rest of the participating countries, it demonstrated a significantly higher identification of children within category B. Whilst in Finland the social democratic and welfare state approach focused on both strengthening children’s entitlement to special and early educational support in mainstream schools (Lundahl, 2016) and supporting social justice through the distribution of children’s rights through the duties of societies institutions (Tomlinson, 2013), The House of Commons Education and Skills Committee (2006) took another approach. They reported that the UK government’s changing definition of inclusion was causing confusion and raised concerns about the English SEN system and its cost (Conservative Party, 2007). Endorsed again by Ofsted (2010) who conducted a national review of SEN, an over identification of SEN with unacceptable variability was reported. The largest group of children with SEN, reflecting category B of the OECD categorisation, were considered by Ofsted to be able to have their needs met through normal classroom practices, thereby requiring access to financial resources already present within school. The report suggested that resources and school focus should be directed towards a smaller group of children, which was presumed to be those seen as Category A of the international OECD model. Whilst not explicitly said, it was implied that this would require a medical diagnosis (Norwich, 2014) and an appropriate educational placement provided as a result. The then leader of the opposition, David Cameron, observed that the inclusive ideology of the 1990s had nationally led to a bias towards inclusion in education. On his election as leader for the coalition government in 2010, the current SEN policy and legislation in operation at the time of writing this thesis was initiated.

Supported by a government view regarding a bias to inclusion, children who would previously have been seen as requiring additional resources for SEN were now regarded as not. The Children and Families Act (DfE, 2014b) secured the legal aspect of the placement of children with SEN within education, yet inclusion was referred to only once within that Act. The resulting Code of Practice (DfE, 2014c) followed, replacing the previous eleven categories of SEN with four. It removed the categories of moderate learning difficulties and behaviour, emotional and
social difficulties, replacing the latter, which had one of the highest incidences, with a category termed social, emotional and mental health. The code, whilst acknowledging mental health, eradicated behaviour as a special educational need altogether.

The code recommended that if a learning need was identified, schools should adopt a graduated approach to SEN, meeting a child’s needs through differentiation of the curriculum and ‘high quality’ and targeted teaching (p.95), avoiding any indication of what this may look like in practice. As with Ofsted’s (2010) recommendations, high quality teaching was identified as a factor that would reduce the need for children to require special educational provision and additional finance. However, if a child’s progress remained problematic then the school Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCo) should assess the child, and in line with a social model of inclusion, the school should take action to remove the barrier to learning. This process should then be revisited, refined and reviewed so that an individualised approach for learning would be provided. If a child’s progress was considered to remain an issue, seen as a matter of teacher’s professional judgement, then an application could be made to the local authority to contemplate the need for statutory assessment. Assessment, once again based upon a medical model approach and diagnosis, would be made through the formulation of an Education and Health Care Plan (EHCP), specifying the needs as opposed to children’s rights in order to receive appropriate allocation of SEN provision so that child’s educational attainment could be increased.

Current government policy and legislation indicates its compliance with the United Nations Conventions on the Right of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) as part of its commitment to transforming inclusive education for all children through equitable educational outcomes. Critics like Peacey (2015) has argued that policy should look beyond attainment as the only outcome to be valued, and instead recognise the ‘social benefits for society of transforming the mainstream so all can participate’ (p.7). However, measurable educational outcomes as a product of the educational market place which has been created, remain what is outwardly valued and sought by government and for which schools are held to account. The policy direction for inclusion, and therefore social justice, retains an outcome based focus that combined with the privatisation of schools enables the methods by which this is achieved to be ignored; positioning schools and children as responsible for a stable, social reality, whilst enabling government to pursue their economic austerity policies (Norwich, 2014).

The language, ethos and goals of inclusion within legislation and policy have developed over time. Originating as part of SEN discourse, inclusion has been considered both as forms of integration and a responsibility for an education system to change in response to need. As the
scope of those requiring inclusion broadens, what has remained constant is the reliance upon the categorisation of deficit, whether educational or financial, to not only define need as one that ‘belongs to the child’ (Peacey, 2015, p.9), but as a requirement in order to access resources to ameliorate for it. Currently, inclusion forms part of a school’s accountability as a measure of educational outcome for all groups of children. It is unlikely therefore that a definition would be agreed by everyone (Gerschel, 2003).

2.2 Definitions of inclusion

The principle that an inclusive education system is based upon a moral and ethical obligation (Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden, 2000), the equality of opportunity and an entitlement as a human right (Lipsky and Gartner, 1999; Oliver, 2000), appears to be accepted and not debated within research literature. However, it can be seen that currently a single, accepted definition of inclusion remains ‘an elusive concept’ (Devarakonda, 2013, p.1). This reflects not only political values and policy change, but the complexities of differing understandings, research interests and motivations, as well as the transference of the ideology of inclusion to a functioning definition. In the absence of an agreed definition, it is said that authors and practitioners have constructed owned meanings based upon contextual or personal experience, shaping a version of inclusion that has been ‘put through our own interpretative sieve’ (Slee, 2001, p.114). The plurality of inclusion recognises that what some authors consider a ‘buzz word’ (Evans and Lunt, 2002, p.41), others such as Glazzard (2014) see as a ‘proactive stance’ (p.40). Whilst Bailey (1998) considers it to be a fervent campaign by the disability rights movement, Hodkinson (2012) recognises it as the dominance of one group controlling the identity of another. A table of summary definitions from Florian (2005, p.31) is provided in Figure 2.1.
Norwich (2013) argued that the term inclusion was typically used with the meaning that the Index for Inclusion established, in that it confirmed the rights of all children to their full participation in society as well as education (CSIE, 2011), whilst also referring to the increased placement of children in mainstream education. However, in Figure 2.2 Norwich (2013, p3) provides a list of the key themes from literature revealing what Dyson (1999) considers to be the ambiguity for inclusion, in that there remains a variety of inclusions within research and policy literature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Source</th>
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<tr>
<td>Being with one another, how to deal with adversity, how we deal with difference.</td>
<td>Forest and Pearpoint, 1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A set of principles which ensures that the student with a disability is viewed as a valued and needed member of the school community in every respect</td>
<td>Uditsky, 1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A move towards extending the scope of ordinary schools so they can include a greater diversity of children</td>
<td>Clark et al, 1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools that deliver a curriculum to students through organisational arrangements that are different from those used in schools that exclude some students from their regular classrooms.</td>
<td>Ballard, 1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools that are diverse problem-solving organisations with a common mission that emphasises learning for all students</td>
<td>Rouse and Florian, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full membership of an age-appropriate class in your local school doing the same lessons as the other pupils and it mattering if you are there. Plus you have friends who spend time with you outside of school.</td>
<td>Hall, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The process by which a school attempts to respond to all pupils as individuals by reconsidering its curricula organisation and provision.</td>
<td>Sebba, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools that are accepting of all children</td>
<td>Thomas, 1997</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.1 Table of definitions (Florian, 2005, p.31)
• Accepting/valuing/extending scope to all
• Not leaving anyone out
• School reorganisation/ problem-solving organisation
• Promoting fraternity
• Enhancing equal opportunities
• Listening to unfamiliar voice/empowering
• Active participation in school life
• A road without end
• Not an end in itself but a means to an inclusive society

Figure 2.2 Key themes of inclusion from the literature (Norwich, 2013, p.3)

For some authors the definition of inclusion relates to the restructuring of provision to promote a sense of belonging for children on equal terms (Kunc, 1992; Oliver, 2000; Gross, 2001), with Warnock (2005) considering inclusion to be regarded as a common endeavour of learning, providing a sense of worth (O’Brien, 2000). The CSIE (2002) argued that inclusion enabled the full participation of children ‘in the life of a school’ (p.2) and the DfES (2001) noted that it engendered ‘a sense of community’ (p.3). Lauchlan and Greig (2015) concluded that most people’s construction of an understanding of inclusion would probably agree on what they mean by it:

‘It is generally taken to mean that children and young people are included both socially and educationally in an environment where they feel welcomed and where they can thrive and make progress’ (p.70)

Inclusion that utilises a social model, concentrates its definitions on the response schools make to the diverse learning needs of its children. Hence why it can be seen as a never ending process (Ainscow, 2005) of rethinking structures, policy, curricula and the culture of a school to ensure that no child is left out (Corbett, 1999; The British Psychological Society, 2002; Allan 2006; Norwich and Nash, 2011). In 2002 as the bias of inclusion was spoken about by government, Ofsted defined inclusion in a broader sense, moving it away from a focus on SEN and disability; establishing a focus on social justice that recognised equitable educational outcomes as demonstrating that the ‘teaching and learning achievements, attitudes and well-being of every person matters’ (p.13). With inclusion now handed the role of alleviating social inequalities, minimising the achievement gap between privileged and disadvantaged groups of learners (Gerschel, 2003; DCSF, 2009; Ofsted, 2010), the understanding of the term inclusion also developed. It became recognised as ‘both a process and an outcome of achieving social justice and equity in our society’ (York-Barr et al., 1992, p.92). In doing so, and as Brunila (2011) reported, the mindset that viewed inclusion of those with SEN as having a within person deficit was now extended to inequality in society, with neither regarded as resulting merely from circumstance. It therefore remains imperative to challenge the notion of a socially just education system for all children within educational policy that has been
developed from an understanding of inclusion based upon the SEN legacy of how difference has been treated and managed in the name of inclusion (Armstrong, 2005; Parry et al., 2013) and the role education plays in maintaining a stable society.

The notion that inclusion, and therefore social justice, could be verified through the measurement of outcomes, as assessed by Statutory Assessment Tests (SATs), bound inclusion with accountability in every school for all groups of children (Dyson, 2005). Ainscow et al., (2006) recognised the progress with defining inclusion, based upon establishing alternative views of it, was ‘painfully slow’ (p.296) due to the resulting focus on educational excellence of outcomes taking priority (Dyson, 2005). Furthermore, the government’s focus on the metrics of accountability led to a school’s reputational and financial survival as ‘dependent upon surface success’ (Hanko, 2003, p.126). As schools became wary of accepting children who may impact on that success (Fredrickson and Cline, 2002, p.67), practices were introduced within schools that narrowed the version of inclusion being enacted (Flem et al, 2004; Ainscow, 2012) whilst at the same time legitimising segregation, comparison and judgement (Thomas et al., 2007). As a result, schools and their staff were seen by critics as acting as ‘agents of marginalisation’ (Mowat, 2015, p.460) in the name of inclusion, whilst developing a form of ableism based upon the potential economic power and progress of children (Armstrong, 2005; Runswick-Cole, 2011).

In his 1977 publication *Reproduction in Education, Society and Culture*, Bourdieu challenged the role schools and the education system played in such marginalisation by actively seeking to reproduce rather than ameliorate cultural and social inequalities. Within his work the familiarity of tensions between the medical and social models of inclusion are recognisable. Bourdieu (1985) highlights three main areas as relevant for transformation in education: habitus, cultural capital and the field. His version of *habitus* has been considered as a person’s internalised dispositions that at a subconscious level supports their action and choices. The habitus of children is seen as developing from birth through what Jenkins (2002) refers to as imprinting ‘in a socialising or learning process which commences during early childhood’ (p.75). The advantages, as well as disadvantages, of a child’s background are therefore regarded as not only orientating a person to adopt the dispositions of the group in which they were acquired, but recognises that this may also be at odds with the values schools seek to offer and reward. *Cultural capital* was regarded by Bourdieu as the cultural values, knowledge and attitude acquired through a child’s background and what Henry et al. (1988) referred to as ‘all the competencies one class brings with them to school (p.233). The impact of parent’s cultural capital for children was recognised by Reay (1998), who stated that educational and social capital was generated by parents for their children through for example paying for and
organising additional activities beyond school, such as educational classes and social events. Children whose families developed different cultural capital were seen by Comber and Hill (2000) as entering the education system with ‘cultural capital in the wrong currency’ for success (p.80), thereby perpetuating inequality. Bourdieu’s concept of the field has been considered as the space or context, structured by different forms of capital, and an area in which the habitus interacts. The field can therefore be regarded as operating at the level of a school or an education system.

Whilst the language and presence of the social model of inclusion remains evident in research, educational policy and legislation, critics have raised concern that this model has both lost its power to bring about radical change for the diverse groups it now represents and provides an ideology ‘not easily challenged’ (Shakespeare and Watson, 2002, p.14). In developing the research framework, a third model of inclusion was considered and selected for its focus on all children as well as its potential alignment with the work of Bourdieu. The model named the capability framework has been seen to underpin a human rights approach, and in doing so ‘respond to some of the problems of the social model’ (Norwich, 2014, p.17). Developing from the work of Sen (1985) in the field of normative economics and philosophy, the capability approach has been considered by educational researchers interested in disability and equality (Terzi, 2005: Nussbaum, 2009). Terzi (2005) acknowledges that this approach could resolve the dilemma difference presented for the developing social model, in that diversity remains central to this framework.

The capability to function framework, focuses upon human diversity, real choices and individual goals and well-being. In Sen’s approach, capability refers to the real opportunities and agency provided in support of freedom of choice, with functionings regarded as the ‘achievement of a person: what she or he manages to do or to be’ (1985, p.12). Functionings are recognised as valuable to the person, something they have chosen and therefore related to their well-being and personal fulfilment. The commodities available to a person, the environment in which they live as well as that person’s individual characteristics are acknowledged as having the potential to impact upon a person’s capabilities, and in turn their functionings. Capability theorists have highlighted that the interaction of those personal and social commodities enables any evaluation to not focus on a person’s impairment or deficit in isolation (Terzi, 2005). Disability is therefore not defined in terms of either the medical or social model, but regarded as a deprivation or limitation in capability or functioning (Mitra, 2006). Whilst viewed as a useful ethical model and evaluation tool in order to highlight inequalities for all children, current criticism of the model for educational purposes involves its incompleteness in taking into account social power, constraints on choice and how the
dilemma of difference is resolved in practice (Norwich, 2013). Norwich (2008) suggests that as part of its continued development, the capability framework would benefit from being ‘integrated with other approaches’ (p.20).

As the term inclusion has developed to include all children, it remains appropriate to provide a framework for inclusion based upon the promotion and protection of human rights and entitlement to the opportunities and commodities Sen refers to. The Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE) and disability researchers have continued to call for a rights based model of disability and inclusion to be reaffirmed and established. Founded upon the principles of human rights within the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the rights based model seeks to analyse inequalities based upon the unjust distribution of power and discriminatory practices, challenging them the through social, political and educational arenas. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (1989) established forty five human rights for all children and young people through an international human rights treaty. Within the treaty it stipulates that every child has a right to education, with the goals of that education identified and being required to:

‘... develop every child’s personality, talents and abilities to the full. It must encourage the child’s respect for human rights, as well as respect for their parents, their own and other cultures, and the environment.’ (Article 29)

Children are entitled to ‘relax, play and take part in a wide range of cultural and artistic activities’ (Article 31) and those children with a disability have a right to live a full and decent life with dignity and, as far as possible, the independence to play an active part in the community (Articles 2 and 23). The UK signed the Convention in April 1990 and it came into force in December 1992. Sen (2005) recognised its link with the capability framework: in that rights equated to the entitlement to opportunities in terms of capabilities, and the freedom to make choices. The legal rights of children were established after my initial experience of the diagnosis and treatment of children with Down syndrome in the 1980s. Their treatment, and for many their removal from society, clearly did not uphold their rights as children, instead relying solely on an obligation to resource a route based upon a medical model of inclusion. From a capability perspective, the children were not considered as entitled to choose, nor provided with an opportunity to achieve what they could as well as what they valued.

This section has outlined the range of definitions associated with inclusion that are not just a matter of semantics but based upon differing models, values and perspectives. In doing so it highlighted the tension between an understanding of inclusion and educational outcomes as well as the key themes and models, including the developing capability model associated with
inclusion and Bourdieu’s work on cultural and social justice. This section has formed part of the theoretical framework essential to the research and critical stance within this thesis, the subsequent sections of the literature review add to that framework and consider inclusion in practice more closely, as it is in practice that ‘inclusion can only really mean anything’ (Devarakonda, 2013, p.6).

2.3 Leadership for an inclusive school

Inclusion in school is seen within the literature as the opportunity and process for inclusion in society (Oliver, 2000; Booth and Ainscow, 2002), and for its modelling to children of the society reflected within the practices of the school. Therefore for its relevance to inclusion and the values and vision it influences within an organisation, it is essential to include leadership as part of the theoretical framework within this research (Bush and Glover, 2003). Heilbronn et al. (2015) called for leadership to promote a joint response in seeking inclusion, and one which recognises that:

‘... moral goods such as social justice, human rights, quality of life and transformation of education are interdependent and can only be realised through collective action’ (p.312).

Corbett and Slee (2000) identified leadership in school as key to supporting a responsive system required for an effectively inclusive school, with the thoughts and actions of school leaders being regarded as highly relevant within the literature focused upon leadership (Barton, 1997; Keller, 2005; Minckler, 2014). As a researcher focused upon inclusion Slee (2010) noted the relevance of practitioners’ personal views and morality for enabling inclusive practice, with leadership identified as second only to teaching for its impact on children’s learning (Bush and Glover, 2014). In particular, it has been found that the closer ‘leaders are to the core business of teaching and learning, the more likely they are to make a difference’ to children’s learning (Robinson, 2007, p.21), particularly if they model to staff their ability to ‘walk the talk’ (West-Burnham, 2010, p.26). The mindset of school leaders is seen as crucial for inclusive practice, particularly if as Foucault (1994) considers in his analysis of the regime of power, leaders are in the position of making judgements and decisions about people’s souls. Bush (2008) differentiated between the leadership actions grounded in thoughts and values that leaders had chosen and those imposed by government. It has been suggested that when government directed policy is considered to be at odds with the school context in which they work, then leadership’s adherence to policy reduces any opportunity for genuine transformational leadership (Bottery, 2001, Bush 2011). Such a top down approach that impacts on all children and staff has been recognised within current practice. An example of government enforced policy resulting in the obligatory introduction of specialist pedagogy
within schools arose from a centrally held belief of how to treat differences in children’s reading outcomes. Thomas et al. (2007) cite the example of government inference that reading failure for children was being caused by children’s poor phonological awareness. This conclusion led to government direction and the introduction of the teaching of Systematic Synthetic Phonics (SSP) in order to reduce the reading deficit. This approach was then ensured by its inclusion within the Teachers’ Standards and with statutory assessment for all children aged six introduced for quality assurance purposes. This example of the requirement to teach SSP, based upon what Coles (2003) considered as poor science regarding cause and effect, can be seen as a symbol and ceremony (Skritic, 1991) of what appears to be a rational solution to a problem. Yet, in reality it has also resulted in the exaggeration of differences between children who utilise other approaches to reading and highlighted how government secured school’s compliance in that process.

Leithwood et al. (2006) recognise effective leadership ‘as a catalyst’ (p.4) for creating a shared vision of inclusion, and supporting an enabling ethos for both children and staff in school (Clough and Garner, 2003; Hank, 2003; Hodkinson, 2010). A leadership approach which has the potential to enable staff to mobilise leadership expertise at all levels of an organisation and in support of a shared vision in school, is referred to as distributed leadership (Hutchins, 1995). Hodges (2016) recognises that such a philosophy shares leadership ‘influence and power among a group of individuals rather than a single person’ (p.119). As leadership can be mobilised from all levels within an organisation, this leadership philosophy is considered within the literature as creating greater opportunities for change whilst increasing the capacity for improvement in the form of expertise (Grönn, 2000) and to learn from each other.

McBeath and Dempster (2009) consider leadership that values such learning enables an organisation to problem solve and adapt. Heifetz and Linsky (2004) recognise this process of leadership as adaptive leadership, a philosophy not based on authority but as with distributed leadership regarded as the responsibility of everyone in order that the organisation can survive, improve, evolve and adapt over time. Such adaptation is regarded as having a long term focus which builds on the past, experimenting and reflecting in order to succeed (Heifetz and Linsky, 2004). Potter and Hooper (2005) noted that the emotional alignment of members’ energies throughout an organisation as key to effective leadership. Distributed leadership in particular has been advocated by the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL), a government sponsored organisation. Whilst not directly referred to as supporting inclusion, its potential as an approach to galvanise a shared vision in action has been regarded as important by NCTL for the creation of opportunities for change within school, as well as raising the school’s capacity for improvement.
In order that distributed and adaptive leadership supports a shared vision and does not lead to independent action of staff members, interdependent and collaborative opportunities are required to support the connection of members across the organisation. Such collaboration between staff has also been recognised within the research literature as important for developing, supporting and modelling inclusive practice in school (Corbett, 2001; Fischer et al., 2002; Hunt et al., 2003; Flem et al., 2004; Nind, 2005; Lindsey, 2007). Corbett (2001) highlighted that a shared vision, created and supported by a culture of co-operation and reasoned dialogue, could enable positive interactions regarding that vision to be modelled between and with staff and children. Currently schools are developing ever more collaborative practices with other schools as part of the government’s focus on multi academy trusts, described by Coleman (2011) as ‘the single most significant change for schools in the 21st Century’ (p.310). Therefore, investigating leadership approaches within Shakespeare School that establish and maintain such collaboration could provide a valuable resource for further developing a current understanding of inclusion and inclusive leadership practices that will facilitate this.

As established by Greenleaf (1970), servant leadership has been identified as a philosophy that recognises both the deprivation and needs of society and children whilst focusing upon long term learning transformation (Bass, 1985). Servant leadership stems from the natural feeling people have who want to serve, to serve first before making the conscious choice to aspire to lead. Greenleaf (1970) regarded the servant-first philosophy as one that positions the serving of other people’s needs as a priority, including the least privileged in society, with Spears (2002) noting that empathy remains a key characteristic of successful servant leaders. Based upon the Greek saying “know thyself”, George (2003) referred to the conversion by leaders of such leadership values as honesty, altruism, kindness, fairness, accountability, empathy and optimism into action as authentic leadership, regarded by Yukl (2006) as vital during times of change within an organisation. Northouse (2012) recognised that by enabling leadership to demonstrate the authenticity of such values that are present in all parts of their life ethical leadership too is acknowledged.

In summary, the role of leadership has been seen within the literature as potentially key to enabling an effectively inclusive school and creation of a learning community (Ainscow and Sandhill, 2010). Whilst not present within the inclusive literature the combination of distributed, adaptive, collaborative, servant, authentic and ethical leadership has been recognised as relevant for leadership within schools. The following section explores the role and practices of a school’s curriculum and pedagogy within the literature that considers inclusion.
2.4 Curriculum and pedagogy

2.4.1 Curriculum

Much of the focus of inclusion within policy and research literature has been attentive to the location and construction of SEN and inclusion, less has focused upon identifying what an inclusive curriculum and pedagogy looks like for all children. The Index for Inclusion (2002) led the way in supporting schools to reflect upon their inclusive offer of curriculum provision. However, at a time of increased accountability in schools the Index did not provide information on how it worked in co-operation with a national curriculum that currently remains largely subject and knowledge based.

The implication of an inclusive curriculum is that it benefits and accommodates all children. The current Primary National Curriculum for England’s inclusion statement mirrors its previous version, and highlights the expectation that the curriculum will support individual learners as well as groups of learners by: ‘Setting suitable challenges, responding to pupils’ needs and overcoming potential barriers for individuals and groups of pupils’ (DfE, 2013, p.8). The debate regarding an inclusive curriculum within literature is that it is achieved through a curriculum designed to meet the needs of all children in one of the following four ways. It either: responds to the diversity of children (Rouse and Florian 1997; Slee, 1999) and values what a child brings to learning including their knowledge, expertise and interests from outside school (Devarakonda, 2013; Hart, 1996); or it is taught to all children with different organisational arrangements for some (Ellis and Tod, 2014); or it utilises an additional and specialised curriculum that focuses on the individual deficits of some (Booth and Ainscow, 2011); or it is created as a dynamic response, with an emphasis on engaging children (Kellet and Nind, 2003).

Informing the debate around inclusive curricula Norwich (2013) reviewed four types of curricular models, and considered the works of Tanner and Tanner (1980), Skilbeck (1984), Lawton (1989) and Egan (1998). He concluded that the models were underpinned by distinct values and aims as shown in Figure 2.3 below, containing my précis of the overview provided by Norwich (2013, p.56). The models resonate with the changing aims of education identified in Chapter One.
1. Knowledge centred – a curriculum focused on promoting a growth in the mind of the child, reproducing all that is valued and seen as real by those who wrote it. Associated with teacher transmission and often referred to when there is a call for essential subject and a ‘back to basics’ approach. Ideology traced to Plato fourth Century BC.

2. Child centred – a curriculum with a focus on child discovery and a commitment to the individual learner, their interests and feelings. The focus is on developing the child as an active subject and their experience rather than knowledge. Ideology traced to the period of enlightenment in eighteenth century.

3. Socially centred – a curriculum which socially introduces children into the system of values and beliefs of a diversity of already established cultures and/or prepares children for the values and aims of a future culture yet to be realised. Associated with interactive learning, a collaboration between teacher and child. Ideology traced to Dewey (1916) with aims of improving society and promoting individual growth.

4. Learning technology – a focus on progress and learning effectiveness. A problem solving framework of learning, educational intentions are represented as learning outcomes which can be measured. Ideology identified by Skilbeck (1984).

Tension between the four models reflect the tensions involved in the relationship between children's' inclusion and their educational outcomes. For example, a curriculum that focuses on socially centred learning has been seen to detract from knowledge acquisition (Furedi, 2009). A focus on a model of learning technology has been regarded as important for government control of educational outcomes and the development of human capital on which economic growth depends. However, such a model has been considered to support a restricted curriculum, with national testing relating to only some traditional curriculum subjects and therefore criticised for its encouragement of a superficial understanding of subjects (Harris and Burns, 2011). Alexander (2010) reports that the learning technology model arose only because the knowledge centred approach was seen as inert and did not recognise how children would make sense of their lives and tackle future issues. Grove (1998) highlighted this point whilst examining the English curriculum from an inclusive educational perspective. Grove identified that whilst it focused on Standard English to support communication and develop a child as an effective reader, it entirely ignored the social and emotional use of language that would be required for their own lives.
An inclusive curriculum for all children is required to not only resolve the tensions between the models in Figure 2.3, each with their own values and goals, but also balance the commonality of a school curriculum for all. An inclusive curriculum is seen as key to inclusion, it is required to respond to the diversity of children, establishing its relationship to society and the teaching practices that support and value all children (Billig et al. 1988; Berlin, 1990; Uditsky, 1993; Mittler, 2000; Hodkinson, 2010). Such an approach has historically been advocated through previous curriculum policy publications, including Excellence and Enjoyment (DfES, 2004) and the National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education (NACCCE, 1999). The DfES document remained focused on enabling social justice for children by providing ‘life chances’ through excellence and enjoyment of learning, regarded as a child’s entitlement or ‘birthright’ (DfES, 2004, p.2), with NACCCE encouraging teaching for creativity in order to cultivate children’s creative thinking (NACCCE, 1999). Currently however the focus on the consequences of national assessment and ‘the hard world of performativity’ (Ball, 2003, p.222) has seen an emphasis on some curriculum areas at the expense of others, and their short term attainment over long term learning (Hornby, 2015). The approaches schools take in support of high quality teaching and learning reflects the values of a school and models how differences between children are considered and managed.

2.4.2 Pedagogy

Pedagogy has been referred to as the how of classroom teaching (Norwich and Lewis, 2007), ‘leading children’ in their learning (Hewitt and Tarrant, 2015, p.36) and providing the curriculum through teaching (Alexander, 2000). An inclusive pedagogy, whilst often used as a term that implies a common understanding, has been defined within the literature in a variety of ways dependent upon the definition of inclusion used and the underpinning values of inclusion held. Discussion of whether there are common pedagogical approaches that are useful for all children, or specialised approaches required for some children, has been the subject of consideration within literature and remains at the heart of the debate (Florian et al., 2011). Yet, the term inclusive pedagogy remains as widely used as inclusive curriculum within education. Simply put, Corbett (2001) regards inclusive pedagogy as connecting individual children with their own ways of learning to the curriculum and school. Developing high quality pedagogy for all children has therefore remained a focus of inclusive schools (Mitler, 2000) and requires teachers to listen to children, understanding and valuing the diversity of children’s needs, strengths and interests in order to support their learning (Flem et al, 2004: UNESCO, 2004; Warnock, 2005).
Whilst not specifically identified within the literature for inclusion but relevant to this research, a number of pedagogical approaches were recognised as supporting individual children to connect not only to their own way of learning to the curriculum, but also to each other and staff. These included active, creative and dialogic learning, and consideration of the mindset of both children and staff as they develop as agents and co-agents in learning.

Positioning children as active agents and central to their own learning has not only been identified as an important educational curriculum model in Figure 2.3, but as pedagogical approach for developing children to value themselves as learners with control in developing their learning as part of their self-directed ‘personal causation’ (Bowman, 1982, p.16). The activation of children as agents within their learning remains central to such pedagogical approaches as active learning (CIE, 2015) and creative learning (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004), with both approaches requiring children to be challenged in their learning and afforded the freedom and confidence to utilise their curiosity, imagination and determination to take risks in that learning. The extent to which both children and teachers believe in the power they have as agents and co-agents is heavily dependent upon the mindset they hold in relation to their own ability.

Present in educational literature, a fixed mindset sees ability as already determined; Dweck (2012) refers to this as ‘the hand you are dealt with’ (p.7). This fixed view, originating in the psychometric theories of intelligence as used by Burt in 1937, argues that ability is regarded as ‘inborn intelligence’ of which individuals have been provided with a given amount and which determines future learning (Hart et al. 2004, p.16). The notion of fixed learning potential has much in common with a medical model of inclusion, whereby difficulties are seen as within child fixed impairments (Ellis and Tod 2014). A growth mindset on the other hand is underpinned by the philosophy that internal learning qualities can be cultivated through effort, experience and application (Dweck, 2012), enabling children and staff to take risks and consider the what might be associated with creativity and ‘possibility thinking’ (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004, p.41). In his work Robinson (2015) notes that ‘imagination is the root of creativity, with the ability to bring to mind things that aren’t present to our senses’ (p.118). Creativity is therefore defined by Robinson (2015) as utilising imagination, supporting:

‘The ability to generate new ideas and apply them in practice’ (p.136).

Robinson considers creativity to be central to culture and to being human. Children are seen to engage with the world in which they exist through the thoughts and ideas they have in making sense of that world, and the values they hold as a result. Robinson refers to this as a
‘private consciousness’ (p.85), an inner world through which children, and adults, experience the outer world in which they live. He, like Prensky (2007) for his work on computer games, Malone (1981) and Burnard et al. (2006) on the features of play, Craft and Jeffrey (2004) and NACCCE (1999) for creative learning, recognise children as having a ‘ready appetite’ (Robinson, 2015, p.135) for the exploration and agency that supports their sense making, particularly when their curiosity is engaged and nurtured. Cooper (2011) recognised that empathy played a valuable role for developing children as agents who take risks in their learning, in that it provides children with the confidence that any associated failure would not be perceived negatively by others. The CBI Education and Skills survey (2016) reported the findings of an employer survey that called for schools to develop young people with the attitudes and aptitude for adult life, this included the valuing and development of such creativity and resilience:

‘Businesses are clear that first and foremost they want to recruit young people with attitudes and attributes such as resilience, enthusiasm and creativity. They are not selecting simply on the basis of academic ability.’ (p.31)

The pedagogical approach of dialogic teaching, as developed by Alexander (2006), supports not only children to emotionally recognise themselves as influential learners, but through the approach that requires dialogic co-agency between children and staff, deep learning opportunities that academically challenge and connect learners has been recognised. Through its associated features with assessment for learning strategies Figure 2.4 below indicates the requirements for dialogic teaching as part of a powerful learning conversation.

- Interactions which encourage students to think and to think in different ways
- Questions which invite more than simple recall
- Answers which are justified, followed up and built upon rather than merely received
- Feedback which informs and leads thinking forward as well as encourages contributions which are extended rather than fragmented
- Exchanges which chain together into coherent and deepening lines of enquiry
- Discussion and argumentation which probe and challenge rather than unquestioningly accept
- Professional engagement with subject matter which liberates classroom discourse from the safe and conventional
- Classroom organisation, climate and relationships which make all this possible

*Figure 2.4 Requirements for dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2017)*
In their Learning without Limits project, Hart et al. (2004) identified a pedagogical model for all children that focused on such principles of ‘co-agency, everybody and trust’ (p.6), supporting the core idea that all children could learn given the right conditions and mindset.

Any need for a specialised pedagogy appears therefore to be dependent upon an understanding of how difference is perceived. On the one hand specialised pedagogy is considered as not distinctive from mainstream pedagogy (Davis and Florian, 2004; Rix et al., 2009), yet on the other pragmatic, pedagogical decisions based upon managing difference are made as a result of perceived requirements associated with particular groups of children (Hornby et al. 1997, Aird 2001). Lewis and Norwich (2004) recognise inclusive pedagogy as a continuum of general teaching strategies, intensified and adapted by degree without the need to remove children. Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) base their concept of inclusive pedagogy on the principle that strategies are provided so that all children can learn and take part in learning together, building resilience for all their futures (Yeager and Dweck, 2012). Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) reject the practice of withdrawing of children, labelling or grouping them in the name of specialised pedagogy, and insist that all children require a humane and dignified response to their individual differences. Diversity should therefore not be seen as Heidi Mirza and Trevor Phillips fear, as a comfort blanket term positioned within policy to give the appearance of wholesome action, but instead as a creative challenge for teachers and a chance to value and support all children with real equality of opportunity (Dunne, 2009). This creative challenge and response requires what Nind (2005) refers to as ‘adopting an inclusive mindset’ (p.8). This reinforces the call by authors to enable teachers to progress from the medical model and the psychometric perspective of Burt (1937), with its deficit and fixed ability thinking (Florian, 2008), to one that provides opportunities and equality for all children, seeing learning as not subject to limits (Hart et al., 2004). Ainscow (1998) asserts:

*Teachers must overcome the dangers and limitations of deficit thinking: only in this way can we be sure that pupils who experience difficulties in learning can be treated with respect and viewed as potentially active and capable learners’ (p.11)

Low teacher expectations associated with children with learning difficulties has been widely reported within the research literature (Chitty, 2001; Florian, 2008; Gillborn and Youdell, 2000; Hart et al., 2004; Moscardini, 2015). Corbett (2001) indicates that whilst teachers may hold positive attitudes towards inclusion, they recognise practical challenges for its implementation and concern tends to be focused by teachers upon their own ability to manage inclusion. Additional resources of time and staff continue to be considered as factors which would effectively support that management (Scruggs and Mastoier, 1996; O’Brien, 2000; Ellis and
Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden, (2000) reviewed a number of studies involving the attitudes of teachers and found that they responded more positively to integration than inclusion, and also to some children’s particular disabilities and needs compared to others. Whilst research identified that teachers overemphasised medical characteristics (Kamenopoulou, 2012), it has been reported within the literature that teachers generally felt more positive towards children with physical or sensory disabilities compared to those with emotional and behavioural problems (O’Brien, 2000). Lindsay (2007) indicates that this reflected the potential impact for disruption to teaching, or the belief that some disabilities were within the control of the children. Thomas et al. (2007) explain such findings through the mindset of the practitioner, with some children appealing to those holding a therapeutic view of their role in response to the needs of children.

In research conducted by Glazzard (2011) teachers reported that the focus on educational outcomes and the standards agenda prevented the effective inclusion of children within their class. They reported that they felt threatened, not as a result of negative views regarding disability, but that learners with SEN had the potential to disrupt their performance data on which they were judged as teachers, and which also impacted upon their performance management and pay. From the research the focus on educational outcomes, whilst seen as diminishing a teacher’s ‘ethical agency’ (Heilbronn et al., 2015, p.309), has led teachers and schools to value the ideal girl and boy. These ideal children, seen as those who demonstrate a commitment to attainment when tested, appear to be valued for what they offer financially in terms of the school and teachers’ ‘image and performance’ (Hall et al. 2004, p.811).

Some authors have argued for an approach to inclusive pedagogy that does not sit within the social model or the medical model but a combination of both, and seen as moderate inclusion where inclusive pedagogy is common to all needs and unique to some through a staged approach (Jutel, 2009; Ravet, 2011). This strategy was advocated within the UK wave model, established through the National Literacy Strategy (1998). Wave 1 was seen as the effective inclusion of all children through differentiation, Wave 2 established as additional small group intervention and Wave 3 specific targeted support requiring specialist attention. There has also been recognition of the benefits of specific teaching strategies aimed at supporting particular groups of children as being beneficial to all children, for example those children with autism (CLDD Research Project, 2011). Whilst some researchers support the use of grouping children based upon difference as good practice (Demie, 2013), others have criticised this approach as at odds with the ethos of inclusion (Feiler and Gibson, 1999; Parry et al., 2013).
The wave model approach has been seen as a key pedagogical practice, promoted by government and focused upon school improvement. Differentiation and removal of children for catch up programmes has been consistently utilised in schools to support the narrowing of the outcome gap agenda between groups of children (Rouse and Florian, 1996; Parry et al., 2013). Critics have reported that such a pedagogical approach has been responsible for the creation of an educational subsystem, a form of locational integration in the name of inclusion, which excludes children through their removal, diminishing their sense of belonging, welcome, tolerance and entitlement (Slee, 2001; Lloyd 2008). Ellis and Tod (2014) found that teachers expressed difficulties with Wave 1 and supporting groups of children working on differentiated tasks, relying on children to automatically engage in learning. For some teachers children’s engagement was seen as being totally reliant upon teacher praise and encouragement (Clegg and McNulty, 2002).

Glazzard (2013) found difficulties for children with the Wave 2 intervention approach as fostering a climate of dependency on adults, and was also found to be detrimental to children’s self-esteem. He discovered that children attending intervention programmes in school had a reinforced sense of failure, highlighting the difference between them and their peers. This difference was seen as ‘squarely located within the child, rather than within the school itself, or society, thus reflecting a medical rather than a social model of disability’ (p.184). Gorard et al. (2014) said that the children they interviewed reported that when they attended interventions they lost out on learning opportunities in other curriculum areas, including PE, drama and art. Webster and Blatchford (2014) supported this finding through their Making a Statement (MAST) study, finding children with SEN spent a quarter of their time in school away from their mainstream class peers and teachers. This was seen as affecting children’s ‘social development and involvement in school life’ (p.197). For wave 2 and 3 approaches, the removal of children from the classroom has been associated with providing low expectations for children, and increased accountability for Teaching Assistants (TA) by making them, as opposed to their teachers (Glazzard, 2011), responsible for planning and teaching children with SEN. Whilst Farrell (2000) said ‘the success of inclusion stands or falls on the availability of class support’ (p.159), Kamenopoulou (2012) found TAs actually contributed to class segregation, providing an opportunity for the removal of children from their peers. Spending too much time interacting with adult support staff rather than other children was seen as negatively impacting on children’s socialisation, highlighting the multiple values of inclusion, and the tension between academic and social inclusion whereby children can be included in one sense, yet excluded in another (Ireson and Hallam, 1999; Frederickson and Cline 2009; Norwich 2014). The responsibility for good pedagogical practice has been seen as residing with the teacher who has been tasked with keeping both their practice, and theories about children’s learning, constantly under review within a ‘community of others’ (Stobbs, 2014, p.130). In order to establish who remains accountable for the pedagogical decisions
made within a classroom, the Code of Practice (2015) has introduced the principle that the teacher has the overall responsibility for the 'high quality' teaching children receive (p.99).

The largest report that focused on pedagogy and inclusion for children with SEN was conducted by Ofsted (2010). Whilst it did not report its sampling or methods it identified what Ofsted considered to be the best examples of inclusive teaching. Many of the points it made have been raised within this chapter. Inclusive teaching was seen by Ofsted as utilising good, general teaching strategies informed by an understanding of how learning differences may impact on children. In line with the national curriculum inclusion statement, the report identified a range of barriers to children’s learning created within schools and by staff. These barriers included a lack of planning by teachers, poor support staff deployment, too much focus on task completion rather than learning and too much separation of children with SEN from their peers. The conclusion reached by the Ofsted report was that inclusive pedagogy was already embedded within the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011) as seen in Figure 2.5. These standards identify the requirements of teachers, and remain as the framework by which central government can hold teachers to account for their behaviour and teaching performance (Davis, 2013; Heilbronn et al., 2015).

1. Set high expectations which inspire, motivate and challenge pupils
2. Promote good progress and outcomes by pupils
3. Demonstrate good subject and curriculum knowledge
4. Plan and teach well structured lessons
5. Adapt teaching to respond to the strengths and needs of all pupils
6. Make accurate and productive use of assessment
7. Manage behaviour effectively to ensure a good and safe learning environment
8. Fulfil wider professional responsibilities

Figure 2.5 Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011)

Inclusive pedagogy has focused upon the role of the school and staff to enable access to learning for all as well as specifically some groups of children. The social model would indicate that inclusion is supported through a change to the systems surrounding a child, and for example is measured by the respect children demonstrate towards others, as established within The Index for inclusion (Booth and Ainscow, 2002). The government focus on meritocracy however would measure successful inclusion through a child’s knowledge based educational outcomes (Ofsted, 2012). How a child and school achieves both remains more elusive, particularly given schools are held to account for only educational outcomes. Sfard (1998) utilising the work of Mead (1934) identified the issue for children. If learning as an individual is considered the possession of knowledge it symbolically establishes the child as
If learning acknowledges the child’s participation in the social process of learning, belonging and participating, the child can be symbolically represented as Me. The tensions between the I and Me mirror the same dilemmas as between those seen for the inclusive curriculum within Figure 2.3 and the conflict between inclusion and educational outcomes already identified within this thesis (DfE, 2016a). Researchers have called for teachers to initiate creative responses which meet the challenges of an inclusive pedagogy, one that recognises, accommodates and responds to the needs of all children without stigmatisation (Davis and Florian, 2004; Jutel, 2009; Florian and Black-Hawkins, 2011), recognising the needs of both I and Me for children and society.

2.5 Research focus
As the basis of social justice, inclusion and inclusive education for children, schools and society continues to evolve. The review of this evolution within the chapter has been critical to developing the holistic theoretical framework that informs the research choices at Shakespeare School that are interested in exploring and constructing a full understanding of its approach. The models and definitions of inclusion reflect the legacy of SEN, complexities, interests and motivations involved, and the construction over time of who requires inclusion, how and why. Government in recognising the link between ‘disadvantage, educational failure and restricted life chances’ (Ainscow, 2012, p.7) have now extended central policy, requiring the inclusion of all children whilst equating inclusion with children’s progress and educational outcomes. It is clear that the methods and process by which schools achieve those outcomes are not the concern of government with the white paper Educational Excellence Everywhere (DfE, 2016a), whilst not taken to law, confirming: ‘we believe outcomes matter more than methods’, asking teachers and leaders to find their ‘best possible solutions’ (p.12). Black-Hawkins et al. (2017) suggest that it is feasible for the inclusion and the standards agenda to be complementary, with schools managing the tension between inclusion and the standards agenda through constantly ‘reinventing inclusion’ (p.30). Therefore, by analysing Shakespeare School’s solution for their children the research will construct their model of inclusion and inform and challenge both way the term inclusion is currently understood and the statement from government that the methods by which inequality is resolved matters less than educational outcomes.

Chapter Two has provided the theoretical framework for this research thesis. Chapter Three utilises that framework to investigate the research question, confirming the research paradigm, methodology, methods of data collection and analysis that focuses upon looking at the school as a whole. In doing so this chapter provides the process of how the results were constructed and interpreted with the staff participants.
Chapter Three
Research Methodology

‘The corridors are like a film set, Hogwart’s train looks as though it is travelling out of the wall right next to the Anderson shelter with its war time music playing as you pass. One minute you are walking across a volcano, and the next standing adjacent to a life sized pig called Babe.’ (Research diary extract)

Chapter Three builds upon the research and researcher context within Chapter One and the theoretical framework within Chapter Two, providing the research framework as indicated in Figure 3.1. This chapter presents the research decisions taken, the research paradigm, its design, methodology, methods of data collection and analysis. It shares with the reader the strengths of case study research and the rigour applied to ensure the research remains robust and findings are fully evidenced.

<table>
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<th>Chapter Two</th>
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<td>Literature review and research question</td>
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<td>Research Paradigm</td>
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<td>Qualitative Research Methods</td>
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<td>Qualitative Methods Analysis</td>
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Figure 3.1 Research framework

3.1 Research question

The research question developed over time and was confirmed in Chapter One: How does Shakespeare School support both the inclusion and progress of all children? Following the literature review in Chapter Two an additional sub question was formed: What is the school’s understanding of inclusion and of progress, and how are they interrelated in this school?

3.2 Research paradigm

Research, with its diversity of approaches, is based on personal, political and philosophical assumptions, referred to as inquiry paradigms. Guba and Lincoln (1994) define the term ‘paradigm’ as ‘the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in
choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways’ (p.106). Accordingly, a research paradigm therefore aligns a methodological system of research practice or methodology with the researcher’s ontological and epistemological position. Consequently, research is not viewed simply as the application of methodological rules, but one that is also influenced by the researcher’s context, beliefs and values at the time of considering the research (Lather, 1986; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Denzin and Lincoln (1994) identify four basic research or inquiry paradigms, positivism, postpositivism, constructivism and critical theory. The latter being a ‘blanket term’ to cover a number of alternative paradigms (p.109).

In planning to answer the research question that had developed from my practice over thirty years, I recognised that I approached it utilising the paradigm referred to by Denzin and Lincoln (1994) as constructivism. This paradigm mirrors the aspects underpinning the focus of the research, inclusion. In the same way that the literature identifies multiple inclusions, constructivist ontology recognises multiple realities. With inclusive values of empowerment and equality, constructivist epistemology considers the role of the researcher as a facilitator (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994 p.114), an interpreter and ‘gatherer of interpretations’ (Stake, 1995 p.99), empowering participants through the construction of a collective understanding of knowledge. The use of constructivist methodology provides the readers with emic interpretations, rich descriptions (Geertz, 1973), so that the reader can relate the work to their own personal context.

In identifying constructivism as a paradigm I considered and rejected those referred to as positivism, postpositivism and critical theory. Positivism, and to a certain extent postpositivism, recognises a methodology of experimentation and manipulation, a testing of hypothesis which did not support the research question. Postpositivism was rejected for epistemological reasons, in that I had an involvement with inclusion that would be seen to compromise my role as a researcher from this position. Critical theory was rejected as a paradigm due to its focus on historical realism, furthermore its methodological position also supported transformational inquiry that did not reflect the focus of my research question. The reasons participatory research was rejected were mainly due to the impact of my time constraints, and the impact that natural staff employment changes would have for such a research approach. This was a useful decision given that I was required to take a period of intermission from the research and staff changes, or churn, naturally occurred in such a large school. Such churn would have had a negative impact for an approach that expects and benefits from negotiation between all participants throughout the research process, it also had the potential to compromise the
anonymity of the case and co-researcher contributions through locally identifiable features of staff movement (Simons, 2011).

3.3 Research design
The use of qualitative, interpretive research involves the collection of qualitative, as opposed to quantitative, data. This was selected for a number of reasons due to the alignment with my research paradigm, my role and strengths as a researcher, as well the best way to inform and answer the research question.

The constructivist ontology, in recognising multiple realities, supports the ‘key philosophical assumption’ (Merriam, 1998 p.6) of qualitative research: that reality is constructed by individuals as a result of their experience. In answering my research question, I was able to utilise methods of qualitative data collection that enabled me to ‘strive for a depth of understanding’ (Patton, 1987 p.1), and access the underlying meanings behind participants’ responses. The collection, analysis and sharing of the data within the thesis was supported by the inductive nature of qualitative research (Bromley, 1986). As a result, the data preserves the multiple realities of participants, whilst also considering the relationship of factors within the context (Erikson, 1986; Stake, 1995). Therefore this enabled a holistic understanding of how Shakespeare School supported both the inclusion and progress of its children. If a quantitative approach had been taken, an explanation of the schools success would have required pulling those factors apart, examining them through ‘precise quantitative approaches’ (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994 p.106), with a resulting loss of empathy for the whole (Henrik Von Wright, 1971).

Qualitative research recognises the emic, insider view of the research process as a strength, rather than something requiring elimination (Silverman, 2011). My role as a qualitative researcher involved researching in situ, undertaking fieldwork within the setting and becoming closely familiar with the phenomenon being studied. Through this approach I was able to provide the rich descriptions and the details of Shakespeare School, so that readers could experience the particular nature of it and relate it to their own experiences. As a qualitative researcher, I can therefore be regarded as a ‘human instrument’ (Merriam, 1998, p.7), acknowledging my part within the research and enabling my personal strengths of empathy, and one ‘who find others intrinsically interesting’ to be utilised (Guba and Lincoln, 1981, p.145). The methods of data collection, as outlined in section 3.5 of this chapter, required that as an instrument of the research I was also subjected to the same rigorous approach as any other. I therefore reflected throughout the research within my research diary, adopting what Merriam (1998) considers to be a detective like consideration for ambiguity, bias and misinterpretations.
whilst being sensitive to the complexity of the context. Furthermore, my research role as an interpreter was recognised as an essential element of providing understanding, with validation protocols in place in order to test any subjective misunderstanding (Stake 1995). Those validation protocols are identified within section 3.5.1 and 3.5.2 of this chapter, with the issue of subjectivity forming part of section 3.7 that establishes the credibility of this research.

The use of qualitative research recognises the selection of case study methodology as a strategy of inquiry, providing the greatest opportunity to answer the how research question, as presented in section 3.1 of this chapter (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Yin, 1994).

3.4. Case study methodology
Case study, identified as a qualitative approach to research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011), is distinguished from a case report through the inclusion of the methodological detail (Hyett et al., 2014), as provided within section 3.5 of this chapter. Within qualitative research there are two main educational case study approaches, separated by the paradigms in which they are established. The first is situated within a constructivist paradigm (Stake, 1995 and Merriam, 2009), and the second is approached from a postpositivist position (Yin, 2012). In line with the ontological and epistemological position of constructivism, as outlined in section 3.2, the methodological framework of case study that is situated in a constructivist paradigm was selected for my research. This enabled not only the methodology to remain connected to the ‘core values and intentions’ of the research (Hyett et al., 2014 p.2), but also recognises the interaction between my role as researcher and the case, as well as my role as facilitator in connecting the reader to the research (Stake, 1995).

Citing one of the first educational ethnographers Louis Smith, Stake (1995), in agreement with Merriam (1998), defines a case as a ‘bounded system’ (Stake, 1995 p.2). Stake draws attention to the case as an object, whereas postpositivist case study researchers regard it as a process. Merriam (1998) concluded that if the case ‘is not intrinsically bounded, it is not a case’ (p.27), providing the general rule of identifying a case based upon its potential for finite data collection. For example, if there is not a finite number of people to interview or observe, it is seen not to be a case.

Case study appropriately supports the purposes of qualitative research design, as identified within the previous section. A case study is considered by Stake (1995) to provide research knowledge which is distinct from other methodologies. It supports the researcher to collect the multiple perspectives of the participants, whilst engaging them in the research process (Simons, 2011). Stake (1995) acknowledges case study as being able to provide more
concrete and vivid knowledge, rooted within the holistic and naturalistic context of the case. In turn this supports a reader to ‘understand its activity within important circumstances’ (p.xi), whilst recognising the case as ‘a specific, a complex, functioning thing’ (Stake, 1995, p.2). The provision by the researcher of the complete narrative, what Stake (1995) and Merriam (1998) refer to as the thick description of the case and phenomenon being researched, supports the heuristic nature of case study, in that as with qualitative research design it is recognised as supporting the readers' understanding.

Case study design is utilised in order to gain an in depth understanding of either single or multiple cases, the processes and their context, as well as the discovery of the meanings for those involved within them. My research question supports a holistic account of how Shakespeare School managed both inclusion and progression, a single school and a straightforward example of a bounded system (Merriam, 1998), selected for a ‘detailed examination of a solitary exemplar’ (Ruddin, 2006, p.797).

3.4.1 Single case study

Purposeful selection, as opposed to random selection, of Shakespeare School as a single case was focused upon maximising what could be learnt. Selection of the school studied was therefore not regarded as sampling research, with Stake (1995) clarifying that:

‘... we do not study a case primarily to understand other cases. Our first obligation is to understand this one case.’ (p.4)

Choosing a single, non-random school based upon its uniqueness supports the focus of the research in understanding its particularisation, and what makes it unique (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Whilst quantitative researchers in seeking for generalization would recognise such uniqueness as an error, a carefully chosen case with a clear rationale for its selection is seen as critical in order to add to knowledge and lead to discovery (Flyvberg, 2001). Whilst, as indicated in Chapter One, I had identified Shakespeare School prior to the research for the reasons why it presented as an interesting case, I did not accept it as the school to research until I had investigated if there were more suitable alternatives that would lead to its rejection. I compiled a data base of fifty five primary schools within the local authority area. I searched and included the latest Ofsted school inspection grade, children's outcomes at Key Stage Two, the progress data reported and the percentage of children with EAL, SEN and those entitled to FSM. Shakespeare School was not the only school to have an outstanding grade at inspection, but compared to the other three schools in that category it had the highest progress data and percentage of children with EAL, SEN and those entitled to receive FSM. Removing the Ofsted category from the database it remained unique in that
no other school reported the progression data that it did. Two other schools had similar EAL, SEN and FSM figures but reported lower progression data. As a result, Shakespeare School was selected as the case study, not selected for its typicality, but as a unique example when factors relating to children’s educational progression, diversity and inclusion were considered. This supported the instrumental purpose of the case study in that it would provide understanding, not just of the school itself, but also the phenomenon under research: utilising the very reasons for its selection (Shaw, 1978; Stake, 1995).

The intention of the research was interpretative/analytical (Merriam, 1998). The focus was not one of description, usually selected for the purpose of providing a form of data base, nor was it evaluative in the sense of providing an assessment or judgement of this school. The interpretative /analytical focus supports the paradigm in which this research was positioned enabled the gathering and analysis of participant’s interpretations in light of the theoretical framework of Chapter Two.

As mentioned in Chapter One, as a practitioner I recognised that Shakespeare School felt different, I also knew that once inside it looked different to most schools I visited. Through the research I was able to get beneath this to discover how they effectively supported children’s progression and inclusion, going beyond the contextual information of the school.

3.4.2 The case – Shakespeare School

An overview of the school context was provided in Chapter One, section 1.3, with further information confirming its uniqueness for research selection provided within this section. The school is located within a city in the East Midlands of England, and referred to throughout the thesis using the pseudonym Shakespeare School to protect its anonymity. The area in which the school is positioned is identified by the local authority as having levels of high deprivation and high levels of social housing. The city has attracted significant migration to the city of families recently arrived in Britain, many of whom are living within the area of the school. As a result of transitions following arrival to the city, including changes to accommodation, the school and LA reported that there remains an increased number of children joining and leaving the school at different times during the year, churn above that normally found. Data provided by the school, released by the LA and confirmed through the Ofsted dashboard demonstrated that the ninety eight percent attendance recorded for the children remains two percent higher than the national average. The proportion of children with SEN attending the school is sixteen percent higher than the national average, with eleven percent more children entitled to FSM attending the school than the national average. School data showed that eight out of every ten children have EAL coming from minority ethnic heritages, sixty percent higher than the
national average, with over thirty different languages spoken within the school. Over the last five years, children at Shakespeare School attained higher educational outcomes in each Key Stage Two tests, including: reading, writing, mathematics, and the grammar, punctuation and spelling tests, when compared to children across all the other schools within the same city. Figure 3.2 provides the test result data for 2016, again demonstrating their significantly higher results when compared to national, as well as the local authority, figures. The national measurement of progress, a government indicator of school effectiveness that compares the results of children nationally with similar prior attainment, put Shakespeare School in the top five percent of schools within the country for adding value to their children’s learning.

<table>
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<th></th>
<th>National</th>
<th>Local Authority</th>
<th>Shakespeare School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Reading</td>
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<td>52%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>RWM</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.2 2016 Key Stage Two results- percentage of children achieving national expectations at Shakespeare School

The school was graded as an outstanding school by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) in 2012, with the school’s multicultural community reported as being fully inclusive and cohesive. Shakespeare School remains a National School of Creativity, holding the Healthy School status, Artsmark Silver and Race Equality awards. Following the Ofsted inspection in 2012 the school converted to an academy, and has since made an application to join with a secondary school to develop a Multi Academy Trust (MAT) and build an additional Primary School within the city.

3.4.3 Participants

Shakespeare Primary School is larger than most primary schools with one executive principal, one principal and a further eight members of the senior management team, thirty teachers and forty six teaching assistants. The participants in the study were all staff working across a range of roles within Shakespeare school, including four members of the Senior Management Team (SM), six teaching staff (T), three Teaching Assistants (TA) and four Higher Level Teaching Assistants (HLTA). The nature of the participant sample is clarified by Figure 3.3, with anonymity supported as far as possible through the removal of the associated number in relation to role.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Year Group</th>
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Figure 3.3 The nature of staff participants as a sample

Purposeful sampling, as a non-randomised method of sampling, was utilised. This was identified as appropriate for selecting participants across a range of roles and year groups in order that they provided data from which most could be learnt (Merriam, 1998). Patton (2002) acknowledged purposeful selection as particularly useful in gathering information during in-depth case study in that it reveals shared values, experiences and the dimensions of the setting, as well as individual and unique interpretations. Whilst two participants were also parents of children in the school, they identified themselves within the research as staff. Parents were not included as participants within the primary data collection phases, with data collected instead in relation to this parental group through the review of documentation identified within section 3.5.1.3 of this chapter. Whilst not having parent participants was noted within section 6.2 of the thesis as a limitation of the research, without the financial resources to pay for the required language translation services I could not ensure parent participants would be able to provide properly informed consent with a fully informed understanding of their right to withdrawal from the research. Therefore, the decision not to include parents as participants was an ethical one and the results of the research are made on the basis of the school’s staff as participants.
Menter et al. (2011) advocated research engagement amongst staff within an organisation in order to support institutional improvement. However, in order to avoid my previous contact with the school as a teacher trainer affecting participant engagement the following points were emphasised by the senior management team and myself at the introductory staff meeting. The focus on the research exploring what makes the school successful for all children was emphasised, confidentiality for the participants and their role in documenting the case was highlighted, and my role as a researcher as opposed to an assessor of participants was explicitly shared. Ben-Ari and Enosh (2013) in examining research relationships acknowledged the potential to empower both participants and the researcher through the reciprocity of the research. Rather than taking participation for granted, I recognised that the success of the research required everyone who chose to, to see at some level the value of engaging with it. This was recognised by the interest in collaborating in the research by staff participants, the enthusiasm of the focus group, as discussed in section 3.5.2.1 of this chapter, and the school initiated children’s image based project, as discussed in section 3.5.1.3 of this chapter that enhanced the research results.

3.5 Data collection methods

In the same way that the research design above was informed by decision making, choosing between alternatives and exercising judgement, so too was the selection of data collection methods. In order to answer the research question and support validity, in the sense that the research shows what it claims to (Braun and Clarke, 2013), two phases of data collection and a range of data collection methods were identified. The following methods were selected: observations, interviews, scrutiny of documentation and a participant focus group. Each method built upon the previous one, directing and scaffolding the next stage and phase of the data collection. The phases and methods of data collection, with the points of analysis, are presented within Figure 3.4 below. Their importance for research credibility is explored further within section 3.7 of this chapter.
Figure 3.4 Phases and stages of data collection with steps of data analysis
3.5.1 Phase one data collection
Phase One consisted of six stages of data collection, including: observations, interviews and a review of pre-existing documentation.

3.5.1.1 Stages one and five - Observation
Observation provided an opportunity to collect first-hand data in the naturalised setting, seen as particularly important for case study research where context is recognised as relevant (Stake, 1995). As indicated in Figure 3.4, two stages of observation were undertaken, an initial observation in order to familiarise myself with the school as a researcher, recording initial ‘noticings’ (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p.204) and enabling me to immerse myself for the first time in the data of the school. I spent a day in school for each observation stage and used my research journal to record thoughts, feelings, ideas, questions and observed *happenings* in relation to the research question. The first observation provided the flexibility to subsequently share and use my initial noticings with participants at the first interview. In doing so I was able to explore and clarify those noticings. For example, I noticed during the first observation that staff appeared to be generally happy to be at work, at interview I was then able to explore what, if anything, made being at work enjoyable for them. The second observation was utilised as part of the internal validity process, whereby observation was undertaken at a later stage in the research, six months later in fact, in order to support the analysis of data and address developing, rival explanations (Braun and Clarke, 2013).

Both stages of observations were short, lasting a day each, and were unobtrusive, recording my thoughts away from staff view and to avoid presenting myself in any way as conducting an assessment. I observed lessons, the school environment, activities and the pedagogy of those who had agreed to participate in the research, and having been provided with a participant information sheet (Appendix One) and completed the Phase One research consent form (Appendix Two). I noted interaction between teachers and children and amongst each other, as well as recording my own behaviour. Immediately following the observation stages, I transcribed my diary electronically, adding initial codings for what I had noticed. Some of the diary entries have been included to start each chapter within this thesis, providing direct insight into the school as well forming part of the overall data set available to participants and shared with the focus group. I recorded my own behaviour in order to support my research reflections (Gold, 1958), including a piece of short reflection shared within Chapter Six, section 6.5 of this thesis.

Due to my work in teacher training I had met and worked with some staff participants previously, particularly through their provision of school placements for trainee teachers within
the school. With my professional activities potentially known to the group I recognised that I had a peripheral membership role with them (Gans 1962). Additional to gathering data from the first observation, a purpose of the observation was therefore to establish my research role within the participant group in order that I could function in school as a researcher, as well as be sensitive to the effects I may have on the situation. I sought to interact closely with staff but not participate as a core member of the group, observing but not becoming too involved. This is an approach I consider I have adopted in schools over many years as a matter of courtesy and professionalism. I behaved, dressed and conducted myself as I had done previously within school. The difference between these observations and my previous work in school included the avoidance of using a clip board or laptop, as these materials would have been used when observing trainee teachers. Once again, this was undertaken to avoid any association with my research being seen to be part of an assessment process.

3.5.1.2 Stages two and three - Interviews
I chose to undertake face to face interviews which Novick (2008) views as the ideal way to collect interview data from those who had consented to participate. Following the initial observation, data was collected through two stages of interviews, both following a semi structured approach. This design enabled information gained within the observation to be followed up within the first semi-structured interviews, eliciting further depth of information and understanding from the participants. Initial analysis of the data from the first interviews, again in the form of ‘noticings’, was then checked with participants at the second interview as well as informing it. This design not only supported the research validity (Braun and Clarke, 2013), but sustained the flow of data, making the most of each opportunity to collect a deeper understanding of participants’ explanations, values, interpretations, experiences and inference, recognised as valuable in answering the research question (Stake, 1995; Cohen and Manion, 2000; Yin, 2009). Robson (2011), acknowledged that the strength of interviewing within qualitative research lies within the flexibility of such an approach, supporting the investigation of underlying understanding by participants that cannot be elicited through a questionnaire. By the time of interview participants also had a personal stake in ‘exploring the understanding, perceptions and constructions’ which had initially been collected through observation (Braun and Clarke, 2013 p.81), further supporting the position of the research as one of ‘co-operative inquiry’ (Gray, 2014 p.383) within the school.

After the initial compilation of questions for both stages of interviews I practised the interviews through the use of pilot interviews. I chose a critical friend who was a teacher within another school to provide feedback on my listening skills, the wording of the questions and their sequence. Anonymity of the school was maintained throughout the pilot interviews. The choice
of a teacher as a critical friend ensured the language within the questions would be familiar to them, therefore the focus of feedback concentrated upon the following three areas. Firstly, the critical friend reviewed the accuracy of language I had chosen within questions, providing an opportunity to challenge my understanding of current educational vocabulary and meaning in school. Secondly, they commented on the nature of the questions and their construction, challenging the potential for loaded meaning (Smith, 1995). Thirdly, they considered my communication skills, taping the pilot interview and reflecting together afterwards on the opportunities for further establishing my role as a listener within the research. This included reflecting upon my use of what Braun and Clarke (2013) refer to as ‘non evaluative guggles like mm’ (p.96). As a result I altered some questions to more open questions in order to elicit greater explanations, and replaced what may have appeared initially as questions suitable for a job interview, which would have inadvertently established my role as expert instead of listener. For example, within the first stage of interviews I replaced the question ‘How do you support children to do well in school?’ with a more open statement and question ‘You know that all children do well in this school. I am interested in finding out what it is that makes it possible. What do you think makes it possible?’ I selected this standard opening statement and question as it focused on an element of the research question and was aimed at eliciting explanations from the participants of their own understanding of what doing well meant and enabled their considerations to go beyond their own role, and therefore was regarded as less leading (Stake, 1995; Braun and Clarke, 2013). For each stage of interviews I followed the approach supported by Braun and Clarke (2013). I established an initial question followed by probing questions related to the topics of interest that participants shared, and then a final ‘clean up question’ aimed at supporting the potential for unanticipated data (p.81). An example of the first interview question sheet is available in Appendix Three, and as can be seen from that example the final question led to probing about the role of high expectations in school. Following the initial analysis of the previous data collection I prepared a list of questions for the second stage of interviews. These questions not only utilised information provided by the participants, but afforded the opportunity to further clarify participants’ explanations. This enabled me to utilise the flexibility of qualitative research as an advantage, exploring aspects in more depth, as well as identifying areas not originally considered (Stake, 1995; Mertens, 2005; Gray, 2014). For example, within the semi structured first interviews it became apparent that all participants focused upon the advantage of continuity of practices. This enabled me to explore within the second interviews whether this was connected to leadership or not, and if it was what form of leadership philosophy was in practice within the school. An example of the second interview questions can be found in Appendix Four.
Robson (2011) acknowledges that a disadvantage of interviewing includes the time consuming nature of its approach for both the interviewer and the participant. In order to minimise the disadvantage for the participants, the principal provided teaching cover or release time for each participant to attend both stages of interviews. This ensured as far as possible that participants were not adding to their workload by engaging with the research, and by providing a period of dedicated time to focus upon the interview, any anxiety about rushing to return to their class or work was minimised. In order to reduce the impact of location, a quiet room was booked within the school for each interview, the room was selected for its distance to open access areas which may have incurred disturbance. It was also considered by staff as a neutral meeting room location within the school, as it was not a room belonging to any of the participants and nor was it a management room. Both stages of interviews were recorded with an electronic audio recorder, which I then transcribed into electronically held written text documents following the interviews. Initial analysis, again in the form of noticings was undertaken. I did this by ascribing a one word or short phrase next to each aspect of a response by the participant, for example, consistency, active engagement, enjoyment and so on. An example of this approach can be seen in Appendix Five. In order to minimise the impact of a time heavy approach I was able to book leave from work following both stages of interviews, capturing the key noticings promptly (Stake, 1995). The next stage of data collection involved the scrutiny of school related documents.

3.5.1.3 Stages four and six- Documentation

Dexter (1970) advocated the use of documentation within research for its strengths in providing researchers with the opportunity to collect more data, and better data, than other methods. In the same way that a sampling strategy is required for interviews, so too is a rationale for sampling documentation. For stage four I started with the research question and located items through the search function on the school website using the key vocabulary of inclusion, progress and outcomes in the same way that I had when undertaking the literature research in Chapter Two. I also searched for items identifying the school’s shared values and goals. Following the interviews and observations, I sought out documentation which was either referred to by participants, or triggered as part of my reflection and noticings, for example the school training day Power Point. I actively sought the inclusion policy document, which was available through the school’s website, this would seem obvious from one sense in that it supported the search criteria in relation to the research question. However, the other reason for seeking it was that it had been written by the member of the senior management team who had been unable to participate in the interviews. In order to support analysis, as I collected the data I formed a data base of when, where and how each piece of documentation was collected. In the same way as the interviews I also recorded any ‘noticings’ or conceptual ideas I had in
relation to the research question (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p.204) within this database. An example of this is available in Appendix Six.

Following a period of intermission from the research, between November 2015 and July 2016, I repeated the exercise of data collection as indicated in stage six of Figure 3.4. This time I searched for updates to the documentation produced during that time. This facilitated not only an opportunity to become familiarised again with the school and the data, but also to ascertain any changes to policy and procedures over time. This proved useful, for example the Holistic Intelligence framework, as can be seen in Chapter Four Figure 4.10, had been developed from the key skills approach during that period. Institutional documents relating to the research question included a range of policy documents, the results of the parental survey and school blogs. All were accessed through Shakespeare school’s web site and whilst they remained in the public domain (Webb et al. 1981) permission was also provided for their access and use by the school Principal. Documents not available on the school website included lesson plans, a PowerPoint and a whole staff training day document. These were accessed through the school’s electronic storage system, provided by the school Principal with permission provided for their use within the research (Appendix Fourteen).

During the research period at Shakespeare School, one of the staff participants conducted a Children’s Research Project investigating why children felt proud of the school. This involved Year Six children taking photographic images of the school and providing an accompanying explanation of why they had chosen it. The Children’s Research Project was regarded in school as an inclusive project, in that it enabled participating children to communicate through the taking of the photographs (Kaplan and Howes, 2010). The written insights of the children connected the images they had selected to their personal perspectives and some of the project has been included within this thesis as part of the data presented prior to publication. The decision to include this data was made so that the perspectives of the children were recognised within the research, rather than ignored (Elliot, 1991). To ensure that the children were aware that they had the choice of either allowing their examples from the project to be included within the thesis or not, the staff participant leading the project talked with the children involved. The member of staff asked all the children to choose if they wanted their work to either remain private to themselves, or to be used only within school, or to be shared outside the school within my research but without the inclusion of their names. This approach to consent was undertaken for a number of reasons. Firstly, it acknowledged children as a vulnerable group who remain entitled to robust ethical consideration regarding their consent, anonymity and privacy (Eyensbach and Till, 2001). Secondly, and in line with statutory safeguarding guidance in schools (DfE, 2016c), discussion with children about consent
complied with the school’s system of safeguarding by ensuring that the best interests of children remained central to that discussion and children’s ‘wishes’ were respected (p.19). As a practitioner this approach formed part of the participant’s professional duty as stipulated within The Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011), as did the consent for the terms of the use of the data provided by the school’s principal. As a researcher I respected the school’s safeguarding of their children, and through following the ethical guidelines shared in section 3.9 of this chapter acted both responsibly and with integrity. As a result I only saw the data from children who agreed to share their work with me (Appendix Fourteen), and prior to presentation of this research through Anglia Ruskin Research online all images of the children’s project will be removed from the thesis.

Documentation, including government generated statistics and data such as the school Ofsted report and achievement and progress results, were provided through the school website. However, this data was also authenticated by accessing the Ofsted and government web sites separately (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). Other school provided data, for example attendance figures, was triangulated through observation and scrutiny of alternative documents. For example, attendance information was presented within school documentation, provided on classroom doors, and as a government held statistic reported by Ofsted. All documentation remained as secondary sources of data that I did not have a role in producing.

The advantage of using secondary sources is that it remains a relatively easy method of data collection, inexpensive, quick to access and grounds the research in the school context thereby supporting naturalistic inquiry. Documents are seen as providing a ‘contextual richness’ (Merriam, 1998 p.126), verifying information and advancing thematic categorisation, enabling a researcher to explore the research question in relation to the culture of a case (Silverman, 2006). Such data, whilst relating to participants experiences and understanding, is also collected without shaping the responses through the data collection method and supports the credibility of the research as seen in section 3.7 of this chapter.

Within the research I also addressed the challenges of utilising secondary source data. I recognised that the documentation was written not for research purposes, but written to present the school’s position to a number of stakeholders, including Ofsted and prospective parents. The values and explanations within the documentation were therefore considered not to be as a result of writer bias, but as presenting a version of reality in the same way the data from observation and interview would. Validation and authentication of data was provided through the research design as indicated earlier within this section, and presented in section 3.7. The use of documents provided an insight into the research question as part of the
Thematic Analysis process. This analysis was undertaken in full, prior to the collection of data within Phase Two of the research.

3.5.2 Phase two data collection
The purpose of Phase Two was to gain feedback from staff working within Shakespeare School based upon the findings from Phase One. It also provided a final opportunity to explore the thoughts, feelings and beliefs of participants (Vaughn et al. 1996), exploring their underlying knowledge (Silverman, 2006) and gaining valuable feedback. A focus group was organised with participants from the interviews invited and specific invitations to the senior manager with responsibility for inclusion and teaching assistants. The deliberate sampling of the member of SMT and teaching assistants was to gather feedback from members of the school who had not been represented within the interviews, with a focus group recognised as useful in accessing views of such underrepresented groups who may have been intimidated by speaking alone to a researcher (Liamputtong, 2007).

As it had been some time since the launch of the research a participant information sheet was provided. Ten members of staff attended, with two SM, two T, four HLTA and two TA participants, therefore the group was small enough to enable participation but large enough to generate and facilitate discussion (Morgan, 1997). I had considered running separate focus groups to limit the potential impact of any differences in authority or status between participants. However, on reflection I rejected this idea as I considered a mixed group provided me with an opportunity to potentially witness the collaboration and interaction between participants, a noticing that I had identified as relevant from the interviews (Morgan and Kreuger, 1993). Prior to the focus group all participants received a participant information sheet for this phase of the research (Appendix Seven) and completed a consent form (Appendix Eight). I also highlighted the confidentiality aspect of the form at the start of the discussion group, reminding participants that whilst the topic could be discussed afterwards in general, the research would not attribute specific comments to specific people and as participants neither should they.

3.5.2.1 Focus group
The use of a focus group in research has been recognised as useful for collecting data from participants (Barbour and Kitzinger, 1999; Farnsworth and Boon, 2010). Braun and Clarke (2013) highlighted the advantage of its use in that it provides data from a number of participants at the same time, and that it provides an opportunity to observe the interactions within the organisation (Silverman, 2006). Parker and Titter (2006) recognise an additional advantage, in that if the researcher takes the role of moderator, as opposed to interviewer, it
passes power over to the participants and the peer support within the group. The moderator is therefore interested in asking questions for the group to discuss, with the resulting social interaction between participants recognised as central to the process. For this reason, face to face focus groups are recognised as the most effective way to organise discussion within complex social situations where participants interact, ask questions, challenge and agree (Hollander, 2004). Through the use of a more conversation like approach, focus groups can therefore be seen as gaining more naturalistic data compared to interviews (Wellings, Branigan and Mitchell, 2000). I was particularly interested in using this method, as the advantages were pertinent to the research question and understanding how this school negotiated the meanings of terms such as inclusion and progress, as well as their support of it. The focus group provided an opportunity for the negotiations and group dynamics to mimic an example of school life (Wilkinson, 1998), highlighting the role of leadership within the school that had been identified by participants in interview as valuable. The focus group was therefore regarded as a useful opportunity to both collect feedback on the Phase One data and provide a final opportunity to gather unanticipated data from new participants. (Braun and Clarke, 2013).

There are a range of approaches in preparing for a focus group as a facilitator. Krueger (1998) suggested a maximum of two to five questions, with Vaughn et al. (1996) recommending the elimination of questions in favour of prompts to elicit further information regarding participants’ thoughts on the subject. Sapsford and Jupp (2008) argued for an even greater level of group ownership, with the participants directing their own discussion and minimal direction provided by the researcher. As this was an opportunity for feedback on Phase One data, I adopted the approach recommended by Krueger (1998) and prepared for my role as facilitator as being distinct from controller of the group (Bloor et al. 2002). I planned for the focus group by producing a visual model of the analysis undertaken in Phase One, in relation to the research question. I produced a set of five questions, beginning with a starter question and followed by a set of three open questions using the three themes of the model and a final suggestion question (Appendix Nine). Prompts were also prepared in order to elicit discussion should it have been required. The final closing question was a check that the participants were leaving without any unresolved concerns. The discussion in the focus group was recorded using an audio recorder and in order to aid the later transcription I took notes identifying who was talking and when.

Having conducted two sets of interviews I was not seeking detailed narratives, often seen as a disadvantage of focus groups, and in order to ameliorate for the other recognised disadvantages of logistical inconvenience of travel and time I organised with the Principal to
hold the focus group in school during the school day. Transcription of the focus group data again can be regarded as time consuming for the researcher, so I booked annual leave for immediately after the group in order to support the transcription and analysis of the data in a timely fashion.

3.6 Data analysis

The analysis of the data within this research is aligned to the research paradigm of constructivism as identified at the start of this chapter. This paradigm that positions the researcher as an interpreter and ‘gatherer of interpretations’ (Stake, 1995, p.99), supports analysis that goes beyond description to gain a deeper understanding (Braun and Clarke, 2013) Qualitative data analysis, involving a pattern based analytical method, was chosen to align the choice of analysis to the reasons Shakespeare School was selected as a case study. Firstly, the school was selected as an instrumental case study so that research into it would provide understanding not just of the case itself but the phenomenon and relationship between the areas of inclusion and progress under research. As a qualitative piece of research and an instrumental case Stake (1995) confirmed the need for categorisation of data. Secondly, whereas quantitative research seeks to collect data and aggregate instances in order to support relevant meaning, qualitative research concentrates on pulling the data apart and analysing it in order to understand the relationship between the areas of focus within the research and the case itself. One instance of data is likely to be ignored within quantitative research on the grounds of insignificance, yet within qualitative data that one instance or piece of data has an equal potential for understanding the case. For example, quantitative research would have ignored the mention of servant leadership yet this piece of data helped to understand leadership motivation. Pattern based analysis supports the researcher to do this, to go back to the data and look for alternative explanations, be sceptical of first impressions and simple meanings in order to gain deeper understanding. Braun and Clarke (2013) refer to this approach by researchers as developing ‘analytical sensibility’, going beyond the surface level content to take an ‘inquiring and interpretative position on data’ (p.204). As a result, in order that the process of data analysis is sufficiently robust there is a requirement to continually check for alternative meanings within the data by looking to rule out, rather than rule in, initial interpretations. Such an approach inevitably leads to periods of uncertainty surrounding the findings whilst the problematic data is revisited, rechecked and reanalysed for alternative explanations. For example, a number of participants mentioned children’s risk taking as evidence of the impact of an inclusive school system. As a result I went back to the data set to inquire how this enabling of children to make decisions that may lead to undesirable results could be considered as evidence of inclusion in practice. Through the process of checking for alternative explanations it became clear that risk taking was a feature of both
children and staff engagement and agency in learning. With its associations to pedagogical approaches that supports both problem solving and high expectations facilitated by a growth mindset and empathy, everyone was enabled to take risks in their learning with the confidence that failure would not be negatively perceived by others.

The decisions about which form of pattern based analysis to undertake formed part of the initial research design and Thematic Analysis was selected. Whilst this form of analysis does not prescribe a method of data collection, the decision was taken prior to the point at which the data collection took place in order to plan the steps of analysis as shown within Figure 3.5. Thematic analysis was also selected based upon the advantages it offered in continuing the holistic approach, in answering the research question and the provision of the rich description contained within the results.

3.6.1 Thematic analysis

Gerald Holton first developed Thematic Analysis in the 1970s (Merton, 1975), it has since grown in popularity and is a recognised and accepted method of analysis (Willig and Stainton Rogers, 2008; Hussain and Griffiths, 2009). Its main strengths have been identified for its flexibility in terms of theoretical framework, research questions, methods of data collection and sample size. It is acknowledged as relatively easy and quick to both learn and be able to do, with accessibility of results acknowledged. Braun and Clarke (2013) recognised the questioning of the approach by some researchers, which I addressed through the research design and respond to now. Thematic Analysis is perceived by some qualitative researchers as having limited interpretative power if not used within an existing theoretical framework. As this research was informed by a literature framework within Chapter Two that was aligned to the analysis and paradigm of constructing and interpreting the voice of participants in order to let the data speak, the criticism was addressed. A further potential weakness was considered in that the focus on patterns across data has been criticised for prohibiting the sense of continuity and contradiction within participants’ individual accounts. This research addressed that point as patterns were considered within each data set as well as across the whole data set. The data itself did not originate from me as the researcher but from the participants, one instance of data remained powerful enough to cause me to go back to the data and look for alternative explanations as explained in the previous section. The final area for questioning surrounds the comparison with the analysis undertaken with other theoretically driven approaches, such as Grounded Theory (GT) or Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA).
IPA was discounted as an approach, as language was not identified within the literature as a particular issue. My research was planned with a rigorous and systematic approach that is presented visually within Figure 3.4, shared here in relation to internal validity and expanded upon in section 3.7 of this chapter. In designing the research I addressed internal validity of the data using Merriam’s (1998) strategies. I utilised multiple sources of data and methods to challenge and confirm emerging findings. Long term observations in order to gather data over time was built into the research to support validity. I developed within the research design, regular opportunities to separate myself as researcher from the data and collect the views of others. Participants were asked to check tentative interpretations and the plausibility of the results. Two opportunities for pre-examination were also utilised, asking colleagues to comment on the findings as they emerged. Again, this provided an opportunity to analyse alternative interpretations and engage with the problematic nature of the data analysis. An example of this occurred in relation to data presented within section 4.1.3 of Chapter Four. T1 shared an example whereby children were asked to log onto the computer and access a website and staff were asked not to ‘type their names in for them’. By the end of the lesson T1 reported that there were still two children who had been unable to complete the task. Whilst the teacher reported this as an example of children learning to problem solve rather than focusing upon task completion, my colleague read the same extract and expressed her concern that instead of this interpretation the data identified a struggle by unsupported children. This led me to go back to the data and check across the set for evidence of an alternative explanation, and as a result recognised that the teaching approach noted focused upon the development of children’s agency, mindset and the learning of skills early within the learning process rather than task completion. Through the triangulation of data and member checking, analysis of data supported not only the credibility of the research but also recognised the collaboration with participants throughout the research as valuable, not doing the research to them but with them, liaising throughout the pre research, research and write up period.

From the outset I identified the research paradigm chosen and the reasons for its selection. GT was not selected for this research due to the paradigm choice indicated at the start of this chapter. GT identifies the procedures for the analysis of data which leads to theory generation. Researchers hold no pre-existing theoretical ideas and assumptions (Robson, 2011), which I clearly did and had in fact led to the development of the research question over time. Case study identified an appropriate methodology, supporting the holistic approach to the research question and the collection of data from participants more than once. The strength of Thematic Analysis was that it supported both the analysis of data from a ‘bottom up’ approach where the data drives the theme on the basis of what the data says, as well as a ‘top down’ approach where theoretical ideas can be utilised as part of the analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2013 p. 178).
The steps of Thematic Analysis are identified in Figure 3.5, and follows the process as identified by Braun and Clarke (2013).

![Figure 3.5 The steps of Thematic Analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p.202).](image)

The combination of Thematic Analysis with the methods of data collection provided a scaffolded approach to the research design, as presented visually within Figure 3.4. Data was obtained at a number of points and then prepared for analysis using the steps of Thematic Analysis as indicated in Figure 3.5.

Transcription of audio data was undertaken following the interviews and focus group. Sandelowski (1994) reminds researchers that transcriptions are two steps away from the actual interview and have been ‘partially cooked’ (p.312) as a result of the interaction between the audio data and the transcriber. I therefore had ensured that I had booked leave from work immediately following the interviews and focus group so that transcription could begin whilst the details from the data collection remained clear. I had prepared a proforma to support the administrative elements of the transcription, ensuring participant anonymity from the start of transcription (Appendix Three). I aimed to produce thorough, high quality transcripts in order to represent what was heard, using a consistent approach following the notation system outlined by Braun and Clarke (2013). The transcription of data included all verbal utterances and the ‘non evaluative guggles like mm’ (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p.96), words, slang, laughter, coughing and acronyms. At the point of transcription it was not sanitised in order that
it provided greater articulation and expression, representing what was heard. Following the suggestion of Poland (2002), the extracts presented within the results had punctuation added to support meaning. However, the original audio data was accessed again to ensure the addition of punctuation did not alter the meaning of the data. Inverted commas were added to demonstrate when a participant was reporting speech of another, emphasising a point or using a term that they would not usually use in that way for example HLTA4 considered that staff: ‘treat everyone like normal children, whatever ‘normal’ is’. Omission of words were bracketed and mistakes within speech indicated with [sic]. The transcript files were anonymised and password protected to support confidentiality. Each phase of transcription was costly in terms of time, with short burst of audio played, transcribed and then checked for accuracy to ensure the words were accurate to avoid writing what I thought the participant had said or meant. However, transcription did provide a continuing familiarisation with the data, particularly important as the data collection continued over a period, and supported initial considerations of areas of note for the research question. The ‘noticings’ (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p.204) were recorded on the transcription proforma, the observation notes and the document data base. The noticings were ideas and comments regarding the participants’ or author’s meanings (Smith et al., 2009), aide memoires to return to later to be dismissed or considered further when searching for patterns within the data. Braun and Clarke (2013) refer to the transcription phase of Thematic Analysis as ‘not a passive process of just understanding the words (or images); it is about starting to read the data as data’ (p.205), providing the initial blocks for coding.

Complete coding across the data set was undertaken at the end of Phase One of the data collection. Complete coding was selected as it identifies everything and anything of interest to the research question, with selection occurring later in the analytical process. Complete coding, as opposed to selective coding, was pertinent to the approach of TA and the bottom up and top down approach. Selective coding was not chosen for the reasons that if focuses both on reducing data and building a ‘corpus of instances’ (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p.206), neither of which supported the research question. The process of complete coding however, supported the selection of codes to reflect both the data derived, semantic meaning of the data, as well as the implicit meanings. The latter providing latent codes as a result of my interpretation as a researcher based upon the conceptual and theoretical frameworks developed and presented in Figure 3.6, for example the consideration of labelling children. During complete coding, I systematically worked through each data item before moving on to the next: each observation, each interview, each document and eventually the focus group. I coded in relation to the research question, each time something was identified as potentially relevant it was coded and the relevant text within the data highlighted. Codes were short, for
example children and engagement. As coding developed I went back to modify codes, for example role model distinguished between learning role model and collaborative role model. Codes overlapped, for example transformation overlapping with need and high expectation (Appendix Ten). It became apparent that some codes were present across data sets but this did not indicate their relevance any more than the single code, frequency was not associated with relevance or meaningfulness. For example, the mention of servant leadership occurred once within the data.

I collated a data base of codes, indicating where the code could be located, on which piece of data and within which section or page number (Appendix Eleven). I attended NVivo training, a computer assisted programme for data analysis, which was available through my institution and I trialled it on a data set. In the end I rejected its use as it felt like it was standing between the data and I in a way that when I came to identify the themes from the codes, paper, post it notes and pens did not. Whilst coding became a lengthy process, the immersion within it proved useful for the next step of identifying patterns across the data set.

Pattern based analysis supports the identification of a theme, based upon the salient features of the coded data in relation to the research question. A theme is broader than a code and collated around something meaningful, a ‘central organising concept’ (Braun and Clarke, 2013 p. 224), with different aspects of that concept, each of which may be a code. To do this I reviewed the codes and the overlap between codes which would inform the central concept or theme as I referred to them (Appendix Twelve). As can be seen from Figure 3.5 I did not set out originally to name the provisional themes in such a similar way to the organisation of the literature review in Chapter Two. The change in theme names developed as the central concepts developed, providing the most applicable answer to the research question, acknowledging then how the themes fitted together in order to explain how Shakespeare School supported both inclusion and progression. The themes, in the same way as coding, were not determined by a quantitative approach, for example codes relating to leadership did not appear very much within the observation data sets, yet were evidently meaningful within the interviews. As themes were being developed the focus remained on answering the research question, and what Buetow (2010) refers to as saliency analysis, not representing everything that was found but included as a result of its meaning. Irrelevant codes were therefore excluded at that point and selected themes reviewed for alternative explanations. The full review of themes took place as part of Phase Two of the research and the focus group. Following the focus group the audio data was transcribed, coded and used to challenge the previous themes. For example, within the group the relationship between the themes was discussed. This led to the development of arrows being added to the model in order to
represent the fluid and responsive nature of the school in meeting the current and future needs of its children. The resulting three overarching themes are presented in turn within Chapter Four, along with their subthemes. The final model is presented in Figure 4.19, with the findings shared within that chapter and the reasons for its arrangement confirmed.

The final step of Thematic Analysis involved taking the selected extracts of data and writing the points each provided for answering the research question. This followed naturally from step six; with the extracts of data selected to provide a coherent and authentic presentation of the case within Chapter Four and the analysis presented in Chapter Five.

The conceptual framework, as presented in Figure 3.6, was compiled from the contextual, literature and research frameworks informing this research, and as shared within the first three chapters of this thesis. The analysis of the case, as discussed within Chapter Five of this thesis, was informed by this original conceptual framework. As a result of that analysis the framework was updated with the revised framework presented in Chapter Six, Figure 6.1.
Figure 3.6 Conceptual framework

Inclusion - Literature
- Models of inclusion
- Medical Model
- Social Model
- Capability Model
- Children’s Rights Model
- Capability Approach

- Variety of definitions...
- DfE Inclusion statement
- Currently - Applies to all learners
- Currently - Measured and recognised through educational outcomes

Inclusive Curriculum - Responds to diversity or taught to all or specialised or dynamic response
- Knowledge and/or child and/or socially centred and/or learning technology curricula models

Inclusive Pedagogy - Common pedagogy and/or wave, specialised, differentiation and intervention approaches

Leadership - Distributed, adaptive, servant, ethical and authentic leadership

Teachers' Standards (2011)

Shakespeare School Context - Children
- Above average numbers of children with EAL, ME, FSM, SEN
- High levels economic and social deprivation

Social, Historical, Economic & Political Educational Context
- Purpose of education – workforce and society preparation
- Social justice and economic growth addressed through high expectations, increased and equitable educational outcomes (academically tested) for all children
- Market economy – accountability, academisation and competition increase standards/educational outcomes
- Neoliberalism, meritocracy and austerity
- Current aim to reduce the number of children identified with SEN
- Current Local Authority performance table – lowest nationally
- Current International PISA performance table (72 countries) – 1st 23rd position reading, 15th position science 22nd position maths

Shakespeare School

Shakespeare School - Educational Outcomes
- Progress - Top 5% in country
- School Ofsted - Outstanding

Research Paradigm
- Constructivist – key case study
- Phase One data collection
  - Observations
  - Interview 1 + 2
  - Documentation
- Phase Two data collection
  - Focus Group

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3.7 Rigour of the research

The validity and robustness of my research remained a priority throughout, it was present through the process of constructing the research, research activity, researcher reflection and writing. The term reliability has been associated with evaluating quantitative research within a realist paradigm (Seale, 1999), referring to the production of the same results when the same measures are administered by different researchers. Reliability in this sense is therefore recognised as inappropriate for judging qualitative research. For qualitative research Braun and Clarke (2013) establish that judgement is made upon the ‘trustworthiness or dependability’ (p.279) of research activity, with enough detail provided to show that a researcher’s conclusion ‘makes sense’ (Firestone, 1987, p.19). For qualitative research, reliability is therefore concerned with credibility. I have ensured this through the provision of the details of the research, recording them explicitly from my position as a researcher to the details of the research design, analysis of the results and the conclusion reached. Furthermore, credibility has been supported through the actioning of strategies based upon the triangulation of data sources, investigators, theory, methodology and member checking for establishing research validity, as recommended by Merriam (1998). Firstly, the research design as outlined in Figure 3.4 evidenced the internal validity process of the research construction with multiple sources of data collection methods planned for and utilised (Kidder and Judd, 1986; Flick, 1992; Merriam 1998). The selection of case study supports this approach as it is recognised for drawing together a ‘palette of methods’ (Stake, 1995 p. xii). Secondly, participants were involved in all phases of the research, from the planning through data collection and checking, with the purpose of feeding back on the plausibility of the tentative interpretations of the data as part of both Phase One and Two of the research. Thirdly, long term observations were gathered so data was collected over time, particularly important given that qualitative researchers recognise reality as ever changing. Fourthly, a critical friend was utilised for theory and investigator triangulation to comment upon the findings during the collection and analysis of the data, and lastly a conceptual framework was provided to clarify my initial theoretical and philosophical assumptions as a researcher. The steps focused upon ensuring opportunities were provided and engaged with that regularly challenged the analysis and explanations being developed, and by a number of research stakeholders.

Merriam’s strategies are concerned with the validity of my research findings, this is of particular importance given that as the researcher I am the instrument of data collection. The process of research, visually represented in Figures 3.1, 3.4 and 3.5, is concerned with validity, in place in order to establish that the findings I report within this thesis are reality. This is of particular importance given the assumption of qualitative research, that reality is holistic, multidimensional and forever changing (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Stake (1994) refers to the
researcher’s concern with validity and reliability as ‘safeguarding the trip’ (p.241) when information is transferred between the writer and the reader, with an ethical obligation to minimise misinterpretations.

3.8 Research evaluation – Case study methodology

Flyvberg (2006) drew attention to five misunderstandings of case study research, on which I now comment in relation to my own research.

Flyvberg (2006) highlighted the misunderstanding that context-independent knowledge, that is theoretical knowledge, is more valuable than context-dependent, or practical, knowledge. In refuting this Flyvberg stresses the importance of capturing the reality of a case in detail, providing practical and context-dependent knowledge with which to inform learning within the social sciences. This is seen as a strength within my research, supported by the opportunities of a professional doctorate and understood by participants within the case study. Understanding Shakespeare School in detail provides the opportunity to contribute to an understanding of inclusion through research which questions, investigates and evaluates the reality of it in context and practice. For example, understanding of Gulf War Syndrome was not developed through ‘predictive theories and universals’ (Flyvberg, 2006, p.224), but informed by researchers who were close to the case, receiving feedback on their understanding (MOD, 2012).

The second misunderstanding Flyvberg (2006) refers to highlights the assumed restrictions of case study in contributing to scientific development. This is based upon the view that generalizations are required and cannot be made based upon the study of an individual case. This position assumes that research undertaken is typical of a wider population, and so findings could predict and be generalized to that population. Ruddin (2006) noted that the need for generalization in research was a ‘problem of positivism’ (p.798), with the focus on formal generalization seen as limiting scientific development if ‘formal generalization becomes the only legitimate method of scientific inquiry’ (Flyvberg, 2006, p.227). A carefully chosen case, with a clear rationale for its selection, is seen by Flyvberg as being critical for adding to knowledge and leading to discovery. Hence, the reasons for the choice of Shakespeare School were provided in detail within section 3.4.1 of this chapter.

‘One can often generalize on the basis of a single case, and the case study may be central to scientific development via generalization as supplement to other methods. But formal generalization is overvalued as a source of scientific development, whereas “the force – of example” is underestimated’ (Flyvberg, 2006 p.228)
Flyvberg cites Popper (1959) in recognition that subjecting propositions to the test of falsification, not only supported reflexivity within research, but led to theory development. Using the proposition of ‘all swans are white’, Popper suggested that one observation of a single black swan would falsify the original proposition and be of significance to developing theory. Therefore, case study is seen as ideal, through in-depth study and detail of a carefully chosen case it is suited to the identification of black swans because: ‘what appears to be white often turns out on closer examination to be black’ (Flyvberg, 2006, p.228).

Stake (1995) calls for the reframing of generalization, identifying that: ‘the real business of case study is particularization, not generalization’ (p.8). Providing readers with the detail of a case can support them to understand what makes this case particular, unique and important, but also to make ‘naturalistic generalizations’ (p.85). These are seen as the readers’ conclusions, reached through personal engagement of cases they are familiar with to which this case has been added, providing: ‘a new opportunity to modify old generalisations’ (p85). Within this thesis I have therefore aimed to provide accounts which provide sufficient detail and thick description, supporting the reader to gauge the accuracy of the work in relation to their own experience, as well as the opportunity to access the experience of Shakespeare School as closely as possible. The aim is to support case transference, whereby the reader decides how closely this experience fits to their own, and whether the findings can be transferred to their own situation (Firestone, 1993). This approach is common in medicine and law where applicability of one case to another is judged by the practitioner. In summary, whilst this case study never claims to aim to be generalizable for policy making, it does set out to present a rich portrayal of a single setting to inform practice and evaluation, establish value and add to current knowledge. The focus of this research is on particularization and providing the reader with the opportunity to make their own naturalistic generalizations. However, there are examples where a single case study has had a national impact. Following the review into the abuse and death of Victoria Climbié, the Every Child Matters policy (DfES, 2003) was written with national and local policy and practice changed as a result of an inquiry into one case. It is therefore false to claim that a case study cannot contribute to development beyond the case (Ruddin, 2006).

The third misunderstanding Flyvberg (2006) draws attention to is based upon the previous point regarding generalizability from a single case, it reflects a belief that case study is simply the first stage in the research process, appropriate for generating rather than testing hypothesis. In refuting this point within my thesis I draw attention to the conceptual framework in Figure 3.6 and the two previous chapters. The theoretical framework of inclusion is identified and shared within Chapter Two, the focus on educational outcome and progress and the
relationship with inclusion is explained and shared within Chapter One and Two. The purpose of my research is to look in detail at Shakespeare School and challenge that theory, policy and practice already in existence.

The fourth misunderstanding Flyvberg (2006) identifies relates to the perception that case study methodology supports a ‘tendency to confirm the researchers preconceived notions’ (p.234). Within qualitative research the influence of the researcher is acknowledged (Yardley, 2008) and the benefits of their active engagement with participants recognised (McLeod, 2011). This subjectivity is not seen as a fault to be eliminated but rather as an essential element of understanding. Guba and Lincoln (1998) indicate that the most relevant approach to adopt is to acknowledge the inherent subjectivity and concentrate on demonstrating how researcher values, predispositions and feelings impact upon the research adopting a reflexive stance throughout. It was for these reasons that I chose not only to build strategies of triangulation into the research design but also to record observations within Shakespeare School of what Stake (1995) refers to as the ‘ordinary looking and thinking’ (p.49), as part of my research diary. In doing so I recognised that expertise and understanding of the data would develop through reflective practice, recording what was happening whilst examining its meaning, enhanced through the process of sharing and receiving feedback from others. Parlett and Hamilton (1976) refer to this as progressive focusing; whereby, the interpretation of the researcher focuses upon preserving the multiple realities of the case (Stake, 1995). As a researcher I made choices about the role I had within the research. I chose the role of a teacher-biographer, learning what the reader would need to know in order to understand the complexity of the case in full. Through the thesis, the biography of the case as well as a good learning experience are provided. Flyvberg indicates that case study is rigorous, in that it is characterized by an approach aimed at falsification as opposed to verification. Within my research, the research design, methods of data selection, systems of checking understanding and the use of Thematic Analysis all reflect the bias towards falsification. For example, my reflection earlier within this chapter captures the preconception that the curriculum within Shakespeare School was responsible for the success of the school. This led to the literature search and data collection not aimed at verification, but in fact the opposite. As a result, within subsequent chapters of this thesis the curriculum will be shown to be only part of the picture of the school’s success.

The final misunderstanding Flyvberg (2006) considers is that it is difficult to summarize general theories and formulae based upon the narrative of case study. Flyvberg recognises the strength of case study is in presenting the rich description of a case, with summary and generalisation not viewed as the purpose of case study. As seen earlier in this section the
relevance of case study for particularization and naturalistic generalization was referred to. Summarising a case for a reader is therefore seen as closing that case, providing an opportunity to lose information regarded as valuable for both particularization and naturalistic generalization within that summary. Summarising a case study and losing that narrative detail, should not be regarded as the same as summarising case study outcomes. Flyvberg (2006) acknowledges that in challenging and adding to existing theory a summary of those outcomes will be made. Within this thesis those outcomes will be analysed within Chapter Five and presented in Chapter Six.

3.9 Ethical considerations

Ethical consideration within research ‘should be an integral part of the research planning and implementation process, not viewed as an afterthought or a burden’ (Mertens, 2005, p.33). Mertens (2005) suggest research is guided by the three ethical principles of The Belmont Report which are beneficence, respect, and justice. This research conforms to all three principles and complies with the British Educational Research Association’s Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (BERA, 2011). As part of research planning I considered the ethical issues and discussed with the Shakespeare School’s principal the potential impact the research may have on staff time, workload and roles. We also discussed any potential for harm and agreed to the anonymity of the school, children and participants throughout the research, with photographs removed when the thesis would be presented electronically through Anglia Ruskin Research on line. The ethical use of the children’s project was considered in detail within section 3.5.1.3 of this chapter with the supporting documentation provided in Appendix Fourteen. The ascertaining of children’s wishes and their protection conformed not only to the ethical guidelines of research but also statutory safeguarding guidance for schools (DfE, 2016c) and complied with The Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011).

The school’s principal submitted a letter of support to the University Ethics Committee when I submitted an ethics application, prior to participant recruitment and the commencement of data collection. The Ethics panel confirmed approval and the right to proceed (Appendix Thirteen). Participant information sheets were provided to all members of the school staff for Phase One (Appendix One). The information provided included the nature and purpose of the study, methods of data collection planned for and the option for participants to choose not to take part, with the offer of providing further information and the right to withdraw at any point given. Information regarding confidentiality and anonymity was provided with an outline of how, when and with whom the research results would be shared. The information was provided prior to seeking participant consent (Appendix Two) in order that neither staff who chose to participate, nor those who did not, would feel under any pressure or coercion to make
a decision, treating all members of staff with respect (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2005; Mertens, 2005; Potter, 2006). The process of providing an adapted participant information sheet (Appendix Seven) and a participant consent form (Appendix Eight) was repeated for Phase Two of the research.

Specific ethical consideration was given to the different methods of data collection, as Merriam (1998) suggests ethical dilemmas are primarily concerned with the researcher-participant relationship and therefore are likely to emerge with data collection. As a qualitative, case study researcher I recognised that I was a guest not only in Shakespeare School, but through the methods of data collection a guest in the ‘private spaces’ of participants' thought and action which presents both benefits and risks to the participants (Stake 1994, p.244). I ensured that observations were only undertaken around the participants who had given permission and recorded my written notes using an electronic research diary following the observations and anonymising the data, keeping it password protected. At the start of each interview I repeated the explanation of the research, recording the data, maintaining anonymity within the recordings and transcriptions, protecting both using passwords. I was guided through the interviews by the considerations of Patton (1990), that interviewers first task is to ‘gather data, not change people’ (p.354), and that I was not a judge, therapist nor a ‘cold slab of granite’ (p.354). Recording the interviews enabled me to retain eye contact and focus upon listening to participants, aware and available to attend to any difficulties or situational ethical dilemmas which may require a response. I asked at each interview whether anyone objected to me quoting their words within the thesis, and offered a transcription to each participant. No one objected, or asked for a copy of their transcription. Whilst the majority of the documentation scrutinised was available through the internet and therefore public records, open to anyone’s scrutiny, I needed to ensure that information provided for one purpose was not used for another (Kelman 1982). I therefore gained e mail permission from Shakespeare School’s principal to utilise the documentation, including the school led children’s project, and quote from it within the thesis. This was provided by e mail (Appendix Fourteen).

For the focus group I reminded all participants of the anonymity procedures, as within the interviews. However, additionally I reminded all participants that they had a right to express their view without it being assigned to them following the focus group, and therefore anonymity should be retained outside the focus group. Recording the focus group using a voice recorder, again enabled me to be aware and available to attend to any difficulties requiring a response.

Chapter Three has provided the research framework and the decisions made in order to systematically, rigorously and ethically answer the research question. The chapter highlights
the research paradigm, its design, methodology, methods of data collection and analysis. This chapter shared the strengths of case study research, the choices I made and steps I took to ensure the research undertaken remains robust, participants protected and findings, as presented in Chapter Four which follows, are fully evidenced.
Chapter Four
Results

‘I was in a Wabet, surrounded by silent, captivated children. Their bodies were leaning forward, towards a single body wrapped in bandages and lying on the table in front of us... Like a well-rehearsed play the embalmer described the cleaning of the liver, stomach, lungs and intestines and places them in the canopic jars. The liver was held up for all to see... the salt passed to be felt (and licked) before filling the cavities. The teaching assistant repeated and explained again what was happening as the embalmer continued her work.... As the brain was hooked out of the nose, glorious squealing was passed from child to child like a ripple.... At the end of the process, the body sat up. The children shrieked in fear, followed quickly by raucous laughter. As we left the school cellar leaving the Wabet behind, a stream of talk joins the children and one boy started to explain to me what I too had witnessed, sharing it excitedly all over again.’ (Research diary extract)

The previous chapter presented the methodology, outlining the main research structure. The purpose of this chapter is to detail the findings from the data collection which are presented as themes following Thematic Analysis across the data sets:

One: Children
Two: The Creative Curriculum
Three: Leadership.

Each of the themes is supported with a range of evidence from phases one and two of the data collection: school documentation, observation notes, images, and direct quotations from the staff participants during the interviews and focus group. Therefore, this roots the findings in staff understanding, policy and practices, includes the children’s responses from the school’s Research Project and confirms the findings with the staff participants. At the end of the chapter the key findings are presented within an overarching and holistic model that synthesises the characteristics found as a result of the data analysis. The model provides an insight into how inclusion and progress are considered, managed and modelled for children within Shakespeare School.

Throughout this chapter, the staff participants are referred to through a code allocated for anonymity purposes, for example, Teacher 1 (T1), Senior Manager 1 (SM1), Teaching Assistant 1 (TA1) and Higher Level Teaching Assistant 1 (HLTA1). The children are also allocated a code in order to protect their anonymity, child one (C1), child two (C2), up to child six (C6).
A summary of the results in relation to the research question ‘How does Shakespeare School support both the inclusion and progress of all children?’ is provided at the end of each theme.

4.1 Theme One - Children

Analysis of the data set identified the theme ‘children’, presenting the school’s philosophy for their children and the participants’ notions regarding both inclusion and progress. Reflecting the mindset of staff and children, the theme represents the school’s philosophy and context for practice, in the same way as the school’s curriculum policy acknowledges a hidden curriculum as:

‘... what children learn from the way they are treated and expected to behave, ... and how to grow into positive, responsible people’ (p.1)

The title of the theme has been generated by the language of the data. The terms child, children and childhood are referred to throughout the school generated data, they are repeated within the documentation and language of the participants without exception. The term pupil has only been utilised when school documentation makes direct reference to government generated publications, or a published assessment package named ‘Pupil Asset’.

When staff participants were asked what they considered the term inclusion to mean, four themes emerged. Firstly the term inclusion was identified as relating to all children and their equality of opportunity to be valued, to be considered as having the academic capacity to make progress and to thrive within the collective of the school. Secondly, inclusion was regarded as the entitlement of all children to develop positive relationships and an emotional understanding of their own uniqueness, value and power as individuals across a range of learning opportunities. Thirdly, inclusion was considered as the process of empowering children’s creative and independent thinking skills so that they felt able to utilise those skills to overcome difficulties in learning, and to enjoy and be confident to take risks in their learning. Fourthly, the notion of inclusion was regarded as the process of social learning within the collective of school that valued the key skill of empathy in recognising uniqueness and differences between children, as well as staff, as diversity as opposed to deviancy. The four aspects of inclusion within the theme Children are referred to using the pronouns I, Myself, Me and We. These four aspects are aligned to the central areas of children’s academic, emotional, creative and social learning, all of which are valued in Shakespeare School, and related to the Holistic Intelligence framework discussed in detail in section 4.2.3 of this chapter. This philosophical layer of the school’s holistic framework that supports both inclusion and progress is presented within Figure 4.1.
4.1.1 ‘I’

‘I’, a personal pronoun was selected as the title of the subtheme for its emphasis as a subject pronoun. I represents the child as the subject of consideration within the data and in relation to their learning journey.

When asked at interview what staff thought the term inclusion meant to them, the responses identified that inclusion wasn’t considered as just a process but was an understanding that all children had the capacity to learn and thrive as a valued member of the group, class and school. It was identified within the documentation and by staff participants that the needs of children in school weren’t special or different, but needs were presented as a common goal for all. High quality education was valued for its capacity to positively impact on all children’s lives, with the school’s aspirations for their children focused on longer term goals and more holistic outcomes, beyond those merely associated with attainment:

‘Unlocking potential: If we give children the roots they will grow wings and fly, good teachers make a difference, outstanding teachers transform lives.’ (School vision statement)

‘Educating children in the knowledge, skills and understanding they need in order to lead fulfilling lives.’ (Curriculum policy, p.1)

‘Our educational offer must transform lives’. (SM3)

‘... we want children to have a fantastic life and to access learning and to want to learn’. (SM2)

T4 reflected upon how this philosophy was shared and why it was important for their inclusion:

‘Letting children know they can do great things, giving them the opportunities to do great things and that it is going to have a positive impact in life’. (T4)
Aspirations for children’s lives included supporting children to recognise the power of education and their own involvement with it; this was confirmed by the children themselves. When recording areas of the school which made them proud, C4 referred to the longer term benefits of education in relation to employment, with both C3 and C4 supporting the requirement of children to be involved in the process and ‘put in lots of effort’ (C4).

Figure 4.2 Children’s research project – Transforming lives

 Whilst there was a recognition from staff that influences such as deprivation outside school impacted upon learning and children’s skills on entry to school, evidence was presented that this was not viewed as determining children’s capacity to develop and progress. A difference in starting point for children was not seen as limiting their outcomes. Education was seen as providing the opportunities for children to progress in the sense of enabling positive change for each child.

‘Every child can succeed. They might come into reception well below where they should be, but that is just because they haven’t had the experience before they arrived and not because they are not capable. So if they might come in looking like they are really low ability, it’s not because they are not capable of not being any better, it’s because they haven’t been pushed or had the experiences and the knowledge and skills beforehand to do any better.’ (SM1)

This approach was taken for all children, including those who could have been judged as high ability:

‘If you tell a child they are high ability where do they go from there? They should know they are good but it is also the effort they put in that gets them there not anything else.’ (SM1)
‘Inclusion is not a term you can reduce it to a single sentence. It’s about changing attitudes, sometimes of the children. Those who are in the higher ability sometimes see themselves as ‘it’, you need to change their attitude to [say] you may have the potential but you are not there yet.’ (SM2)

The relationship between the staff’s aspiration for children, and the high expectations to support that aspiration, was identified:

‘It’s our ethos of pushing them, giving them aspirations, we talk about high expectations, not allowing excuses for the children like they are EAL, they can’t do this, they can’t do that. It’s just you need to find the right approach. It’s not that they can’t learn, it’s you haven’t found how to do it with them yet.’ (T4)

‘It is partly expecting more of the child than you believe they can do, because they can always do more’. (T3)

‘There is not a that will do ethos here at all’. (T1)

The school philosophy that staff could make a difference through the opportunities they provided, was not dependent upon categorisation of difference or restricted to a particular group, or groups, of learners:

‘I like the way of not looking at labels and so not limiting the children’s potential... if you write children off they haven’t got a chance, how are they ever going to believe they can do it.’ (T2)

‘We assume each child will achieve, exactly as the next child, a language barrier is just a barrier that we will overcome.’ (T3)

The school’s handbook for staff established the entitlement for all children through the school’s termed non-negotiable approach. This laid out for staff the expectations children had a right to receive, seen in full in Figure 4.3. The rights of children to be equally valued through the provision of real opportunities was identified:

‘Treat all children fairly, every child you teach deserves the same amount of your time as well as opportunities to learn and be challenged.’ (p.16)
The focus group, within Phase Two of the data collection, confirmed the consistency of staff thinking behind the approach when they discussed how difference between children was viewed and managed within school:

‘It’s offering education to all children, regardless of their abilities and disabilities.’ (HLTA1)

‘It’s being aware of those children and their needs but not using the needs as an excuse, for the work they can produce because all children can produce and achieve to a high standard. Everyone should be able to achieve, whatever lesson you put them in.’ (HLTA2)

‘Because of our approach the children don’t expect any less of those children either so they treat everyone like normal children, whatever ‘normal’ is. We don’t treat children with special needs any different.’ (HLTA4)

‘Providing children with the opportunities to achieve whatever level they are.’ (SM4)

In line with the longer term aspirations for children, progress was viewed as part of an individual child’s journey and role as a learner.

‘I think in this school we have a big focus on progress over attainment, it is the journey rather than the end goal.’ (T6)

‘Progress can be within a lesson, a unit of maths can it, so for example we were looking at money this week, they started off here and progressed by the end of the week to be here.’ (TA3)

‘They might not spell small words and by the end of day 2 they can, so it is small steps as well.’ (TA2)

‘We have a lot of children with EAL so we have a girl who didn’t speak any English and within a few weeks is picking up full sentences so progress there is in personal language.’ (HLTA1)
‘We do a lot of experiences so we see the social progress, with lots of new EAL children because they are able to have those experiences, it not necessarily an academic progress but you can see how they are developing as a child rather than just in terms of what level they are.’ (T5)

The entitlement to real opportunities to progress towards longer term outcomes is further established through the provision of the full curriculum for every child. The school’s SEN policy referred to the 2013 National Curriculum requirements to offer a broad and balanced curriculum for all children. Clarifying the policy for children with SEN it stated:

‘We support children in a manner that acknowledges their entitlement to share the same learning experiences that their peers enjoy. Wherever possible, we do not withdraw children from the classroom situation (p.4).’

Staff explained what the curriculum entitlement was in school, drawing attention to the belief that this supported a child as a learner for life:

‘To be truly successful as a learner, person and human being then equal rigour and importance must also be placed on the whole child and every area of their education. We must therefore place great importance upon dance, drama, art, music, singing, sport, science, history and all the other areas of learning.’ (SM3)

SM3 expressed concern that the current national assessment practices would be in danger of not being able to recognise the next Beckham, Giggs, Best, Lennon, Picasso or Olivier through its prioritisation of one area of the curriculum over another. The development of the whole child was seen as important by staff participants, with school policy indicating that the removal of children from the classroom for intervention groups, as utilised elsewhere, was not part of its practice. T2 considered the impact of such an approach:

‘I couldn’t imagine a classroom that excludes children; I couldn’t imagine what that would be like for a child or a teacher... everyone should be listened to, taking part and listening to each other, that’s inclusion. If you remove children it is saying your view of inclusion is not about children, their feelings or their strengths.’

T1 shared that the approach of running intervention groups during the afternoon in other schools, restricted the curriculum offer to children from academic subjects where their abilities could be developed further:

‘We don’t have intervention groups where you go off every afternoon, because I feel and as a school we feel that the children learn far more from being in the classroom with a teacher having appropriately differentiated tasks... So we look at what they can’t do and we incorporate it into our lesson as opposed to OK they get to miss science every week.’ (T1)
There was a recognition by staff in Shakespeare School that the full academic curriculum to which they are entitled should be offered to, and provide opportunities for, all children in order to discover and recognise their strengths:

‘You have your mathematicians, you have your writers or your readers, but you also have your performing artists … we are really trying to cater for the whole child in one part of every week and you will have different children shining in various things and that thing could be in P4T (Pause for thought) for 15 minutes a week, they are very eloquent about what they say, how they talk and how they come across but they might not be very good in terms of science or maths, hence allowing the opportunity for those children to succeed’. (SM2)

Some staff participants identified the link between this entitlement to the whole academic curriculum and positive behaviour in school:

‘I have worked in other places where they will have interventions and nine times out of ten it is those children who have behaviour troubles….right you like art but your writing isn’t that good so we are going to make you do extra writing instead of art, you aren’t going to get anything from interventions like that’. (T2)

T1 provided an example from practice which acknowledges again the importance of knowing the individual child and a belief in children remaining in the class. T1’s example identified children having problems understanding number bonds to ten:

‘We don’t take them [children] out of the classroom to do any more of that, we will include it within our lesson…you don’t just see a group of children as the group that can’t do their number bonds, you see them as individuals. There may be just one child who just can’t get 8+2=10 but they have got the rest so why would I want to send them outside to the corridor so they can go over 5+5 when they know it…You need to know them (children) individually and cater for that within your lesson rather than booster them outside, no ICT for you because you are doing that.’ (T1)

‘Looking at the children, and listening to their workings and thoughts together, interacting with each other and the staff sitting at the tables I am struck by the thought of who is the teacher? Not just in the sense of which of the three adults holds the title, but also which child? Which one, two or three would be awarded the title of special, special enough to be removed from this’ (Research diary extract).

The Phase Two focus group discussed the importance of accessing the full curriculum as part of their discussion on how the school supported children’s inclusion. HLTA4 began:

‘It’s high expectations, regardless of ability. Not singling them out, not taking them out of the classroom to work with people on their own. It’s lots of opportunities for mixed ability groupings for them, trying to provide the role modelling for all children’ (HLTA4)
‘It’s the mindset of the children, they believe they are part of the class and they can achieve. They don’t need to go out of the class to achieve, they can do it there with the rest of the children’ (SM4)

They have a lot of time for PE and dance, different children achieve in different subjects, like M is so good at dance, PE and music yet can’t write a sentence so it allows those opportunities for them to achieve in different areas of learning’ (T5)

‘You saying all this, we have been here such a long time that we think that is the norm.’ (HLTA2)

‘It’s very easy to get bogged down in LOL [Language, Oracy and Literacy], maths, that is what the government looks for, that is what all external groups look for. I think having worked in other schools it’s like interventions, I am going to take these children out to do extra maths in the afternoon, so they will miss science, the ones who love science the most, because they need to do extra maths.’ (T6)

‘It’s common sense’ (HLTA2)

‘Imagine two maths lessons a day. In other schools children don’t want to go to school because they are having two maths lessons a day, two literacy lessons a day, whereas we don’t see that when you are putting your maths into science’ (TA2)

‘It’s like us as adults if we are seconded into another class for the afternoon, you come back and feel like you have really missed out. Sorry no I don’t remember when we planted seeds, I was doing number bonds to ten.’ (HLTA2)

Within this subtheme the data identified that the school’s inclusive philosophy was that all children were born with the capacity to learn and to succeed. The interviews indicated that staff participants had a view of intelligence that meant it could be developed, and this applied for all children. This supports a belief that intelligence was seen as not a fixed, in born entity. Aspiration for and high expectations of all children were regarded as supporting their progress and establishing children as long term learners, those considered as currently demonstrating high ability were challenged in the same way as every other learner. The child as ‘I’ within the theme, did not relate to creating a hedonistic child, judged by their success in comparison to other children, and based upon academic outcomes as measured by SATs. This ‘I’ was about a child’s individual learning journey, valued and respected equally, and as demonstrated through their entitlement to access equal time with staff and the full range of the academic curriculum with their peers. This supported children to make progress in learning to learn as well as within each subject, those where they had demonstrated strengths, as well as those where they did not. It was also recognised that progress was supported by membership of the school, as T4 noted: ‘they think this is the best school in the whole entire world and they want to prove that’.

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When summarising the theme to the focus group, two HLTA staff discussed how the school had moved away from creating those hedonistic children, and staff, where ‘I’ had demonstrated a form of academic arrogance:

‘If you look back ten years ago you can see the I, there were the I children. It’s all changed, it’s a very different school now.’ (HLTA2)

‘The children who go to coding club are teaching me how to do it, it is brilliant.’ (HLTA3)

‘That’s because you haven’t got the I attitude, that I am the teacher and I know best. You are modelling how to learn and how to let others teach you.’ (HLTA2)

4.1.2 ‘Myself’

‘Myself’, as a reflexive pronoun was selected as the title of the subtheme for that emphasis, as the reflexive form of ‘I’. When asked at interview what staff considered the term inclusion to mean, the responses identified that the process of inclusion was seen as requiring the building of children’s emotional intelligence in support of the development of positive relationships with each child as an individual. That relationship was seen as valuable in supporting children to learn and thrive, encouraging and enabling children to acknowledge their own uniqueness, value and power:

‘It is all about the children having their aspirations and the teacher having aspirations of the children and looking at how they can join together in the lesson.’ (SM1)

‘I see the children as all individuals, I could quite happily sit and talk for half an hour about each one in my class because that is the sort of relationship you have to have. I don’t see them as one big group of people I have to teach, they are all individuals with their own skill sets, their own backgrounds, their own individual talents, strengths and weaknesses.’ (T1)

‘So you get to know the children as a learner and a human being as well, you know they have got emotions and feelings as well and if it is an off day why is it an off day, how can you make sure you get the best out of them whilst being emotionally intelligent to their needs.’ (T4)

As a non-negotiable expectation the school’s handbook emphasised the entitlement children had to be known by staff:

‘Get to know the children you teach. The better you know them, the more successful you will be as a practitioner.’ (p.16)

This supported the school’s focus on learning for longer term aims, as well as equality of opportunity:
‘... every teacher must discover the spark that every child has inside them to enable them to transform each child’s life.’ (SM3).

‘The mission statement of the school talks about valuing the individuality of all of our children. We are committed to giving all our children every opportunity to achieve the highest standard. Equality of opportunity must be a reality for our children.’ (Inclusion Policy p.1)

Within the interviews building relationships with individual children was seen as modelling inclusion to children, developing not only an understanding of themselves but also of others, recognising that differences between and within children were to be valued and respected. The school’s curriculum policy acknowledged the value of developing emotional intelligence in the form of understanding difference for all children, this was also recognised by staff participants:

‘We value the way in which all children are unique, and our curriculum promotes respect for the views of each individual child, as well as for people of all cultures. We value the spiritual and moral development of each person, as well as their intellectual and physical growth.’ (Curriculum Policy p.1)

‘Inclusion is about treating a child as an individual, not a statistic and definitely not as a problem... there is a danger that people think inclusion is that they [children with special educational needs] sit down with all the kids, they work as everyone else. That doesn’t happen for any child. Every child has an individual need, support structure, strategy. That is my idea of inclusion, not that this one child is different.’ (T4)

‘I think there is an interesting thing linked to inclusion ... in so far as the areas you covered regarding leadership values and role modelling, if you want people to have empathy you have got to model it, if you want high expectations you have to have them.’ (SM3)

Knowing each child well, understanding and appreciating them as individuals coupled with a staff focus on providing opportunities to impact on their life beyond school, was acknowledged by staff participants as supporting high expectations, and encouraging children to take risks in their own learning:

‘It is a belief in them as well, we have high expectations but we know they will always achieve it so even if they don’t think they will get there then we know they can get there. It’s not giving up on the child as well and never saying well they are not going to get that because of whatever ... it’s about being the best they can be.’ (T4)

‘Inclusion to me is about expecting and encouraging progress from every single child in your classroom.’ (T1).
If you have a mindset that they are Slovakian, Roma and have never been to school so they are not going to achieve then you are not going to manage what we have done. I have sat in [local] meetings where it has been a list of excuses for why certain children or groups of children can’t do it.’ (SM3)

‘Children should be challenged so they ... feel free to take risks.’ (SM1)

‘We try to make it a safe environment for them to fail as well. (T4)

At the focus group staff provided examples of the compassion shown for difference, confirming the benefits of knowing children as individuals and supporting them to feel secure in order that they take on a role of responsibility for, and pleasure from, their learning:

‘Even when you have a clown in the class, we are not trying to change him. We like his humour the whole point of it is controlling it, still be who you are we don’t want to change you, it’s teaching him how to work with it.’ (HLTA3)

‘We have a child in our class who is not quite confident, he stood up the other week and just talked about scratch to the whole class, he knew it inside out. We let him do it because it built his confidence, he was showing the other children actually how to do it. So we said right take over, off you go and he just stood there and did it.’ (T5)

‘It’s important they are comfortable and confident to do that.’ (HLTA4)

During the interviews, staff participants provided examples of a number of roles of responsibility that children were asked to undertake with integrity as members of the school:

‘We have a lot of roles in school, one of the main ones is the translators so if a child comes into school needing language assistance we will ask one of the child language assistants to come to the meeting or if a parent has got a query and their English isn’t very good we will ask one of the language assistants to come in and help with that. Obviously if it is too confidential then for different reasons it might not be appropriate for the child to do the translating quite often they might be used at a parents evening or at the end of the day when we have a letter to go home. We have house captains, vice captains for the houses so they have a bit of a say when it comes to house competitions, and incentives the children have in Key Stage Two so they feel important there. We have ambassadors too. If we have any visitors we are quite happy to ask for a couple of ambassadors to show them around. They are so much better at it than we are and it gives them ownership, it is our school and not just this is the school I go to.’ (SM1)

‘I feel like they [the children] feel important as we have so many roles, especially in year 5 and 6, we have language assistants, we have ambassadors, we have got school councillors. So if we have new people coming into the school, the language assistants will support, they will be told you are doing this as a role and they love it, they stand up straight, they take it very seriously and they do it really well. The same with ambassadors, if we have visitors to the school adults don’t show them around, the children do. Again, very serious, they are really positive, we kind of give them that responsibility and they take it. I would say they think they are important
and they push us too, they challenge us and make sure we are doing what is right for them as well.’ T3

‘We have developed digital leader experts, they can help adults where needed and things like that. I know when we were setting up our new activities, like our areas, the play equipment and things like that children were brought in and brainstorming ideas and they were given the chance to shape the school.’ (T2)

Reflection by the children was seen as an essential part of staff reflection and learning, with that process of learning modelled by staff to children:

We make the end of every topic a chance to sit down with the class and ask them about the topic and what they enjoyed and what was it we taught that helped them to learn best what was it that they learnt best so we can reflect on why have they learnt that area of the topic better than other areas. Is it because of the experience they did, the activities they were given? Then selected children for the school council come to the long term planning sessions and they will be able to give questions of what they would like to learn in the topic and ask staff questions and ideas of where they would like to take the learning to. Everything is set up for the children so they are and feel as important as anyone in school. As important as the head, the office staff, the kitchen staff and I think they realise that and therefore not just seen as children who come to school but as learners. I think the other really important reason is as staff we make sure we are learning too because without us role modelling us learning it’s not going to be as effective. (SM1)

Increasing attainment in the form of SAT results was not viewed by staff participants as the aim of knowing children well, but acknowledged it as a product of that relationship and children’s physical and emotional engagement in their own learning:

‘The children are quite simply all we think about... putting the child first is the cornerstone of what we do and everything comes from that....we feed off what the children can do, what they need to work on so it is all about them. It’s not about Ofsted or about SAT results really, that happens as a result of making sure the children come first’ (T3)

‘... the more you engage children physically and emotionally in the learning the more rapidly they will learn.’ (SM3)

Within this subtheme the relationship and role modelling between staff and children is seen as key to supporting an understanding of inclusion and how difference is perceived in relation to children valuing the strengths and needs within themselves and others. Encouraging children’s reflection, responsibility and integrity is seen as supporting their emotional intelligence, membership within the school and responsibility as a learner. High expectations are based upon knowing children well, seen as an entitlement, with children encouraged to take risks in their learning as they take on that learning responsibility. Attainment as measured
by SATs, is seen as resulting from this process as opposed to being the aim that remains focused upon transforming the lives of each child beyond those attainment points.

4.1.3 ‘Me’

‘Me’, a personal pronoun was selected as the title of the subtheme for its emphasis as a subject pronoun. In the same way as ‘I’ represented the child as the subject of academic consideration within the results in 4.1.1, ‘Myself’ acknowledged a child’s emotional learning in 4.1.2, ‘Me’ focuses upon the child as a creative, active and responsible agent in that learning.

During the interviews when staff participants were asked what they considered the term inclusion to mean they referred to the process of inclusion as involving the activation of children’s creative and independent thinking skills. These skills were seen as valuable in supporting children to overcome the difficulties they would undoubtedly experience as part of any learning process where high expectations were held. Inclusion was regarded as the confident process of risk taking within learning as opposed to being judged solely on the end result in the form of attainment.

‘We must not protect children from the barriers and challenges of learning, we must teach them to overcome them and enjoy that process.’ (SM3)

T1 explained how the longer term benefits for learning were more important than short term lesson success, particularly if achieved through adults virtually completing the task on the behalf of children. Active problem solving for children was seen as relevant, with adults spending time facilitating the learning of skills early within the learning process, rather than focusing heavily upon task completion:

‘I see it that they have to learn how to want to do it themselves and I think that is so key... Yesterday we had a lesson where they had to just log on, we were going to navigate our way to a web site. We had half an hour to do this and at the end of the lesson I still had children still trying to log on which really sounds quite mean but yes it was the first time, I said to my support staff today we are not going to step in and what we can do is give them the tools, but at no point are we going to type their name in for them. We are going to show them what to do and then it is really up to them. I still had two children trying to log on at the end of the lesson. I think you have got to, as how are you going to problem solve if someone always steps in and does it for you? I think I had five children who managed to get onto the right website, so for me they have to find things out for themselves. I am there to absolutely facilitate it but we have to create our learners to be problem solvers and to be independent thinkers and I try to adopt that. It doesn’t make my life any easier and I can’t say at the end of the lesson we all got onto the right page and copy and pasted a picture but in the end it’s not just about tick that box, what’s the point if I have done it for them. That’s how I see learning in my class.’ (T1)
‘It’s not my job to stand there in the front and impart knowledge. I see it that they have to learn how to want to do it themselves and I think that is so key… I am there to absolutely facilitate it but we have to create our learners to be problem solvers and to be independent thinkers and I try to adopt that. (T1)

I like to think of myself as a facilitator more than anything rather than a teacher, … you can’t just be standing in the front, all that kind of old fashioned stuff, blurring out what you are teaching hoping it all sinks in and then going to the table hoping it’s all in there which we know isn’t true.’ (T2)

Developing children to ask questions about their learning was identified by staff participants as important in developing effective learners who could not only problem solve but actively sought learning for themselves:

‘The thing with kids is they are there and they want to learn … to make them a good learner we have got to get them to enjoy learning, be good questioners. I am really, really big on trying to develop that questioning, that is the learner who wants to learn, wants to question, and find out for themselves and not waiting for the teacher to go you can do this and do that.’ (T2)

As I walked into the school something hit me, it felt magical walking up and down everyone saying hello, all the staff being friendly. And the children are all willing to learn, they are here because they want to learn and not because they have to be. They will ask questions, whether they are silly questions, if it’s going to help them. They are not afraid to put their hand up… I don’t think they can help to want to further their knowledge. (TA1)

As in the previous subthemes where the data provided evidence that children were supported in learning through academic and emotional engagement, this theme identified that children’s imagination and self-expression fostered their creative learning, T4 identified that this was at the heart of the school’s success and it was similarly evidenced within the school website.

‘How children learn is as important as what they learn... we must ignite children’s imagination and their active, willing and enthusiastic engagement in their learning’ (School Website)

The staff handbook identifies the non-negotiable expectation that staff will:

‘Provide interesting, exciting and purposeful learning experiences for all children across all subjects.’ (p.16)

In Figure 4.4, C4 appreciated the energy from staff to facilitate this, as well as their emotional engagement, referring to the environment as ‘not boring’ and even ‘creepy’ in a particular area of school:
SM3 reflected how the school valued the children’s perspectives to enhance the creative learning opportunities they offered:

‘We ask the children what they want to do in the topic, so here is the topic, what are we doing to do with it, what do you want to learn, what trips? Obviously we then balance it we can’t just say great lets go to wherever you want to go to because obviously there are budget constraints, the fact that our children’s parents can’t really afford a trip, you can’t put a trip in every term, so there is that to balance and the children are fantastic about coming up with ideas of what they want to do and its getting those children to create those ideas and that is where we are moving to throughout the school.’ (SM3)

Within this subtheme the data provided evidence that staff participants viewed themselves as facilitators of children’s creative learning. Participants regarded inclusion as children’s entitlement to opportunities which engaged, challenged, stimulated and enhanced their imagination and their capacity to problem solve and their freedom to take risks in their learning. High expectations for learning were built upon the belief that children would be activated to be part of the process of their own learning, enjoying the overcoming of challenges whilst also seeking answers in learning through developing an inquiring mind. In doing so, the creative capacity of children and staff were seen as an essential area for learning and inclusion.

4.1.4 ‘We’
‘We’, a personal pronoun was selected as the title of the subtheme for its emphasis as a subject pronoun. In the same way as ‘I’ represented the child as the subject of academic consideration within the results in 4.1.1, ‘We’ focuses upon children as the plural, a collective of learners. The final subtheme of children recognises the emphasis within the interviews that inclusion was seen by staff participants as the process of social learning, developing a community of children where the uniqueness of and differences between children were valued.
and facilitated by empathy. When asked about their understanding of inclusion, T4 reflected directly upon the role of empathy as a key social learning skill in school:

> You could ask any child in this school what is our favourite life skill and they will all say ‘empathy’, they know that it is a huge thing. I think they all know as we have a huge focus on empathy which is a hard skill, it is hard to empathise with people as an adult so to start them at such an early stage in their life of having that conscience. I was reading something, it’s some scientific article, that children don’t have the ability to see something from somebody else’s point of view until 14-16. I wasn’t sure how true that was as there are lots of children who are very emotionally intelligent and they do that, they are incredibly supportive to each other. And even the children you don’t expect who can be a little cheeky you catch them working with someone from the lower ability and they are really supportive and you think oh well. They are not doing that for the teachers’ approval, they are doing that because they have had those positive values instilled in them.

T4 also reflected upon their own personal educational journey with regards to empathy since becoming a teacher:

> ‘I think that [a] focus on empathy is very important and I have learnt a lot, I don’t think I was particularly empathetic until I started teaching, not that I was horrible, I wasn’t very mindful.’ (T4)

SM3 made the link between empathy supporting high expectations of children:

> ‘If you are empathetic towards the needs of children then you know you have to have high expectations because you are doing such a disservice not to enable them to get as close to their potential as you can haven’t you. So I actually think there is a lack of empathy with the molly coddling approach that is over protective, that doesn’t allow them to take risks, that is not doing anybody any good is it?’ (SM3)

Once again, a reference was made to role modelling the expectations of learning behaviour and common values within environments other than school:

> ‘I think it is about how we treat all the children, socially in school, outside school, is so essential for them to learn how to accept that they are all equal. I think we really do focus on that.’ (T1)

During the focus group TA2 agreed with the focus on social learning which was emerging from the data:

> ‘We do a lot of experiences so we see the social progress, with lots of new EAL children because they are able to have those experiences, it not necessarily an academic progress but you can see how they are developing as a child rather than just in terms of what level they are. (TA2)

As already identified in Chapter One, children with diverse cultural backgrounds, languages, and abilities attend Shakespeare School. Five additional full time places within the nursery
were reserved in school for children with SEN and a further two for identified local, social need. With the potential for Academies to select children through the setting of their own admissions policy, Shakespeare School established their inclusive philosophy through the value they place on welcoming all children, including the reservation of school places for those most in need. The admissions policy outlined the school aim:

“We are an inclusive school that welcomes children from all backgrounds and abilities...the level of ability of a child or any special need (apart from statements of SEN or an education and health care plan) that s/he/ may have plays no part in the admissions policy of this school.’ (p.1)

The strategy for welcoming children who do not speak English was explained by T3:

“We have so many people coming to look at our EAL provision, what do we do and how do we do it. We don’t do anything different than we do for other children. We assume they will achieve exactly the same as other children. The language barrier is just a barrier that we will overcome with them. The priority is making sure they are learning, the language will come. We don’t pop them in a room and teach them to say apple, banana, whatever, schools who focus on this are focusing on the wrong things, we focus on their abilities as a student.’

When asked about what the term ‘inclusion’ meant SM1 linked it to the subject of the removal of children and the impact on the feeling of worth and team:

‘Whatever age you are, you want to feel included. Included in a conversation, in everything, and not only to be included but to feel valued. I think it is the same for children. If a child goes out it makes them feel different. Some people would argue that is inclusion but I don’t think it is. Everyone can be included through quality first teaching. Children are part of a team, it’s in everything music, football, everything.’

T1 recognised the value of empathy and the impact publically removing children from class could have on the view children held of themselves, particularly if they already made comparisons with others:

‘They know where they are in the class and I think it just makes it worse to say you are the six who can count to ten, out you go.’(T1)

Children working together and collaborating in learning was recognised as supporting social learning, difference was seen from the perspective of diversity:

‘It is very important for them to talk about their ideas and collaborate with others.’ (T3)

‘If you have a group of learners, adults included, who are learning together that is inclusion because no one is taking away from that. I personally don’t accept EAL as a barrier, SEN as a barrier, it’s not a barrier, it’s a different type of learning.’ (SM2)
T4 summed up the value of the ‘allness’ of the children in school:

‘Everyone is in the same boat, we don’t have otherness, we have a collective’.

Shakespeare School’s inclusion policy identified the aim for the school was to be an inclusive school and identified that: ‘equality of opportunity must be a reality for our children’ (p.1). Each child was seen as valued. During the first staff training day of the new school year a staff handbook was shared with new and established teachers. This reminder of the ‘ways of the school’ included a table of professional as well as teaching and learning expectations. When talking about children the use of ‘all’ as a precursor throughout the non-negotiables, already referred to within this theme, established the focus on the school’s belief in the collective, the entirety of children, as well as expectations of staff to support equality of opportunity for each of them.

‘Remember we are here for the children, everything we do should be for their best interest regardless of personal views.

Have high expectations of all children, each and everyone [sic] one of them is capable of great things.’ (p.16)

The data from this subtheme identified a school philosophy of inclusion that appreciated all children as members of society within school, promoting the benefits of coexistence and social, collaborative learning together as a team. The children’s photographs contained the pronoun we, and within Figure 4.5 demonstrate an awareness of the social learning taking place. Staff participants recognised the values of empathy and belonging, the importance of all children to be present, to be welcomed and included within all lessons in order to learn. Difference in this sense was seen as diversity, with all children valued equally and high expectations supported by the social skill of staff empathy. In this sense empathy was regarded as facilitating social justice and opportunities, which brings the theme of Children back full circle to the focus of ‘I’.
4.1.5 Theme One summary

The theme Children presented the school's philosophy and participants understanding of inclusion and progress. The relationship this has to school practice will be provided in Theme Two and to staff role modelling and leadership in Theme Three. Theme One provided four subthemes, ‘I’, ‘myself’, ‘me’ and ‘we’, each aligned to a central area of learning in support of inclusion and progress, academic, emotional, creative and social learning. This was recognised within the school aim:

'We aim to be central to our culturally diverse community, striving for excellence, enabling our children to achieve their highest creative, social, emotional and academic potential.' (School website)

Three main points arose from this theme and a recognition of the power of education to transform lives, each which will be discussed in Chapter Five. Firstly, the inclusive values and philosophy of Shakespeare School supported their transformational goal and aspirations for all children which led to high expectations for all. Each child was recognised as having the capacity to succeed and develop their learning. This was supported by the context for that transformation through empathetic relationships between the staff and children as well as between children in order that they thrive. It was recognised as important that children were involved in those high expectations, developing children as agents in their own learning and who could problem solve, utilise independent thinking skills and take pleasure in their
responsibility for and of learning. Consideration will be given to the term ‘potential’ as indicated by the school, and discussed further in Chapter Five. Secondly, the school’s inclusive mindset was underpinned by a set of non-negotiable entitlements for all children. They were to be treated fairly, labels of difference rejected, each valued and with the same amount of staff time provided to all children. Children had an entitlement to be known as an individual as well as part of a collective, participating in the full curriculum with a commitment that everything would be done to engage, excite and facilitate their responsibility for learning. Thirdly, difference was not based upon comparison with others, nor seen as a static concept that limited what children could achieve and led to labelling. Differences were recognised and respected across the four central areas of academic, emotional, creative and social learning, valued for developing the whole child and what made a child unique.

The banner headline used on each of the staff training day presentation slides contained the phrase ‘Do you know a place that longs for childhood?’ SM1 explained during the interview that the phrase came from an adviser they worked with some years earlier when they began to consider a creative approach to learning in school. Theme Two, titled ‘The Creative Curriculum’, will look at how the inclusive philosophy of Theme One’s ‘Children’ has been actioned through the curriculum in order to meet the needs of their children so that they can thrive.

4.2 Theme Two - The Creative Curriculum

The creative curriculum was identified by each participant as a key factor in supporting the inclusion and learning progress for all children within the school. Shakespeare school became a National School of Creativity in 2008, developing its own school curriculum. One member of staff described the benefits of this curriculum as:

‘... physically allowing the children to have access to learning, we want to inspire them, enthuse them and thinking at home I want to get back to school because we are going to be learning about this tomorrow.’ (SM2)

In line with the Thematic Analysis process, as described in Chapter Three, the whole data set was analysed and four subthemes with the same central areas of Theme One were identified and named as being part of the curriculum staff discussed. These are presented in Figure 4.6 below:
These four subthemes were identified as: The Curriculum, The Environment, Holistic Intelligences and Pedagogy. Each of these subthemes has been presented in turn and represent the school’s hidden, as well as explicit curriculum.

4.2.1 The curriculum

The Primary National Curriculum (DfE, 2013) identified that:

‘Every state-funded school must offer a curriculum which is balanced and broadly based and which: promotes the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development of pupils at the school and of society, and prepares pupils at the school for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of later life.’ (p.5)

Prior to its conversion to an academy in September 2014, Shakespeare school utilised the National Curriculum as part of its creative curriculum which the school had developed following the publication of the government document Excellence and Enjoyment (DfES, 2004). Within the data, the school website and an example lesson plan, seen in Figure 4.7 identified that the school had subsequently replaced the National Curriculum within their creative curriculum with the framework from the Cambridge Primary Review (CPR) instead, (Alexander et al., 2010). Figure 4.7 provides an example of a week’s planning for ‘Language, Oracy and Literacy’ (LOL). Rather than the eleven subjects as identified in the Primary National Curriculum the school adopted the CPR’s eight domains of learning. Aligned to the philosophy of the school in Theme One regarding children’s entitlements, the domains of the CPR were seen as supporting coherence between learning, whilst also providing breadth and entitlement to the full curriculum without an over emphasis on core and non-core curriculum subjects. As part of their curriculum Shakespeare School created and added an additional strand of digital
media to the original domains of: Arts and Creativity, Citizenship and Ethics, Faith and Belief, Language Oracy and Literacy, Mathematics, Physical and Emotional Health, Place and Time and Science and Technology.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term: Autumn</th>
<th>LGt: What skills could I use to develop a story?</th>
<th>Topic Focus: Be Sesem The Cat in the Hat</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit Page: Story</td>
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<td>Friday</td>
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<td>What to teach...</td>
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<td>Understanding a Story</td>
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<td>Verbalising the story. Speak it.</td>
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<td>How to teach...</td>
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<td>Learning Question: Introduce the children to the Week of story writing. Explain that to write a story effectively we need to be able to structure our story.</td>
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<td>Structure: Explain the structure of the children using the following images: Provide the children with the image of bugs. Explain that we can have lots of ideas to make a story - like we can have lots of legs, bricks. But if we put our ideas together quickly, without thought, we would get... (bad image) however if we put our ideas together in a structure we could build something interesting.</td>
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<td>Inspire: Position the children around the carpet like a cinema with their chairs. The children need to be able to listen to the story that is presented to them from an audio-taped CD on the IWB. Analyse favourite parts of the story and see how they relate to the story that we have just heard.</td>
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<td>Understanding: Repeat the story again. Ask the children at their tables to write down what happens in the story. Write a list of the events the children brainstorm on the IWB.</td>
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<td>Application: Children work in teams of 4. Can the children create a drama piece showing what has happened in the story?</td>
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</table>

Figure 4.7 Example of planning for Year 1 Language, Oracy and Literacy

The school website acknowledged that Shakespeare School was a Cambridge Primary Review Trust Alliance school, subscribing to the aims for primary education: to meet the needs and capacity of the child as an individual, in relation to others and the wider world as well as developing what children know, understand and can do. The CPR notes that children should explore their understanding of the curriculum utilising what Alexander et al., (2010) refer to as:

‘... amazement, perplexity, curiosity, discovery, invention, speculation, fantasy, play and linguistic agility’. (p.257)

The philosophy of Shakespeare School within Theme One is aligned to the framework aims and domains of the CPR. However, the successful impact of the school’s own curriculum
approach, referred to by the research participants as the Creative Curriculum, had already been noted within Ofsted's inspection report in 2012, prior to it joining the CPR School Alliance:

‘Central to the school’s success is the curriculum. The school has worked hard to develop it over the past few years and now provides a rich learning environment that immerses pupils in themed topics... The stimulating and distinctive curriculum means that pupils want to come to school to experience what the school community commonly known as truffle moments.’ (p.8)

Whilst the curriculum policy did not identify what the school's creative curriculum was, information was found within the data. The creative curriculum was recorded as a ‘fully immersive approach to teaching’, prioritising each child's entitlement to:

‘... quality, breadth and balance in their learning through a creative approach that engages both staff and children’ (School website).

The website reported that topics were well thought out and cohesive, planned with the dual purpose of capturing children’s imagination and delivering curriculum content. The school website noted that a topic must appear in more than literacy lessons and tenuous links to other subjects were to be avoided; thereby, avoiding the topic receiving greater priority than the learning it was there for. The topic was required to have a storyline to engage children to ensure that meaningful cross curricular links were made, in order that connections between learning were established. Memorable experiences, referred to by the school as truffle moments, appeared as key to the storyline of the topic, and were seen to enhance children’s learning. These truffle moments were designed to immerse the children, providing as close a first-hand, imaginative experience as possible, engaging them physically and emotionally in learning, supporting them to talk, understand and use that learning. These practices are recognised as the functioning of the school’s philosophy for children in Theme One. An example from the school website has been paraphrased in Figure 4.8 below:
During the interviews SM3 expanded further on the truffle moments, the utilisation of engaging children emotionally and physically to support not only their inclusion in learning, but children’s capacity to learn:

‘Our curriculum has been based upon memorable experiences, we call them truffle moments, those actually are developing children much more rapidly than a class based experiences, although some may be class based experiences, so the more you use the outdoors the more you engage children physically and emotionally in the learning the more rapidly they will learn. Especially children from mainly the impoverished backgrounds that haven’t had all these experiences, when you are filling that gap in their lives our environment with all the corridors, the shire outside, the school trips are continually giving them opportunity to talk.’ (SM3)

The school had created the curriculum approach in order to support their children, within their catchment area. During the interviews staff participants noted the impact high levels of deprivation in the area could have if children were expected to access experiences from outside school in order to draw upon them in their learning within school.

‘... they don’t get these experiences in their home life so because quite often their home life consists of front and back garden so they go to school each day and that is about it. So the more experiences we can give them the better.’ (SM1)

One of the purposes therefore of the creative curriculum was aimed at filling that gap in children’s experiences in order to support their learning.

‘Because those children don’t experience things like the seaside, they know nothing about the beach so what are you going to do with those children that haven’t maybe been there? It’s about getting them to experience it, bring it to them.’ (T2)
Utilising an understanding of how children learn, as noted in Theme One, staff participants explained during the interviews the importance of the first hand and meaningful experiences the curriculum provided:

‘The themes help them to understand. So for example at the moment we are doing Harry and his bucket full of dinosaurs. So they look at the bucket and the ten dinosaurs and have to share them. It’s not just dots on a page or white board, they have the physical experience. With literacy when they do experiences it’s all visual, they watch it, listen to it, talk about it, take it all in and go back to write about it rather than being told sitting there on the carpet, fiddling, just dozing off somewhere. They are all engaged, the learning is going on.’ (TA1)

The curriculum was seen as providing opportunities for, as well as benefits to, the involvement of children in their own learning, a value identified in Theme One:

‘They (the children) are involved in it (learning), they are part of it, it’s all about them. They still have to write a paragraph, they do it in something they really believe in.’ (T3)

‘If children experience something, they can understand it. It is not about guess what the teacher wants.’ (T4)

The school’s Curriculum Policy reported that the school curriculum was developed to enable children to acquire a positive mindset for learning. The aspiration being:

‘Children will grow into positive, responsible people, who can work and co-operate with others while developing knowledge and skills, so they can achieve their true potential (The Curriculum Policy, p.1).

The school’s Ofsted report, when recognising that the curriculum was central to the school’s success, cites a parent who wrote:

‘I can honestly say my son never wants to miss a day.’ (p.8)

SM1 observed that the curriculum and breadth of experiences directly supported children’s progress and emphasised the central position of children within it, as seen in Theme One:

‘So our curriculum has had a huge impact on the progress children make. It gets them engaged in the learning to allow them to enjoy an experience which is based around learning... The curriculum is immersive and it is a child based experience so in all the learning the children come first. The whole school is set up for children.’ (SM1)

The power of education to transform lives had been identified in Theme One, the school curriculum was mentioned by staff as providing the opportunities to support that philosophy:
'It (the curriculum) enables them (the children), by giving them life experiences. We are measured on our SATS results but far outweighing that is our ability, our drive, our focus to enable the children to have the best crack at life as possible.’ (SM2)

The school’s creative curriculum was seen as enabling cross curricular learning, providing a broader experience than a one hour single subject lesson. Skills and knowledge practised and gained in one subject were applied in other subjects. This approach was in line with the assessment policy and their focus on mastery of knowledge that will be outlined later in the chapter under ‘high expectations’. T4 provided an example during an interview:

‘... in place and time [a CPR domain] maybe they need to be using their paragraph writing skills to access the task I am asking them to do, or they might need to use their ordering or scientific skills’.

When asked why the children do so well in school SM1 responded:

‘The main thing is the curriculum and how all the learning links together.’

T4 identified that this not only avoided creating artificial barriers between subjects, but supported children to utilise and apply understanding and skills between subjects, making useful connections between learning whilst supporting progression in learning. The staff handbook highlights that the cross curricular, themed topic approach is expected to integrate learning and provides a number of examples. Opportunities to promote the principles of RE as well as school values were encouraged to be taken whenever possible, supporting children to: ‘become responsible citizens and confident individuals’ (Staff handbook, p.21). This practice supports the school philosophy of ‘we’ and children’s social learning, as seen in Theme One. As part of the teaching and learning in the Citizen and Ethics domain, all children have four ‘pause for thought’ sessions each week. The staff handbook pointed out that these should be linked to the topic and a class, city, national or worldwide issue; therefore, reflecting the aims of the CPR. There was a focus on children understanding their local area, including the historic as well as potential future influences for the world the children are and would be part of. It also highlighted learning opportunities that could be supported by visits undertaken during the topic.

In summary, Shakespeare School had developed a creative curriculum that focused on providing an entitlement for their children to the full breadth of the curriculum, arranging it thematically and through the CPR domains to enhance links between learning. The school’s children, who were acknowledged as having high levels of experience deprivation from outside school that supported school based learning, were engaged and immersed emotionally and physically in cross curricular learning, utilising first hand, imaginative and shared experiences.
This was seen as not only filling the experience gap, but also increasing the rate at which children could learn. The school had chosen the CPR to support their thematic curriculum, and for the longer term needs of their children had adapted it to provide an additional digital strand and pause for thought sessions. Both additions supported a focus on understanding and developing children as local, national and world wide citizens. The school’s curriculum was evidence of how the philosophy for children in Theme One was transferred into practice.

4.2.2 The environment

The school environment was very much seen as being part of the creative curriculum, supporting learning. Ofsted recorded that the school corridors were:

‘... awash with stimulating scenes, life size models, artefacts and memorabilia’
(p.8).

T1 simply described the corridors as ‘amazing’. Within the school website the Principal identified the initial focus for developing the areas within the school gates:

‘We had the idea to create an environment that makes you long for childhood.’
(School website)

Within the school, the themed corridors were created in line with the themes of the topics the children were learning about. The corridors went beyond that of simply display; they were recreations of each theme and an experience in themselves, providing creative and visible learning opportunities. They were produced so that children could utilise their imagination, and be as near as possible to the real thing. A cloakroom was converted into the common room at Hogwarts, an outside boiler house into an Egyptian tomb and a corridor space into a farm, with another into a Tudor street. Amongst many others there was a jungle, The Shire, Andy’s bedroom from Toy Story, a Victorian classroom and an Anderson Shelter. The school website recorded that:

‘These areas are used as group work areas and places to stimulate the children’s speaking and writing. Apart from being simply very child friendly areas to sit and read or write in, they are designed to enhance the children’s learning experiences.’
(School website)

TA1 reported during the interviews that:

‘The corridors around school have a big impact because they [children] have got the visual learning support; they can look around corridors and relate to topics’.

The Children’s Research Project acknowledged the impact of the school environment for them, with examples provided in Figure 4.9 below:
Figure 4.9 suggest the impact the environment, topics and the teachers had on children when asked what made them proud of their school. The Ofsted Report in 2012 records the reflection of Year 6 children when they learnt about World War I whilst sitting in a bunker at school, and the longer term impact of that learning:

‘... overwhelmingly say their shell shock experience when learning about life in the trenches during World War I is something they will never forget.’ (p.8)

The philosophy of Theme One was actioned through creation and utilisation of the school environment for all children. The environment was seen as a valuable, long term, learning resource to stimulate talk as part of learning. It also utilised children’s own senses, employing their creative, emotional and physical engagement in learning within a shared experience.
4.2.3 Holistic Intelligences

The school’s curriculum policy identified the need for children to develop key skills for life-long learning. Up until September 2016 the key skills utilised within the school had been drawn from those identified by the National Curriculum which included: communication, application of number, information technology, working with others, improving own learning and performance as well as problem solving. At the start of the academic year in 2016/17 the key life skills were revisited and a framework referred to as the Holistic Intelligences (HI) was launched to all staff and children. Identified in the staff handbook, the focus of the framework was on encouraging learning and the long term goal of preparing children for their roles as caring and active citizens in the 21st Century.

‘After years of experimenting with different methods to develop the life skills of children, we have been able to create a framework that will support the needs of the children to compete and develop within the 21st Century... [it] enables each child to be recognised in all aspects of their school and personal life. This means that the traditional thinking to reward only academic success is a theory of the past. This allows those children who do struggle in academic surroundings to be recognised for the intelligence they offered.’ (Staff handbook, p.1)

The creative, emotional, social and academic intelligences of the framework were seen as ways of enabling each child at Shakespeare School to develop all the resources they required for learning, in the same way that Claxton et al (2015) referred to his model as building learning power. Academic intelligence was identified as academic ways of looking at things that as with creative, emotional and social learning could be applied to any curricular area. Therefore, this framework enabled children’s learning in lessons to not only focus on developing the curriculum outcome but also the Holistic Intelligence. The Assistant Principal with the responsibility for Teaching and Learning developed this framework and an overview can be seen in Figure 4.10 below.
Since the introduction of the framework, HIs were focused upon by teachers when preparing lesson plans, see figure 4.7, and shared with children in teaching slides, see figure 4.11 below. All children were provided with objectives from the framework to focus on, practise, recognise and be rewarded for demonstrating in and out of the classroom. This was regardless of their performance in the curriculum subject. The strengths of children, as well as areas of development, were considered as part of the development of a whole child as a lifelong learner, and regarded as supporting their capacity to learn.
As the interviews with staff participants and initial data analysis took place in the year before the introduction of the Holistic Intelligence framework, it was evident that it had been developed as part of the already established school philosophy as already recorded within Theme One and presented within Theme Three. The central areas of academic, emotional, creative and social learning were evidenced in advance of the framework introduction, with children and staff utilising the language prior to its confirmation. The school had not chosen a similar approach by using an already published package, such as building learning power produced by Claxton et al. (2015), nor had they created one from the CPR twelve educational aims. The HI framework was authentic and bespoke for the children in Shakespeare School, developed as a result of an existing philosophy and ‘years of experimenting with different methods to develop life skills’ (School handbook, p.1). The framework recognised not only the development of the whole child as agents in their learning but also the notion of difference, with each child considered as unique with valued strengths in differing areas. Shorter term academic success was established as not the single priority beyond developing a broader set of skills. These were seen to be required for the children’s longer term prospects:

‘Everybody is good at something is very apparent here as we highlight and ask children to model those intelligences to one another regardless of their ability in each of the subjects. We want to celebrate and recognise the skills children use to complete tasks outside of the classroom. The Holistic Intelligences should provide a strong foundation of skills that can follow a child throughout life. By identifying and acknowledging the skills daily, we are making the children aware that there is more to life than just academic success. To be successful a broad skill set is needed to challenge for the very best employment opportunities in a very competitive environment.’ (Staff handbook, p.1)

4.2.4 Pedagogy
The results of Themes One and Two support a focus within Shakespeare School of developing the whole child as an individual, as well as part of the class and school community. The philosophy of Theme One recognised within Theme Two that all children were entitled to access the full breadth and balance of the school’s creative curriculum together. This was achieved through its stimulating, physically and emotionally engaging thematic organisation and presentation, considered as having the capacity to increase the rate of children’s learning. The data set identified how all children were included together within those curriculum lessons in order to support that progress; it resulted in the subtheme titled ‘pedagogy’. The school website identified the pedagogical aim of the Shakespeare School was to:

‘Develop a pedagogy of repertoire, rigour, evidence and principle, rather than mere compliance, with a particular emphasis on fostering the high quality classroom talk which children’s development, learning and attainment require’. (School Website)
The website provided the following definition of pedagogy:

‘Pedagogy is the science and art of education, the method and practice of teaching: simply put – the way in which we teach.’ (School website).

Within the staff handbook a non-negotiable laid out the entitlement for children to have access to high quality lessons, with the expectation that staff have a responsibility to provide:

‘Consistently provide good to outstanding lessons in all subject areas: the children deserve your best at all times.’ (Staff handbook, p.16)

Teaching within the school was highly regarded by parents and carers who completed the school survey. Ninety eight percent of those who completed the school survey declared that they agreed or strongly agreed with the statements that their child was well taught at Shakespeare school and that their child made good progress. All children within a class were planned for within the same lesson and staff participants referred to this practice when discussing inclusion, naming the approach taken as Quality First Teaching (QFT).

QFT as a pedagogical approach originated in the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) guide to personalised learning and was reintroduced through the notion of ‘waves’ or stages of intervention within the National Strategies (DCSF, 2008). The key features of QFT can be seen in figure 4.12 below:

- Highly focused lesson design with sharp objectives
- High demands of pupil involvement and engagement with their learning
- High levels of interaction for all pupils
- Appropriate use of teacher questioning, modelling and explaining
- An emphasis on learning through dialogue, with regular opportunities for pupils to talk both individually and in groups
- An expectation that pupils will accept responsibility for their own learning and work independently
- Regular use of encouragement and authentic praise to engage and motivate pupils

Figure 4.12 Features of Quality First Teaching (DCSF, 2008, p.12)

Wave One was seen as inclusive quality first teaching, whereby high quality teaching based upon the features above would reduce the number of children requiring intervention through wave two additional support or wave three removal. When asked what inclusion meant SM3 referred to QFT using the analogy of a stair case, and the need for personalised learning in the form of curriculum and teaching to appropriately respond to the needs of all children:

‘Initially you look at inclusion and you want to deliver something fairly similar to all children, but we know that is not possible. So you go one step up a stair case and adjust it slightly. If that doesn’t work you go up to the next step and so on. The ultimate at the top of the stairs would be an entirely different activity separate
from the rest of the class and you really don’t want to get there. You have got to give that access to the children as best you can, there might be religious, cultural needs that you can cater for, special needs in terms of their learning, so whatever way they [teachers and children] have got to find their way... I think children fail the education system not because of their lack of ability but because the curriculum and the approach is not suited to them. I think inclusion is when you suit everything to the needs of the children ... I think if we are talking about the way a school looks, feels, tastes, smells it is when you walk in there is a certain ethos and feel about the place where learning is taking place and if it is going to feel, taste, sound right then it is inclusive because the children’s needs are being met.’ (SM3)

The needs of children SM3 refers to were explored in Theme One and are seen as supporting the school’s motivation in creating a unique and creative curriculum for them. As QFT is regarded as the high quality offer for all children which utilises personalised teaching and learning (DCSF, 2008), it does not explore how the features are translated into practice, particularly with an aim of achieving good or outstanding learning and teaching. As this was an entitlement of children within Shakespeare School, shared as a staff non-negotiable, analysis of the data was undertaken with two subthemes identified of high expectations and lesson planning. A summary of the features of Shakespeare School practice is provided in Figure 4.17, prior to the summary of Theme Two.

4.2.4.1 High expectations

As seen in Theme One and recognised by staff, it was non-negotiable that all staff would have high expectations of all children:

‘Have high expectations of all children, each and everyone [sic] one of them is capable of great things.’ (Staff handbook, p.16)

High expectations were observed in practice by the Ofsted team and noted within the school’s report (2012):

‘Characteristic of all lessons observed by inspectors are the high expectations and excellent relationships that exist between adults and pupils at all levels.’ (p.6)

During the interviews when discussing their understanding of inclusion and why children made such progress, high expectations and challenge were mentioned as important features of pedagogical practice by all staff participants. Those expectations were seen as supporting children’s long term resilience and skills of learning, as noted within the school website:

‘Nobody succeeded in sport or academia without pain and challenge. Dealing with pain and challenge are of course essential ingredients in developing a love of learning. If we deny children these things then we are doing them a great disservice and are failing to prepare them for a life of successful learning.’ (School website)
During the interviews staff participant linked high expectations and resilience with the aspirations for children’s futures. It appeared that the beliefs identified within Theme One were actioned through the expectations that all children can and will make progress in all aspects of learning, not just academic. T3 observed:

*Because it is best for them (children) for their future, for going into a job, it sets them up properly for secondary school, and hopefully they will be faced with certain challenges and they will persevere and keep going and still achieve and have those high expectations. We do talk about those high expectations not only in maths and literacy but in citizenship and ethics, high expectation of your own behaviour and your morals, things like your life skills as well.* (T3)

When asked what high expectations looked like in the school, one teacher explained using the notion of challenge within a game as an analogy:

*‘We say it’s more than what it looks like we say it’s something that when you go in you can see, feel, hear and taste it. Everyone is really engaged in their learning wanting to do better and being challenged to do better. So, I heard once this really good version that it’s like one of those silly games you might play on face book or the play station. They [players] never succeed because every time they reach the next level they go onto another level that is harder. So, as soon as they have reached what they think is the beacon of the challenge they love it, they know the next level is going to be harder. So we try to take the same approach in school you never actually finish you always get to that point when you get to a level and then are challenged to go a little bit further.’* (SM1)

During the interviews T2 and T3 provided examples of how challenging children to learn more, arises through the positive pedagogical process of supporting a child’s continued focus on developing their own learning so that in turn children challenge themselves as part of their responsibility as a learner.

*‘It is about high expectation, if a child shows me their work and it is alright I don’t go that’s a good bit of work, I’ll say that’s an OK piece of work but we could make it more successful if we do this and this. What do you think you can do to it, why don’t you do that and they bring you the work again and you are like wow this is so much better, they have their first draft, they have built on it and then thought about it more and produced something better, that’s when you know.’* (T2)

*‘A child may think they will be rubbish at an activity, they go and try it and actually they excel and they can move themselves right up the challenges...children have a voice, they are not just told this is what you are going to do and this is how you are going to do it. They are given every opportunity to develop and question and prove to us that they can do it.’* (T3)

As part of the school’s planning a series and range of learning challenges are built into each lesson. The complexity of the challenges are developmental, increasing in complexity and
outcome. The full range of options available of how a child can apply their learning are explicitly open to all children to choose their own level of challenge; therefore children are not assigned challenges based upon teacher’s preconceived expectations. An example of how this is supported in practice can be seen in Figure 4.13 below and explained further by T1:

![Figure 4.13 Lesson challenges, open to all children](image)

‘Inclusion is also not putting your own values and expectations onto that child, but making sure that everybody is included into the classroom so they can progress, learn and take ownership of that as well. One thing that I have definitely learned over the past year is to try to not put my expectations of where a child is going to get to at the end of the lesson to shape their learning. So if I think like that is what I think they should be able to do by the end of the lesson, that’s OK and not a bad thing to think about when planning, but really our idea of challenges here is quite open. It’s no ‘right this activity will mean they can do that’, it’s if you give a child a challenge they might be able to do that but they also might be able to do that as well. It’s quite open ended. There have been so many situations, and I shouldn’t really say this, but I have been surprised by some of the work that some of the children have produced and that’s not because of expectations because I have very high expectations of everyone I have in the class but it’s just because they have thought about something that I didn’t think about or that they have seen it in a totally different way and that is brilliant because they have taken their challenge or thought and they have rolled with it. To me inclusion is about making sure you give every child a fair chance to progress and learn. That is the most important thing really.’ (T1)

High expectations and developing a growth mindset within children was recognised by participants as supporting inclusion in practice:

‘So, it’s partly the high expectations and aspirations of the children, we really want every child to achieve, so every child is pushed to achieve… inclusion is too often thought of as just the SEN children or the higher ability children but inclusion is every child. And we see every child as a child and not a label, not from Slovakia, has autism, gifted and able, labels don’t give anything to the children, I don’t think there is any benefit at either end, because children with autism, or whatever it is,
T4 talked of the frustration when staff in other schools or parental expectations held children back from learning, limiting not only the learning opportunities provided but also the level of challenge taken by children:

‘One thing that really irritates me in a lot of schools, one of my most hated phrases that comes out of some teachers mouths is, ‘oh they are only year one’, don’t say they are only year one they can still do things that we are doing in Key Stage Two. ‘They can’t use our movies, they are only year one’ – have you tried? It’s really frustrating. The other one is, I am not sure if I should say this as its probably controversial, but as parents that frustrates me sometimes, it’s yes I know but you (parents) are not doing your children any favours by molly coddling, whatever the expression is or mothering them, they can be pushed on. It’s not being cruel to them; it’s letting them know that they can do great things, and giving them the opportunities to do great things and that is going to have a positive impact in life.’

(T4)

SM3 made reference to more recent research development supporting higher expectations of children than had previously been considered:

‘...what you are looking on now is that a baby born [sic] with a fully formed brain so that therefore their development and their learning and their knowledge is dependent upon simply on their previous learning. So with the assistance of a more capable person a child can learn skills that go way beyond the Piaget stages of development or level of maturity and from a very early age they are capable of complex thoughts and develop very rapidly just simply dependent upon their input and experience.’

(SM3)

SM2 summed up how expectations were not lowered as a result of children facing difficulties in learning, but informed the support provided to empower them to continue to learn:

‘I am there to ensure they are aspiring to the best possible learning they can do. I am empathetic to the different ways that can be achieved. That’s the end of story really... yes it is challenging we need the professional courage to make people feel a little uncomfortable to focus on the longer term game. Children need to feel unhappy at some point in their learning otherwise it is too easy. They need to feel some struggle to get that emotional gratification at the end of it. My empathetic response is I see you really struggled with that but I am not going to lower my expectations as a result but here is how I can help to facilitate and to scaffold. I am not going to do it for you that is over to you.’

(SM2)

During the interviews teachers recognised their responsibility to model, as adults that they too were continuing to learn within lessons with the children. SM1 noted:
‘As staff we make sure we are learning too, because without us role modelling us learning it’s not going to be as effective… we say to the staff there is nothing wrong in saying in a lesson you don’t know, children come through school often with the thought that the teacher knows everything. And that is completely wrong, so when we set up a lesson it might be that we make a mistake, quite often it is that mantle of the fool type idea and they (children) play along with it. If we are starting some work on plants for example. We (teachers) say I have been away and done my research and I have found out what plants are made up of and I have brought some plants in with me, let’s look at the flowers and we can discover this together. Sometimes when a child asks you a question, and because you never know what question they are going to ask you it really important that if you are not sure you say ‘I don’t know should we look on the ipad’ rather than what is quite common of ‘that’s a good question why don’t you find it out on the ipad’, as you are sort of saying I do know but I want you to find it out. It’s really important they know we are learning as well. Whenever we go on courses we will quite often say the next day (to the children) we have been learning about a new way of teaching maths we are going to practise today, so it’s just being open about it.’ (SM1)

Staff were also seen as challenged to ensure the academic learning progression of each child, with the overview of the levels of learning provided in Figure 4.14. Progression was seen as developing from a beginning phase of understanding to mastery, where knowledge could be applied from one area of learning to another area. Expectations for the progression in children’s learning were linked to teachers’ accountability and made explicit within the staff handbook:

‘Children who are embedding or mastering in their previous year group are expected to make 4 stages of progress and Children who are below embedding in their previous year group are expected to make 5 or more stages of progress.’ (Staff handbook, p.24)
High expectations of behaviour for learning, as an element of pedagogy, was also prevalent within the school’s documentation. The Ofsted report in 2012 noted the link between positive relationships, behaviour and learning:

‘Typically, pupils’ high quality behaviour in lessons means that learning can proceed smoothly and without disruption; it’s a consequence of the outstanding relationships that exist within school…. A strong feature of the school is the way that members of the school community, made up of diverse cultural backgrounds, operate harmoniously together, based on a sense of trust and mutual respect.’ (p.7)

The results of Theme One identified the importance of knowing children as individuals; this was acknowledged again when developing high behaviour expectations that lead to learning. T4 saw the positive relationships, as acknowledged by Ofsted, resulted from the engaging lessons taught:

‘I would say it’s very operant for a child, seeing a child as an individual rather than a statistic. So because we get to know the children well we are [have] very firm behaviour expectations but at the same time we have fun engaging in lessons so they want to come and want to learn and because of that we do build strong relationships with the children.’ (T4)

Appearing in the staff handbook, the school wide behaviour approach embedded the rights of children to be treated with dignity and respect. Titled ‘firm but fair, not strict and scary’ (p.14), the behaviour approach was succinct at one page long, with clear do’s and do nots for staff to follow regarding behaviour. The do nots included amongst other things: not raising voices, shouting, and using sarcasm. The do’s pointed staff to use praise and the school wide approach for happy and sad sides of the board. The school training day presentation also included an activity to support a common understanding of what merited placing a child’s name on either side of the board. There was a clear and progressive line of sanctions and consequences from a name appearing once on the sad side of the board, five minutes off break /lunch, to permanent exclusion. All incidents of racism and bullying had to be investigated thoroughly, listening to all children ‘in an attempt to get to the truth’ (Staff handbook, p.14). The inclusion within the handbook of this point may have been in response to the parent/carer survey conducted by the school. This survey indicated that whilst 97% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that there was a good standard of behaviour in school and 99% reported that their child felt safe in school, 84% of parents/carers agreed or strongly agreed that the school dealt with any cases of bullying effectively. This was the lowest score recorded in the survey. 38% of responses disagreed and 12.7% identified that they ‘did not know’ if the school dealt with cases effectively.
The staff non negotiables, listed within the handbook on page 16, were explicit regarding staff expectations: ‘Model the behaviour you expect and always challenge behaviours that do not fit the [name of school]’s way.’ T1 provided an example during the interviews:

‘I always speak to my children how I expect them to speak back to me. I would never be rude to a child or belittle a child. You have to model the behaviour you want from the children.’ (T1)

The whole school approach to behaviour was noted by SM2 during the interviews:

‘We expect the children to behave and they behave, we don’t have that many behavioural issues because of our expectations. They know if they misbehave there are consequences that are followed through and that is exactly the same from year one to year six in terms of behavioural policy’ (SM2)

The data showed that the school belief that education can transform children’s learning and lives has informed school practice of high expectations for all children across all areas of learning. This was regarded as developing children’s resilience as learners and taking responsibility for their own learning. Challenge was built into teaching and learning, with a range of opportunities provided to practise and demonstrate learning; furthermore, those opportunities and challenges were open for all children to select. Expectations were not lowered for any children, as difference between children was not based upon a limiting preconception of learning for some children. High expectations of behaviour for learning and a school wide system of rewards and sanctions, based upon respecting the dignity of children, were seen as positioning a child with entitlements as well as responsibilities for learning and working with others. The accountability of staff for children’s learning progress, as well as the expectation of staff to model and understand the value of life-long learning as teachers, has been recognised and is referred to again within Theme Three.

4.2.4.2 Planning for learning

Lesson plans, as seen in Figure 4.7, were produced across the age phases in an agreed format and shared within the year groups. This was seen by staff participants as supporting consistency, and ensured all plans were coherent and explicit about the information seen as essential across the lesson, to support what the school identified as good to outstanding teaching and learning. The format of the plan included: the subject and holistic intelligence focus of the lesson, the start to the lesson, what to teach, how to teach, the activities for all groups of learners, the plenary and resources. Planning from previous years is simply not rolled over, as T1 explained:
Whenever we do our planning it is not on a whim, we have our planning and assessing tool and every single subject is broken down into what the children need to be learning. Because I have been planning in other schools where it is just a case of what did we do this week last year? Can we change the date? ... we think about our children now, it is always fresh and always to meet the children’s needs we have now.’ (T1)

T1 identified three main features of planning focused upon in the school, referring to them as the E’s: engage, explore and explain. T1 and T3 shared their reflections:

‘When you are thinking about the lesson you start with engage, what is going to engage them.’ (T1)

We are actually looking at the lesson thinking, what is it they need to, how can we do that in the most interesting way, hands on way, with as much deep learning as possible so they really engage and it drives them (children) forward.’ (T3)

As indicated in the creative curriculum section of the results, there appeared to be a whole school approach which acknowledges the power of emotional, hands on engagement in learning.

‘Teaching and learning arises from the belief that children learn best from first hand experiences that engage children emotionally and physically in their learning.’ (School website)

The presentation to staff during the staff training day emphasised this philosophy and included clips from the Disney Pixar film ‘Inside Out’. The film follows a girl and her family, showing the impact of their inner emotions on their actions. After the film the staff were asked to identify what they had planned for within their own teaching that would challenge the children’s emotions. The purpose of such a challenge being that knowledge and understanding is more likely to be retained when connected to emotion. A reminder was also provided, asking staff to provide teaching that would: ‘… emotionally grab the children. And NOT wrap them in cotton wool.’ (Staff Training Day, slide 36). The focus on engaging children through their emotions and first-hand experiences has already been noted within the philosophy in Theme One and the Creative Curriculum section of this chapter. The practice was now evidenced as a feature of all lesson planning, speeding up children’s involvement in learning. Figure 4.15 provides a creative learning starter activity, assisting children to develop an understanding of the aim of the lesson. In this case it was focused on ingenuity, how to use the context of text and implied ideas to explain the meaning of unknown words.
T1 explained the practical nature of engaging children quickly into learning with the expectation that children would actively participate, take responsibility for their learning and work together to solve problems:

‘When you are thinking about the lesson you start with engage, what is going to engage them So the fact that everything is practical really, really drives that I think to start with is definitely good [sic]. Especially in our maths, I know that maths is one of the school’s key strengths, all the maths learning that takes place is incredibly practical so we will go outside for something if it helps the learning, for example yesterday we were sorting and straight away there was no sitting on the carpet it was over to the children it was right you are going to sort yourselves now into 2 groups, what are you going to do? And I find it so much freer than I have anywhere else so you can put it straight onto the children. So I think the creative curriculum is brilliant, bringing the children in, making it engaging, handing it over to them no matter what age they are, really, really works.’ (T1)

Providing children with responsibility for their learning, in collaboration with others, was also planned for within the element of the lesson referred to as explore by T1:

‘You may want to start with an explore part of the lesson which means straight over to the children. So for example in literacy this morning my children are working on non-fiction text. The books are on the table and children have to start by writing a list in mixed ability groups of everything they can remember about non-fiction text we did yesterday.’ (T1)

The impact of this approach was noted within the school’s Ofsted report (2012):

‘… class teachers and teaching assistants promote high levels of independence by supporting, yet enabling, pupils to think and work things out for themselves. On these and similar occasions, pupils, including disabled pupils and those with special educational needs, made accelerated progress.’ (p.6)

T4 recorded how developing a child to see themselves as a learner also required them to use creative thinking through enquiry and exploration:
‘... we are not teaching them what they are going to learn and then getting them to do an experiment that shows what you have just said to them and then recapping it at the end, it’s all about exploration and experience.’ (T4)

Another feature within the planning was the focus on delivery of a teaching input by the teacher or children. This was referred to by staff as the *explain* element of the lesson, with an example of an accompanying teaching slide provided in Figure 4.16 below:

![Figure 4.16 Lesson planning - explain](image)

The teaching input was identified as being required to be succinct, clear and not lasting too long. As a result more time in a lesson was spent on learning than teaching:

‘The lesson structure is the teaching input should be no more than 10 minutes, because all the research suggests all the children will have switched off after 11 minutes so why bother.’ (SM2)

Throughout the lesson, within school documentation and mentioned by staff participants during the interviews dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2006) is recognised as supporting the teaching and learning conversation between teachers and children. Through its associated features with assessment for learning strategies, the dialogic teaching approach supports the children to emotionally recognise themselves as learners and to develop deep learning opportunities that academically challenge all learners.

The feature of dialogue to support learning was recognised within the CPR and the increased focus within the LOL domain. It was identified by staff as crucial for the progress of all children within the school.

‘Our environment with all the corridors, the shire outside and the school trips we are continually giving them [children] opportunity to talk. So talk has got to be the most important part of literacy, you have got reading, writing and talk and too
often the talk or oracy is forgotten and yet it’s the major factor in children’s development.’ (SM3)

The school website made reference to ‘Outstanding Teaching’ as supported by ‘dialogic teaching approaches to promote higher-order thinking’ (School website). T2 noted how this approach changed the focus from teaching, with its associations of transmitting knowledge, to questioning including discussion in order to support learning:

‘It’s changes the structure of the traditional way of how you teach, instead of at the front you are at the side more, sitting with a group or having the whole class, giving them the opportunity to maybe discuss something, so it might be an image ... it is getting that conversation which children aren’t always great at, discussing their learning. So you get them to talk of the learning, discussing misconceptions.’

SM3 noted that it was important that high quality talk was modelled with a more ‘capable person’ directing that talk. SM3 highlighted the relevance of this for the Early Years practice in school, filling the play and talk experience gap with their children:

‘The more we talk to children, the more elaborate the conversations the better they will develop. Now the key thing, particularly for Early Years practice is that they have to have some direct sort of teaching and instruction as well because that is what you get in a well-rounded upbringing when you are at the shop, visiting the cathedral, the museum or whatever, parents talk a great deal, talk about reading, look at words and things around the shop and in the cathedral and they are getting all that direct teaching and we sort of forget in the Early Years they need that level of input as well as filling the gap in terms of their directed play and play opportunities but with a focus and not just leaving them to it because that is important as well.’ (SM3)

The focus on children’s entitlement to talk and the support for life-long learning was reflected on by T3:

‘It is very important for them [children] to talk about their ideas and collaborate with others. I think it is a weird concept not to have talk in a classroom environment, when you go to work very rarely in the working environment would you be told to go and do that, don’t talk to anyone, I have told you what you need to know, go and sit in a room, don’t say anything and crack on with that activity. You would discuss with your colleagues, with your manager, with your peers, you would do research on line, you would have those same discussions, and I think being able to allow children to talk in any subject is promoting that. They are not alone at the end of the day, it is not a test of how well can you remember it is a test on how well you can adapt to different situations and how you can persevere and challenge yourself but I don’t think you can do that in silence.’ (T3)
Dialogic teaching and learning was regarded as crucial in supporting children’s deeper learning and establishing children to recognise themselves as learners, developing their enjoyment in and enthusiasm for learning further:

‘We are not trying to teach them to repeat knowledge based stuff like you know such and such, to make them a good learner we have got to get them to enjoy learning, be good questioners.’ (T2)

Learning objectives were not utilised within planning or teaching, rather challenging children through learning questions to the application and mastery of learning through an offer of increasingly complex learning activities within lessons. These differentiated and academic learning challenges were based upon the children’s assessed understanding from the previous lesson, with children moving between learning groups within lessons and subjects. As noted earlier the challenges remained open to all children. Teachers and teaching assistants used their assessments, prior to and during the lesson, to challenge children’s learning and raise their expectations of learning. If appropriate, mid task plenary opportunities were built into the planning in order to provide further clarification and challenge for all children. Assessment was therefore summarised within the staff handbook as: ‘Assessment is something we do to teach, not teach to do!’ The school’s Ofsted report in 2012 recorded that:

‘Teachers use assessment information extremely well to plan work that is carefully matched to what pupils already know and what they need to learn next.’ (p.6)

The Ofsted report highlighted that at Shakespeare school the quality of teaching was considered to be outstanding:

‘the quality of teaching is outstanding over time because it leads to highly positive outcomes for pupils, produces high levels of enthusiasm for learning and fosters a determination to succeed’ (p.6).

The subtheme of lesson planning drew together key features of Shakespeare School’s practice based upon the philosophy of Theme One. Inclusive teaching was recognised by staff participants as wave one of QFT. All children were present in lessons, and personalised learning for all children was enabled through an understanding of each child as seen in the subtheme ‘myself’, valuing their emotional engagement with learning. The school’s specialised pedagogy therefore related to all children, an entitlement of all as opposed to a few. Children’s responsibility as learners to challenge and to be challenged in all central areas of learning, not just those related to the academic curriculum in a few subjects, was supported by the features of the school’s practice. This was further supported by an understanding of how children in this school learnt and recognition of the impact of building in experiences, emotions and talk.
to speed up learning. An overview of the pedagogy utilised in planning to support learning was identified in the data, and has been provided in Figure 4.17 below.

- Differentiated high expectation challenges open to all children
- Activating children to learn how to learn academically, emotionally, socially and creatively
- Children and staff model learning to learn
- Connecting learning and applying understanding through developing, embedding and mastering learning
- Activity and exploration based first hand problem solving utilising:
  - Emotional
  - Sensory
  - Risk taking
  - Resilience
  - Independent and collaborative
  - Physical engagement in learning
- Talk
  - Questioning
  - Explaining
  - Collaboration
  - Reflection
  - Feedback to adapt teaching and learning
- Assessment for Learning and knowledge of each child to inform planning, teaching and learning

Figure 4.17 Overview of pedagogy for learning

4.2.5 Theme Two summary

In summary the results identified that Theme Two, The Creative Curriculum, was the school’s created curriculum and pedagogy informed by the philosophy of Theme One. The curriculum and environment responded to the needs of the children attending the school, with the CPR delivered through the school’s thematic approach, providing a full curriculum entitlement for all children. The shared environment and experiences supporting the curriculum were seen as utilising children’s senses, engaging and stimulating their learning. The HI framework was embedded within the curriculum with differences within children’s own learning across academic, emotional, creative and social learning supporting the uniqueness of each child. Academic learning was seen as one area of learning, and with the combination of social, emotional and creative learning all learning was regarded as valuable for the school’s philosophy of the whole child as present in Theme One. All children were included in all lessons, with wave one of QFT recognised as the approach undertaken to ensure this. The data identified that Shakespeare school has developed their own pedagogy for QFT, and utilised it within planning and teaching based upon the philosophy and needs of children as recorded in Theme One. An overview of the school’s pedagogical approaches was provided in Figure 4.17.
The final theme, Theme Three was identified after analysing the data and is titled Leadership. The philosophy for children in Theme One, which informed the practices within Theme Two has much in common with the leadership approaches in Theme Three. All three themes are supported by a joined up approach that utilises the same four central areas of learning: academic, emotional, creative and social learning. High expectations and challenge, as referred to within Themes One and Two, were identified as part of the whole school culture and aimed at transforming lives:

‘We have a strong culture of high expectations, it is the ‘standard above winning,’ and we really like that idea that we are always after the standard above what everyone else is doing, simply because we know the children can do it.’ (SM2)

Transforming lives related to both the children and staff. T4 reflected on what it was like for a teacher to be developed in the same way as they supported children to continue to learn. At the focus group T6 and SM4 confirmed that the toolkit T4 referred to was evidenced in Theme Two:

‘I think it is just like we have high expectations of children there are very high expectations of teachers as well. I think that is right because we are in a very trusted position, we are trusted with a child’s education so it is a huge responsibility. I think there are high expectations of the teachers, but also with that it is always supported it’s not just go away and be amazing it is you are going to be amazing... It’s like we are all going to develop you as individual teachers with a toolkit of activities that you know will get you results’.

4.3 Theme Three - Leadership

Early within the interviews staff participants noted the importance that school leadership, staff consistency of action and staff belief had on the inclusion of children. During analysis of the whole data set a model of leadership at Shakespeare School emerged, as can be seen in Figure 4.18, indicating how and why such collective agreement and action was influenced and enabled. Four leadership themes were identified as facilitating the process of leadership, with SM2 recognising the purpose of leadership as transformational:

‘We lead the adults, we lead the adults to lead the children... I don’t think we are ever entirely happy with what we do, we are always trying to push it, to find a better way of doing things, if we find a really good way we obviously stick with it until we find a better way of doing it.’ (SM2)

The four themes were named as adaptive, distributed, servant as well as ethical and authentic leadership, in recognition of the identified leadership philosophies from the data. Whilst already present within research literature, not all of these leadership philosophies are currently part of the literature which specifically focusses upon educational leadership for inclusion.
However, when interviewed about their understanding of the term inclusion staff participants noted the relevance of these leadership approaches in developing a community that included both children and staff.

Figure 4.18 Theme Three - Leadership

### 4.3.1 Adaptive leadership

Thematic Analysis of the data identified that staff participants recognise that they, as members of the organisation, provide creative ideas and work together to solve problems as part of the school’s transformative approach. Staff participants regarded the development of their own learning to be part of the responsibility that they had in enabling the process of transformation for the children and the school. The same central areas of academic, emotional, creative and social learning, seen as important in Theme One and Two for children, were recognised by staff participants as important for their own work and thought:

‘I think it would be pretty much impossible to do anything less than a good lesson in this school because the effort that goes into it and with the phase meetings too if you do catch something in the plan we can do something better we can change it before anyone has taught it, it is that team work, that creativity and commitment.’ (T2)

‘The reason the school has had the success it has had is that the children are quite simply everything we think about … leadership allows people to have that professional freedom which in turn allows them to have that creativity and freedom of thinking that we always strive to push with the adults, teachers as well and support staff.’ (SM2)

Problem solving was seen as part of the process of leadership, with SM2 discussing the staff’s ‘restless optimism’ when referring to the detailed, positive and creative thought processes required in deciding how to overcome new and potential problems for the children and school. An example of this was provided regarding the staggering of the end of the school day:
‘We don’t just think we will finish the school day here, the school day finishes at certain times because of the area, we can’t have seven hundred children being picked up at ten past three. Everything we do is thought about to the nth degree, it’s that attention to detail which is key.’ (SM2)

Leadership which requires such a philosophy of learning and problem solving by members of an organisation is referred to by Heifetz and Linsky (2004) as adaptive leadership. Such a philosophy is not based on authority but regarded as the responsibility of everyone in order that the organisation can survive, improve, evolve and adapt over time. Adaptation, like the emphasis on children’s learning in Theme One, has a long term focus which builds on the past, experimenting and reflecting in order to succeed (Heifetz and Linsky, 2004). The staff at Shakespeare school developed the same learning mindset as seen in Theme One and Two, an approach that McBeath and Dempster (2009) consider as leadership for learning, and in practice exhibits learning for leadership. Staff participants identified that they developed and utilised their own academic, emotional, creative and social learning skills as learners and leaders. As with the children in 4.1.2, the relationships with others supported staff to be able to take risks in their own learning which reflected their understanding of the term inclusion when interviewed.

‘There’s the feeling you can give it a go and you are not going to be told if it goes wrong you will be pulled into the office to say that didn’t go well, why did you do that, type of thing. There is definitely a feeling of you can challenge yourself, you can take risks go for it and give anything a go... We make sure that responsibilities and decision making is linked to the person who leads that area. It’s not something they (teachers) have to keep coming back to us (SM Team) to keep saying is it alright if I do this, can I do this, because they have to have ownership. It’s very much seen as give it a go, if you make a mistake it doesn’t matter, if something goes wrong it can be changed, and we see everyone as a leader.’ (SM1)

The impact of this on teachers and children was identified:

‘We are really forward thinking, when you are in a place you don’t realise it until you go somewhere else and I have been on courses and you hear other teachers talking and I am almost biting my tongue and it is almost archaic the way they are thinking. It’s just not forward thinking, they are not open.’(T2)

‘... you are always learning something you are always feeling you are developing yourself and if you enjoy that and are passionate about that it gets pushed onto the children and their attitude to learning.’ (T4)

A reflection was provided by T4 of that learning journey:

‘I know I wasn’t interested in learning until I left University, I know I was very late... I realised that I did enjoy learning, I want to learn, that can become a bit obsessive at times, on the computer at 10 o’clock at night searching around for more
Having identified leadership which focused upon both staff and children learning and problem solving within school, with further examples provided within the subthemes me relating to creative learning and we associated with social learning within Theme One, I believed adaptive leadership was present in school and shared my thoughts with the focus group. They considered and confirmed adaptive leadership as part of their discussion:

‘I think the staff are confident to adapt so that is how it works so well, they don’t have to stick to A,B,C, so you are confident staff who can adapt.’ (SM4)

‘We are allowed to adapt, we are trusted to do it.’ (HLTA3)

‘The leadership is adaptive and the classroom is adaptive.’ (HLTA2)

‘We think inclusion extends to adults as well, everything is so fluid, cohesive and supportive. As a TA I feel no less valued than HLTA2 does as an HLTA, and as T6 does as a teacher.’ (TA2)

‘No one would say that is not my job.’ (TA3)

It’s like when you are in a class and a child doesn’t know what to do and they can ask a peer on the table. We do that, we do that, which colour pen do I use, you talk and you resolve … we are more autonomous in our roles.’ (HLTA3)

‘It's about risk taking, if you make a mistake it doesn’t matter does it. You learn from it and move on. It’s about adapting to situations and having some common sense’. (HLTA4)

Through adaptive leadership (Heifetz and Linsky, 2004), staff at Shakespeare School were shown to utilise and role model the four central areas of academic, emotional, creative and social learning as part of the school’s problem solving response to both the transformation of the organisation and children. Risk taking was seen as a valuable part of the learning process supported by trust, common sense and being valued. Links were made to inclusion within school, with the recognition by TA2 with an understanding that inclusion went beyond that of the children to include staff.

4.3.2 Distributed leadership

SM1 indicated that leadership was regarded as everyone’s responsibility and practice within school, including that of the children, and in doing so referred to distributed leadership.

‘Everyone is seen as a leader and everyone has the same approach to leading, it is a team approach, it’s not a top down this is what you are going to do, it is distributed, servant leadership.’ (SM1)
Expertise was regarded as not exclusively placed within the leadership team, and as already seen within Theme One, expertise also involved children who were given associated responsibilities such as: bilingual assistants, ambassadors, school councillors, digital leaders as well as informing and supporting staff reflection on curriculum matters. T3 reflected: ‘I hope they [the children] would think they are the leaders.’ Newly qualified staff were seen as providing expertise with their understanding of current and research informed learning and teaching:

‘I think we develop an attitude as well of sharing ideas, especially with the NQTs. When they come in we always remind the teachers that just because they are NQTs it doesn’t mean they don’t know anything. We encourage them to share their ideas because they are going to be picking things up on their course that we might not have heard of either.’ (T2)

Senior managers, who were interviewed as staff participants, recognised the impact of ensuring staff needs, interests and strengths were developed and utilised as part of school development. SM3 linked this to inclusion, considering it in the same way that staff participants had discussed personalised learning through QFT for children in Theme Two:

‘Inclusion is about giving everyone access to it (training and development), all staff are different so you have to cater for the staff needs as well as the children’s needs so someone wants, I think this is where a lot of staff meetings are outdated because they are not inclusive and can be a waste of time for some people, ... I think in terms of inclusion it is the same for staff, you somehow have got to pull them in on something they are interested in and what they can offer the school and utilise those. So we have (name) who is a piano player, (name) is a piano player, other people brilliant at the costume side, the corridor side so that is all part of including people in the whole school vision and aims. You have just got to give everyone access to whatever it is, whether it is CPD curriculum, to be the best they can be.’ (SM3)

The staff handbook identified the specific areas of expertise currently within school; moreover, there was also an expectation and entitlement that staff would develop and share that expertise. In order to develop further capabilities within the staff, the management team at Shakespeare School offered sums of money to be spent on projects, including research projects. Staff had to bid for the money and provide a case for the impact it would have for the children and, or, the wider school. Valuing staff as individuals aligned with the philosophy of valuing all children as individuals in Theme One. The professional expectations, as noted in the non-negotiables within the staff handbook, included:

‘Be proactive in your approach ... question ideas with professional dialogue... use PPA time to improve your practice and develop your skill set.’
‘Bring new ideas to the fore based upon sound research but only implement these following the correct procedures.’ (p.16).

Such leadership that shares the ‘influence and power among a group of individuals rather than a single person’ has been identified as distributive leadership (Hodges, 2016 p.119). As leadership can be mobilised from all levels within an organisation, this leadership philosophy is considered to create greater opportunities for change whilst increasing the capacity for improvement in the form of expertise (Grönn, 2000). Within Shakespeare School this mobilisation included the children as leaders, with responsibility recognised as an essential part of children’s emotional learning and therefore embedded within the Holistic Intelligences framework. In the same way that the subtheme within Theme One named I, focused upon academic learning without creating a hedonistic child who judged their success in comparison to others, distributed leadership requires collaboration and interdependent action in order to avoid independent, hedonistic actions of staff. This was noted within both the interviews and the focus group where staff participants referred to valuing the opportunity to learn from each other. The benefits of this collaboration was recognised by T2:

‘... you will have eight members of staff planning together, that is a powerful tool which is the size of a standard primary school really. Eight adults all putting their creativity and input in, those ideas and experiences with the lessons, and for staff that grows with them...it does make life easier for yourself being that part of a team planning together, sharing also learning ideas and getting to see people’s ideas you wouldn’t have thought of it.’ (T2)

In line with Theme One, analysis of the data identified that all staff were valued for the impact they had in supporting the school’s goal for transforming the opportunities for their children:

‘... it doesn’t matter whether you, a cleaner, dinner lady everybody is included and we all have the same ethos that we are working towards. I think it is that feeling that we are all in it together and we all have a purpose we are working towards.’ (T1)

‘Well recently they (SM Team) have just done a support staff questionnaire, the support staff filled it out and it asked them where do you think you are most effective in terms of which lessons which parts of the lessons, what would help them to be more effective and like what they think their strengths are so we had a staff meeting on Wednesday about it and (name) and the leadership team collated all that data, they put it together and fed back to teaching staff and then we were able to provide our feedback on how we think that should progress.’ (T3)

The school’s Ofsted report in 2012 recorded that improvements had been made since the previous inspection due to the ‘eagerness’ of the school community to develop through:
'good-quality training opportunities and learn [sic] from each other by sharing best practice in the school.’ (p7)

The expectation for staff collaboration was mentioned within the staff handbook, as a non-negotiable aspect of professional practice:

‘Support your team and school colleagues. Our school succeeds from working together and not individuals working alone.’(p16)

From their school profiles, it was evident that five of the ten members of the leadership team had worked as teaching assistants before training to become teachers. Distributed leadership was recognised as enabling team work and a sense of belonging, with inclusion of staff benefitting children’s development and learning:

I have to say I don’t think I have seen staff work together ever as much as I have here. The team ethos is fantastic. ...I am very lucky and have 3 support staff and together I see us as a teaching team. I would never refer to them as a teaching assistant in front of the children. I would say go and see another adult or teacher in the room because I think we work best together when we treat each other as equals and I think that is really important. I think that happens here, I think everyone’s opinion is valued and I think that is really, really important as a school ... For a visitor walking down the corridor you should feel included in our school because everyone should be saying hello to you and making you feel welcome so it isn’t just a child thing. (T1)

The staff handbook identified that consistency through collaboration created the success of the school. Throughout the interviews staff participants identified consistency of practice between school year groups as important in supporting children’s learning in relation to curriculum knowledge and pedagogy:

‘It’s that consistent approach to whenever you are teaching a semi colon you are teaching it in the same way. Whenever you are teaching a structure of a sentence you are teaching it in the same way. Whether it is a teacher, TA, any member of staff you go to it is a consistent approach to the learning of sentences and punctuation and sentence structure and paragraphing. Rather than one teacher teaching them a comma in one way and the next teacher teaching them a comma in another way, both correct in the way they are teaching it but different so it is not consistent for the child and can be confusing for the learner. This is something we have worked on in every area of the curriculum. So for example in maths I have done a lot of work on the four rules to begin with, making sure everyone teaches the same steps to the four rules, the same vocabulary is used to learning the four rules then we spread that across the other areas of maths as well.’ (SM1)

‘... as staff we are all on the same page, there is a consistent approach in literacy, in maths so you are not going from one lesson where you are doing the column method for multiplication and the next one they are doing the grid method and the next one they are doing Napier’s bone. So you are building on learning.’ (T2)
Consistency was also recognised as essential for role modelling teamwork and behaviour:

‘Children pick up on everything, I know 100% they would know if there was friction between me and a TA, they would pick up on that so it has a huge impact because they know we are a team so if they come to one of us they will get the same reaction as if they go to someone else. Or if someone is misbehaving your behaviour expectations and ethos is incredibly the same so they (children) know if I am not in the room the same thing will happen to them as if I am in the room. Obviously your behaviour has a huge impact on your learning.’ (T1)

In summary, distributed leadership was seen as supporting the development of leadership capacity within the school by activating expertise from anywhere within the school, including that of the children. Continuing Professional Development (CPD) was seen as an entitlement for all staff, with collaboration as opposed to independent action, recognised as vital in mobilising everyone’s energies towards achieving the consistency of philosophy and practices within Themes One and Two. Potter and Hooper (2005) recognise such emotional alignment of members’ energies throughout an organisation as key to effective leadership. SM1 indicated the existence of both distributed and servant leadership within the interview. Whilst this statement formed one element of the results and were regarded as important, neither leadership philosophies were established as the only reality through this one comment. Through the process of Thematic Analysis an alternative explanation was sought, and whilst both philosophies were eventually confirmed, adaptive and ethical and authentic leadership philosophies were also identified and included within the leadership theme.

4.3.3 Servant leadership

Within the interviews staff participants identified that children mattered and were at the centre of their practice and decision making:

The children are quite simply all we think about... putting the child first is the cornerstone of what we do and everything comes from that’ (T3)

‘... in all the learning the children come first. The whole school is set up for children.’ (SM1)

The purpose of the child centred nature of leadership was aligned to the school’s philosophy of Theme One and the transformation of the children’s lives in order that they thrive:

‘... every teacher must discover the spark that every child has inside them to enable them to transform each child’s life.’ (SM3)

Serving children in this way was seen to provide children with both agency and an entitlement to high expectations of the staff with whom they worked:
I would say they [the children] think they are important and they push us too, they challenge us and make sure we are doing what is right for them as well.’ (T3)

However, what was also indicated from the interviews was that such a philosophy was considered to benefit staff as well as the children:

‘Most people want to be loved or liked, want to be respected, want to serve other people. Most people are happiest when they are helping others and I think that is the sort of atmosphere you have got to generate.’ (SM3)

Thematic Analysis of the results identified that the philosophy of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970) was present within the school. The servant-first philosophy is regarded as one which positions the serving of other people’s needs as a priority, including the least privileged and deprived in society. Therefore, this leadership philosophy to the deprivation and the needs of Shakespeare School’s catchment area, children and the transformational philosophy of Theme One.

As previously mentioned, five members of Shakespeare School’s leadership team had worked first as teaching assistants before training as teachers and subsequently joining this leadership team. Such development is recognised within servant leadership as stemming from the natural feeling people have who want to serve, to serve first before making the conscious choice to lead. In order to enable this approach so that staff develop and perform as highly as possible, staff growth and wellbeing is supported by the group to which they belong. The data also identified that all staff were entitled to CPD, including their own projects, and encouraged to learn and progress. The school handbook included a section for staff’s CPD and included the statement:

‘We believe that all staff should get the best professional development available.’ (p27).

During the interviews, one of the staff participants provided an example of how the leadership team, and other staff members, over a period of time had supported a colleague during some personal difficulties. A direct quote has not been included within this thesis in order to maintain anonymity for those involved. The empathy shown for staff, valuing them as individuals whilst maintaining high expectations through the recognition of staff capacity to implement change and take risks in their learning resonated with the evidence in Theme One and is a characteristic associated with successful servant leadership. In school empathy was regarded as valuable for both staff and children, promoted as a required social intelligence to be learnt, modelled and practised as part of the school’s Holistic Intelligence framework. Empathy within
school leadership was seen by SM3 as recognising the needs and wellbeing of staff, and as a result increasing their capabilities:

‘If I could I would have a gym and a sauna and that sort of thing because if you look after your workforce, like industries like Thomas Cook have discovered, most of the industrial world has discovered that if you look after your workforce you get the best out of them.’ (SM3)

SM3 confirmed the distinction and impact between the leadership philosophy within Shakespeare School and that modelled by government:

‘...the approach successive governments have taken is never going to work because it is based on fear, autocratic decisions and at whatever level whether with an individual, with a team, with a community, with a country, with an education system, if you base it on that you are never going to succeed... if you are thinking of the needs of children you have got to think of the needs of adults and if you have got a happy workforce that are motivated and feel part of a system and they are an important cog in the wheel of serving the children and getting lovely outcomes, and by outcomes I don’t just mean SATS results, lovely outcomes for the children you are going to be successful and it has got to be so. If we were in school and we were being autocratic and top down like the government and like the new regional commissioners are, it’s all about fear. If you are being like that in a school ... I believe a school will get worse if the system is like that. If people look at our education system they feel, taste, hear, sound and smell not very nice things, people are leaving it and not signing up to it. I think the nice thing is that you can do it in your own school if you are doing well it makes it easier but you can create that in your school and get that collective wellbeing and that means you have got to look after people as well.’ (SM3)

4.3.4 Ethical and authentic leadership

Data analysis showed that staff recognised the impact of first-hand experiences for themselves; thereby, informing their own authentic role modelling to children. Inclusion was considered as appropriate to staff as it was to children, with their reflections of being welcomed and included as a member of staff acknowledged as helping with their own learning progress:

‘it is a very friendly school, everyone knows each other and you can walk down the corridor and all the children will say hello to each other. When you are comfortable in a school it helps you to learn a lot as well.’ (TA1)

Examples of staff practice, such as the one which demonstrated empathy between staff as recorded within the previous theme, not only provided staff with a first-hand or observed experience of an aspect of the Holistic Intelligence framework, but enabled it to be practiced, authentically modelled, valued and embedded as a real expectation for both children and staff. The results demonstrated that there was an alignment between the expectations held of, and
for, both staff and children. Staff acknowledged their own genuine commitment to live by the same philosophy they shared for children:

'[we have] really high expectations of everyone, children and staff all the time, unrelenting high expectations' (SM2)

'I think that the staff and the people who are employed here are passionate people and you have to be to work here. It is the kind of school where people genuinely care about being here.' (T1)

Such modelling by staff of their philosophy in practice supported their authenticity and ethical approach, providing opportunities to demonstrate not only that they could walk the talk, but they were to be trusted. For example, ahead of the publication of the obesity data in the media and the associated health warnings, the school leadership team raised concerns about childhood obesity as part of the September 2016 training day. As a result, staff joined a fitness class running for children and parents before school and were encouraged to avoid eating sugar for an entire month in support of the whole school focus on healthy eating. The first-hand experience of staff of removing sugar from their diet was regarded as role modelling, providing genuine opportunities for discussion and empathy with children that had been informed by shared experiences. The leadership team, supported by staff, extended the entitlement of children beyond the list of do’s and don’ts provided in the staff handbook to enable opportunities for genuine and ethical role modelling by staff:

'Children need to be fit, healthy and fit. That is why we are a healthy eating school and all chocolate is banned in school as we need to be modelling to them appropriate ways of eating.' (SM2)

The results evidence authentic and ethical leadership at Shakespeare School which supported not only the relationships between staff and children seen as vital within Theme One, but also the importance of establishing shared values through the Holistic Intelligence framework of Figure 4.10 was recognised. This framework included the ethical leadership values noted by Yukl (2006) of: honesty, altruism, kindness, fairness, accountability and optimism, and therefore their authenticity is legitimised through the consistency with which these values are converted into action by both staff and children. This conversion of values to action is supported through Shakespeare School’s leadership approaches which require collaboration, respect and the serving of others. Such an approach is noted by Northouse (2012) as an example of ethical leadership, whereby the core values of an organisation are genuine and present in all parts of the leader’s life. Whilst the scope of the data collection was limited to school life, there was evidence of the school’s values and practices, such as the fitness class and the sugar ban, extending beyond the school day.
4.3.5 Theme Three Summary

The theme presented the school’s philosophy for leadership that enabled staff to role model their active, moral responsibilities as adults. This included their authentic treatment and support of others as well as their response to developing their own long term learning transformation. Bass (1985) refers to this approach as transformational leadership. Theme Three provided four subthemes supporting leadership: adaptive, distributed, servant, authentic and ethical. As in the previous themes, the central areas of academic, emotional, creative and social learning were evident in supporting staff to develop the leadership capacity of the school, which saw children as part of that leadership capacity. The philosophy of leadership within Theme Three was aligned to the philosophy for children within Theme One. Shakespeare School’s Ofsted report in 2012 praised the outstanding leadership of the school based upon the concept that the leadership team had the capacity to make changes. This was made without reference to the approach by which this had been or would be achieved. In light of the findings from Shakespeare School, the philosophies from Theme Three will be discussed in Chapter Five in order to provide new consideration for leadership within the research literature focused on inclusion.

4.4 A model of inclusion and progress, as identified at Shakespeare School

![Figure 4.19 A model of inclusion and progress, as identified at Shakespeare School](image)
Figure 4.19 presents the model I have developed as a result of the research undertaken in Shakespeare School. The model synthesises the key characteristics that have been found from the data analysis, and contributes to answering the research question, how does Shakespeare School support both the inclusion and progress of all children?

The school achieves both inclusion and progress for its children through the holistic and joined up approach it takes between the three main themes and subthemes identified. There is an alignment between the philosophy the school holds regarding the inclusion of their children and how that philosophy is implemented through their creative curriculum and supported by leadership values. All three themes are connected by the blue central columns that represent key areas of learning for the inclusion and progress of both children and staff in order that they thrive. Whilst arranged on top of each other, the model does not imply a hierarchy of themes, instead the dotted lines symbolise the dynamic and transformational nature of the model. The children are central to it, and as the cohort’s current or future needs change the layers of the model will adapt as part of the transformational focus of the school. The addition of the arrows along the dotted lines were included as a result of the focus group discussion at Phase Two of the data collection, the arrows were seen to further emphasise the process of adaption. When the results of this chapter were presented to the Focus Group, HLTA4 commented that once the arrows had been added the model was ‘spot on’, continuing that it related to their earlier discussion on progress:

’Like T6 said about the journey, progress can be children, school, adults, it can be everything not just academic attainment.’ (HLTA4)

Chapter Four concludes with the presentation of the model that represents the research findings at Shakespeare School, contributing to answering the research question. Chapter Five discusses these findings in detail and why they matter.
Chapter Five
Discussion

‘I have looked in all the classrooms and there are no teacher’s private spaces belonging only to them, not a table or desk that is separated from the children’s. What is the message here? Are all the spaces about the children?’ (Research diary extract)

The previous chapter presented the results from the data collection, identifying the themes that emerged from both data collection phases. The chapter concluded with the presentation of the holistic model of Figure 4.19 that provides an overview of the joined up characteristics of Shakespeare School as an effective and inclusive school. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss those findings in relation to the research question, ‘How does Shakespeare School support both the inclusion and progress of all children?’

The chapter is therefore structured around the discussion of the three themes identified in the school model:
One: Children
Two: The Creative Curriculum
Three: Leadership

With the Government white paper Educational Excellence Everywhere (DfE, 2016a) arguing that ‘we believe outcomes matter more than methods’, teachers and leaders are being encouraged to find their own ‘best possible solutions’ (p.12). By positioning inclusion and inequality reform as being achieved through educational outcomes for which schools are responsible, government can be seen to not only distance themselves from the ethics and accountability of those solutions but also to minimise the focus on the impact of children’s physical, social, economic, cultural and political environments outside school. By analysing the results of the research at Shakespeare the discussion within this chapter will inform and challenge both way the term inclusion is currently understood and the statement from government that the methods by which inequality is resolved matters less than educational outcomes.

5.1 Theme One – Children
The results of the theme ‘Children’ provided three areas for discussion as shown in Figure 5.1 below and indicated within the summary of Chapter Four, section 4.1.5. These areas highlight the school’s current understanding and their values associated with children’s learning,
progress and inclusion. The discussion of the methods by which these values are implemented in practice is provided within Theme Two and Three of this chapter.

![Figure 5.1 Summary of Theme One discussion – Children](image)

Each area is discussed in relation to the theoretical framework provided in Chapters One and Two and the holistic, joined up approach between inclusion and progress in professional practice found, thereby adding to the theoretical framework for inclusion.

### 5.1.1 The transformative power of education

Results from the research theme *Children* identified that for Shakespeare School both the progress and inclusion of children had the same long term goal, that of transforming all children’s lives. Whilst it could be considered that the school had the same focus as government for resolving inequalities in society through education, the distinctions are important. Within the publication *Educational Excellence Everywhere* (DfE, 2016a) high educational attainment in a few academic subjects has been considered by government as inclusion per se. As attainment and qualifications become both a personal characteristic and commodity of a child, neoliberalism and meritocracy is supported and a workforce seen to be enhanced to enable economic growth. Such an approach is regarded as the solution to future equality, positioning the methods by which this is achieved as secondary. Shakespeare School on the other hand recognised transformation as resolving inequalities through all children’s entitlement to their provision of engaging and relevant opportunities and experiences, the welcoming and humane treatment of all children, and the focus on all children developing their academic, emotional, social and creative learning to enable them to thrive. Therefore, progress and inclusion were valued as ends in themselves as well as the means to further transformation beyond school. The approach was child and children centred, designed for and supporting children as individuals as well as a community, and considered by staff participants as the reason for high levels of educational progress but not its sole purpose.

Staff participants’ defined *progress* in a broad sense with a long term focus. They considered progress to be more extensive than simply short term achievement between measurements
of attainment at standardised assessment points for a few subjects. Progress was present in every day of the school and viewed as a learning ‘journey’ (T6) by participants across a broader understanding of achievement. Progress was considered across the central aspects of both knowledge and learning skills, including academic, emotional, creative and social skills, all of which were identified as essential for children to thrive and develop as agents in their own learning so that they could make choices and take risks in learning within school and beyond as part of their continual learning progress. The results from Theme One demonstrated that the establishment of positive relationships were aimed at providing children not only with the opportunities for that learning progress, but also an available network of support made up of children and staff that was important for both progress and inclusion.

In the same way that progress was regarded in the broader sense so too was inclusion. Staff participants reported that inclusive education extended beyond SEN to all children, with inclusion defined as ‘every child’ (SM1) at the school. This finding supported the agreement of researchers (Ainscow et al., 2006; Florian et al., 2017), government (DfE, 2016a) and the United Nations (UNESCO, 2005) that inclusion must recognise all children and not be restricted to those with SEN. The results of research in Shakespeare School identified that as with the findings of Carrington and Elkins (2005) inclusion occurred through the process of valuing and respecting all children, and as with the understanding of progress was regarded as an ‘unending process’ (Booth and Ainscow, 2002, p.3) with the impact extending beyond school. As with progress, staff participants recognised inclusion across the central aspects of academic, emotional, creative and social learning. Inclusion and progress at Shakespeare School had a common goal; the goal of transforming children’s lives from a position that recognised the range of inequalities they faced on entering school. The process by which this goal was achieved mattered; it mattered for the children in school, their learning, their treatment and how they treated others, their childhood and future. It also mattered for staff.

The research results from Shakespeare School, particularly within the ‘myself’ subtheme that linked to children’s emotional learning of Theme One, highlighted the importance of effective relationships for both learning and inclusion. In order that staff could connect children to their learning and encourage their agency, the relationship between children and staff was seen as an important way of discovering ‘the spark that every child has inside them’ (SM3). These relationships, established and modelled between staff and children, were seen as an enabling social network of support focused on igniting children to believe that they could learn. As part of that relationship, staff ‘role modelling’ (SM1) learning was considered vital in showing children that learning was what they all did in school and that they each had the capacity for learning, sharing and creating knowledge together (Jeffrey and Woods, 2003).
Within the theoretical framework, positive relationships between staff and children were recognised not only as part of establishing school improvement (Florian et al., 2017) but also supporting children to feel that they belong (Norwich, 2008). Researchers have therefore argued that positive relationships, as identified in Shakespeare School, remain key to inclusive education (Uditsky, 1993; Mittler, 2000; Booth and Ainscow, 2002; Hodkinson, 2010; Moscardini, 2015). The results within section 4.1.2 identified that these relationships were seen as significant in establishing and motivating both inclusion and progress. Staff, motivated by ‘possibility thinking’ (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004, p.41), a transformative mindset for changing the what is to the what might be, supported children to develop a similar learning ‘mindset’ (SM4), reporting that children recognised their involvement and agency in understanding that the ‘effort they put in gets them there’ (SM1). The relationships were therefore seen as not only connecting children to their learning, but also offering motivational opportunities in support of learning within a school that they valued. T4 reported that the children at Shakespeare School: ‘think this is the best school in the whole entire world and they want to prove that’. The social network of relationships that connected children to their own learning also connected them to each other through the explicit teaching, rehearsal and practice of the holistic intelligence skills. Therefore, a child’s responsibility for understanding their own learning was not detached from understanding others. Children were supported to develop the skills of the Holistic Intelligences such as compassion, collaboration, empathy, community and understanding, all of which can be seen as developing the children’s social, emotional, academic and creative educational capital valued in school.

Within interviews, staff participants referred to developing a growth mindset in relation to all children, so that ‘Every child can succeed’ (SM1). Consideration of children’s mindset is already present in educational literature in relation to ability, with a fixed mindset regarding ability and future learning potential as already determined (Dweck, 2012) and like the medical model of inclusion part of a child’s fixed impairments (Ellis and Tod 2014). A growth mindset on the other hand considers that internal learning qualities can be cultivated through effort, experience and application (Dweck, 2012) and therefore associated with the what might be of ‘possibility thinking’ (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004, p.41). As a result staff participants rejected the labels associated with groups of children, such as SEN and EAL, as unhelpful due to their potential for limiting expectations and ignoring the individuality of children within a group. In doing so they avoided a one size fits all approach for children by viewing ‘every child as a child and not a label’ (SM1). High expectations as a school philosophy was endemic throughout the results which would of course seem appropriate, particularly when Government policy cites high expectations as a means to achieving greater learner outcomes and a requisite for
The term potential continues to be linked to high expectations within government documentation. The National Curriculum (DfE, 2013) includes mention of the government’s commitment to ensure high expectations and challenge for all children, seen as a crucial feature of its own inclusion statement and definition. However, the government stipulation is that these challenges are ‘suitable challenges’ (DfE, 2013 p.8). The online Oxford English Dictionary refers to the term suitable as ‘right or appropriate for a particular person, purpose, or situation’, which assumes the person setting the challenge has the power to determine the appropriateness of it. As the National Curriculum is not written for children to use one must presume the decision of the appropriateness lies within the power of the adult to decide. Once again, if that judgement of suitability of challenge is based upon a fixed mindset, the opportunity for children’s learning growth will be restricted. If that is the case, the statement of inclusion as presented and reinforced in the government publication Education Excellence Everywhere (DfE, 2016a), can be considered as a symbol of inclusion (Skritic, 1991) without real meaning for transforming the lives of every child. However, if as will be discussed further in Theme Two, a child is provided with the support and power to determine the appropriateness of a challenge based upon a growth mindset and ‘possibility thinking’ (Jeffrey
and Craft, 20014, p.41), then the inclusion statement could have real meaning if utilised by those it intends to support.

In summary, the terms progress and inclusion in this school were both understood to apply to all children. The relationship between inclusion and progress was established within this section as based upon the common goal staff participants held, in that education and children’s involvement in it had the power to transform the lives of each child so that they could thrive. This was also acknowledged by the children who took part in the school’s research project. The learning relationships between staff and children, as well as between themselves, were seen as important for valuing, activating and motivating children as learners within the social network of relationships that supported both inclusion and progress as a result. As reported in Chapter Two, Sfard (1998) identified tension between a child’s possession of knowledge and a child’s participation in the social process of learning and belonging. This will be discussed further within this chapter, but the results demonstrated here that the process of transforming knowledge was entwined with the skills supporting the social process of learning and belonging in Shakespeare school. This section of the discussion has highlighted the influence of mindset for understanding commonly used terminology within education, with staff at Shakespeare School recognising the importance of high expectations for all children based upon possibility thinking and a growth mindset for all.

The recognition of inclusion and progress as sharing a goal of transformation in order to resolve inequalities, moreover with the treatment of children in that process mattering, resonates with the work of Bourdieu. As a result, I began to see the possibility of connections between his work and Sen’s capability framework (Sen, 1985), and through the writing of Mills (2008) a view of the transformative potential of his theory for an education system looking to improve social justice for all children. This thesis does not include a critique of Bourdieu’s work, but indicates where there is potential for future research to explore it in detail.

Bourdieu (1985) highlights three main areas as relevant for transformation in education: habitus, cultural capital and the field. His version of *habitus* has been considered as a person’s internalised dispositions that at a subconscious level supports their action and choices that be at odds with the values schools seek to offer and reward. Shakespeare School had potentially acknowledged this and therefore had focused on developing a ‘collective’ (T4) habitus of children and staff who shared the school’s same academic, emotional, social and creative values and skills. In taking this approach the school sought to advantage the children, recognising habitus like mindset as not a static, predetermining concept (Mills, 2008), but as
an opportunity for all children and staff to develop a transformative mindset that valued their inclusion and learning progress across the Holistic Intelligence framework.

*Cultural capital* was regarded by Bourdieu as the cultural values, knowledge and attitude acquired through a child’s background and what Henry et al. (1988) referred to as ‘all the competencies one class brings with them to school’ (p.233). Children whose families developed different cultural capital than school utilised were seen by Comber and Hill (2000) as entering the education system with ‘cultural capital in the wrong currency’ for success (p.80), thereby perpetuating inequality. Shakespeare School recognised the diversity in home backgrounds as well as the capital they each brought to school, and responded by seeking to provide all children with cultural capital children could use as commodities within education and beyond the education system. However, rather than merely seeking to reproduce the capital government had embedded within the National Curriculum and valued through testing, the school had sought to extend that offer for their children. In providing full access for all children to a creative curriculum based upon the CPR, they offered a curriculum that valued children’s histories and individuality, and utilised their childhood talents of: ‘… amazement, perplexity, curiosity, discovery, invention, speculation, fantasy, play and linguistic agility’ (Alexander et al., 2010, p.257) in order to engage them in discovering their own strengths and valuing those of others. Within Shakespeare School Bourdieu’s *cultural capital* can be seen to equate to Sen’s *commodities* with the opportunities provided by the creative curriculum enhanced through the interaction with children’s *characteristics* that Sen refers to within his approach.

Bourdieu’s concept of the *field* has been considered as the space or context, structured by different forms of capital, and an area in which the habitus interacts. The field could therefore be regarded as occurring at the level of school as well as what Sen would recognise as the wider physical, social, economic, cultural and political *environment*. Within Chapter Four, Figure 4.19 presents the model I developed as a result of the research undertaken in Shakespeare School. The model synthesises the key characteristics of the school that provides all children with capital to be used as commodities and the collective mindset for both inclusion and progress within the environment of the school and beyond.

As the definition of inclusion broadens the research has highlighted that neither the medical or social model can fully explain inclusion at Shakespeare School. This research has provided the potential to integrate the work of Bourdieu with Sen’s 1985 capability framework without losing an understanding of the journey inclusion has undertaken with SEN and its medical and social model legacy. Currently government views inclusion as synonymous with educational
outcomes, with those outcomes regarded like the medical model of inclusion as an in person characteristic, belonging to a child and supporting social justice through the potential they offer for economic freedom as an adult. Shakespeare School has clearly rejected such an understanding of inclusion and the associated aspects of labelling and deficit thinking. The social model on the other hand, whilst focusing solely upon the impact of the range of environmental influences that disable opportunities and functionings does not acknowledge the relevance of the diversity and characteristics of children in this school. Therefore, inclusion at Shakespeare School is not effectively represented by the medical or social model. However, the school can be seen to be aligned with a combination of Sen’s capability approach, informed by children’s rights and the work of Bourdieu. Shakespeare School recognised and responded to the combination of the diversity of all its children, the environments in which they lived and provided the opportunities and commodities children required in order that they could make informed choices. This was seen as supporting what Sen referred to as functionings so that children were able to express themselves as individuals in the same way that:

‘Beckham, Giggs, Best, Cantona and Scholes expressed themselves with a football, Jonny Wilkinson with a rugby ball, John Lennon through music, Picasso with paint and Sir Lawrence Olivier through drama.’ (SM3)

The research at Shakespeare School identified that the focus on progress and inclusion and the means by which it was achieved was not based upon staff benevolence, but rather seen as the just entitlement for all children.

5.1.2 Children’s rights and entitlement
Shakespeare School staff participants not only valued what each child brought with them to school that made them unique, as will be discussed in 5.1.3, but considered that all children were entitled to positive learning experiences that some children received at home. Therefore, their aim was to provide all children with the opportunities of a ‘well rounded upbringing, when you are at the shop, visiting the cathedral, the museum’ (SM3) in support of equality of opportunity as ‘a reality for our children.’ (Inclusion Policy, p.1). The school’s position on supporting social justice through equality of opportunity concurs with the findings of Slee (2001) who emphasised it as a requirement for inclusive education. Children’s entitlements were evident not only within the inclusion policy but transferred to practice through the non-negotiable teaching and learning expectations for staff, as shown in Figure 4.3. The use of the term non-negotiable established entitlement, with synonyms used within the expectations such as deserve and fairly relating to each, every, and all children. This supported the recognition of all children within school and not just some. The research results upheld the statement on inclusion as shared by UNESCO who noted that:
The non-negotiable staff expectations within Figure 4.3 also supported The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1989). Through their relationships each child was known as an individual and provided with full access to the opportunities in school (UNCRC, Articles 23, 29 and 31). Children were entitled to actively take part in the full range of ‘interesting, exciting and purposeful’ lessons (Figure 4.3, Chapter Four). This was seen as supporting children’s rights to the ‘fullest possible social integration and individual development’ in order to further their ‘personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential’ (UNCRC p.9). In line with Article 28, the school’s one page behaviour policy established children’s entitlement to humane treatment by staff, emphasising that this did not involve: corporal punishment, swearing, raising voices, shouting, scaring and using humiliation or sarcasm. By securing children’s entitlements and human rights within the non-negotiable expectations of staff, not only were children’s entitlements protected they were also modelled to children by adults, encouraging children to recognise and develop respect for their own human rights and those of others. The non-negotiable expectations in Figure 4.3 were in effect a bespoke version of Part One of the Department for Education Teachers’ Standards (Figure 2.5) for Shakespeare School.

Heilbronn et al. (2015) consider The Teachers’ Standards (Figure 2.5) as a code of conduct for teachers. However, The Teachers’ Standards can also offer an opportunity for researchers to analyse the means by which inclusion and progress are legitimised in practice. The UNCRC entitlements present within the school’s non negotiables are not as apparent within the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011), with the differences between both highlighting the alternative philosophies of inclusion and progress held between central government and that of Shakespeare School.

Teachers’ Standard One that supports high expectations for children was discussed in the previous section of this chapter. However, Standard One omits the use of the term all when referring to children. This is in distinct contrast to the school’s non-negotiable that references all children’s entitlement to have high expectations held of them by staff in support of all children holding high expectations of themselves as part of their agency. Within Shakespeare School’s non-negotiable all subject areas are emphasised as part of children’s entitlement through teacher practice. Whereas in Teachers’ Standard Three, only the curriculum subjects of maths, English and phonics are sanctioned by government as core entitlement that is further
The focus of non-negotiables \( b, c \) and \( g \) reflect the commitment to planning for the pedagogy of children and staff engagement in learning, with children placed at the centre of their learning. This area will be discussed fully in Theme Two. The focus on behaviour management within Teachers’ Standard Seven has already been discussed within this chapter, with the school focus on maintaining the entitlement of children to be treated with dignity, supporting children’s emotional learning as part of their commitment to developing the whole child. The school’s approach is distinct from the ‘discipline framework’ referred to in the Teachers’ Standards which is expanded upon within the government’s publication ‘Behaviour and Discipline in Schools’. This particularly highlights appropriate ‘punishment’ for children involving ‘community service’ with the suggestion of ‘weeding school grounds’ (DfE, 2016a, p.8). For behaviour, government is seen to regard difference as deviancy, with a sanctioned loss of rights legitimised by central policy. If difference in learning is considered in the same way as difference in behaviour, this could impact upon the treatment of children seen as a problem in the same way. This issue of the treatment of difference will be considered more fully in 5.1.3 of this chapter.

Whilst they may appear to be subtle, the distinctions between the Teachers’ Standards and the school’s non-negotiables highlight the school’s moral and authentic commitment to provide an environment that supports all children’s entitlements to be treated with respect, valued and provided with real opportunities for learning. This positioned all children’s rights and entitlements at the centre of expectations for and of staff beyond central government expectations.

The research results demonstrated that children were entitled to a broad and balanced curriculum at Shakespeare School so that they were able to express themselves as individuals; this was in line with the entitlement supported by government in the previous Primary National Curriculum (DfEE, 1999). Since then however government appears to have been influenced by countries such as Singapore, South Korea, Hong Kong and Japan who perform highly in the PISA tests (Oates, 2010), and has chosen to ignore others such as Finland, whose educational philosophy does not appear to support the ‘performativity and marketization which Gove intended to emulate’ (Alexander, 2014, p.356). As a result, this entitlement to a broad and balanced curriculum has quietly been removed from both the Primary National Curriculum (DfE, 2013) and the Code of Practice (DfE, 2015a). The latter publication makes reference instead to children having ‘access to’ (my emphasis) a broad and balanced curriculum (DfE, 2015a, p.94). The split between core and non-core subjects as
seen in the Teachers’ Standards has been previously criticised by the inspectorate, with David Bell as a former chief inspector for Ofsted referring to it as a two tier curriculum (Ofsted, 2004). This split in the curriculum was strengthened further by testing knowledge in core subjects, valuing those above any other within the curriculum. The political emphasis on supporting limited curriculum knowledge as a strength has been undertaken through the establishment of the rhetoric of a back to basics policy. The rewards of such political focus on the basics has yet to be realised on an international stage via the PISA outcomes, yet the focus on core subjects as the basics of knowledge continues. Testing children on what is seen as core knowledge, and removing their entitlement to a broad and balanced curriculum, has enabled the legitimate segregation of children by government into core subject interventions during non-core subject times. Such practices have been endorsed by government rhetoric: ‘we believe that outcomes matter more than methods’ (DfE, 2016a, p.9) and legitimised in practice through the Teachers’ Standards where children’s rights and entitlements to access a broad and balanced curriculum can be ignored. This position is in spite of evidence funded by government that demonstrated children were shown to perform better in national tests at eleven years old where they had been provided, like Shakespeare School, with a broad curriculum that aimed for high standards across all subjects, those in which they were tested and those they were not (DES, 1978: Ofsted, 1997, 2002).

Currently consultation by Ofsted as to whether to remove the quality of teaching grade as part of a ‘fair and focused school inspection’ (DfE, 2016a p.22) would support a government position where teaching methods are not their concern. Although this could be seen as supporting teacher professionalism, it does raise the perspective that an independent and impartial body who are required to report to parliament and regulate services that care for children are considering the removal of a safeguard that has the potential to protect children’s entitlements and treatment in everyday practice.

This subtheme within the research has confirmed that in line with Oliver (2000) and Norwich (2013) Shakespeare School considered the equality of opportunity for all children as a human rights entitlement (UNCRC, 1989), supporting both inclusion and progress. Through the school’s non-negotiable expectations for staff they extended the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011), and created a code of conduct that emphasised not only the entitlements all children had to real, high quality and engaging opportunities for learning across a range of subjects, but also to be treated with respect and valued as part of the school environment. The non-negotiables at Shakespeare School demonstrated that the methods by which outcomes are achieved matter for the humane and dignified treatment of children, and as members of society should not and cannot be ignored within the wider environment in which they live. Dunne
(2009) commented that in committing to this approach to inclusion schools acknowledge the ‘risk’ they take when government is committed to an ‘othering framework’ (p.49) that resources intervention and segregation in an attempt to normalise children across some areas of knowledge.

5.1.3 The consideration and treatment of difference

The results in Theme One, Chapter Four identified how difference was considered in Shakespeare School. It was not seen by staff participants as a judgement against a bell curve understanding of normality, arising from the comparison between children, and across a single dimension of academic ability with regions of tolerance and intolerance that led to labelling as the solution for increasing a child’s educational outcomes. Difference was understood as uniqueness across the four central areas of academic, emotional, creative and social learning skills and across a range of curriculum and domain knowledge. As a result, difference was viewed as something positive and wholesome that enriched the diversity of children in the school:

‘You have your mathematicians, you have your readers, but you also have your performing artists ... we are really trying to cater for the whole child ... you will have different children shining in different things.’(SM2).

Staff participants at Shakespeare School, supported by a growth mindset and possibility thinking, reported that they ignored labels associated with difference ‘so not limiting the children’s potential’ (T2). They valued children as unique and ‘individual’ (T4) across the range of learning, with difference not positioned as a within child deficit but a ‘spark’ that teachers must discover within the child (SM3), so that children were able to express themselves as individuals. The relationships established within school enabled children and staff to recognise individuality, strengths and interests, with all children considered as being able to learn and staff motivated to support their transformation: ‘It’s not that they can’t learn, it’s you haven’t found how to do it with them yet’ (T4). The positioning of difference as a positive concept within the school’s empowering belief system and growth mindset, avoided the legacy of the medical model and what Dunne (2009) reported as the lowering of expectation for children with SEN resulting in their segregation as an approach to normalise them. Crucially, it also modelled to all children how they too should respond to difference.

Shakespeare School did not remove children from any areas of the curriculum for catch up programmes. This was seen in school as not only restricting the development of and the opportunities for the whole child within their class community, but also valuing success in some
curriculum areas over others. Removal was also regarded as demonstrating to children that segregation was an appropriate response to difference, not only to those who were removed but also those who weren’t. This supports the work of Glazzard (2013) who reported that children attending additional intervention programmes developed a reinforced sense of failure. Gorard et al. (2014) concurred, arguing that children recognised their loss of learning in other curriculum areas, including Physical Education (PE), drama and art when attending literacy interventions. The negative impact of otherness therefore resulted from a peer recognition of such legitimised segregation based upon difference (Lloyd, 2008).

The intervention practices that Shakespeare School rejected as supporting exclusion through removal, were also criticised in 2010 by Ofsted. However, removal of children continues to be seen as good practice or a practical response to difference in schools, particularly when established as a process for increasing children’s outcomes (Demie, 2015). Despite research indicating the negative impact of intervention groups, their use has been noted by The Sutton Trust (2015) with a ‘significant increase’ of early intervention and one to one teaching reported by schools (p.9). The reason for this may lie with assessing school’s accountability for the government funded pupil premium money. Schools are required to show clear policy and impact for use of the money, with part of any Ofsted inspection judging the success of that policy decision. Removing children for intervention teaching in core subjects has been recognised as an example of accepted policy decision making, particularly when linked to improving children’s academic outcomes in core subjects (Parry et al., 2013). Therefore, schools who are fearful of the unwelcome impact on a grading judgement by Ofsted of not having such a policy may be encouraged to remove children from classrooms in this way. As pupil premium money is provided as part of the government social justice agenda (DfE, 2016a), the children being removed are seen as the most disadvantaged in society, with schools therefore being supported to legitimately model to others how to treat that difference of circumstance. Whilst the impact of inequalities in society on educational outcomes has been recognised within research (Mourshead et al. 2010; OECD, 2007), Brunila (2011) found that people’s views of inequality were underpinned by a belief that inequality of circumstance resulted from a deficit within the person. The public removal of children for interventions in schools does nothing to refute this, frustrating a child’s sense of belonging that researchers have associated with inclusion (Kunc, 1992; Oliver, 2000; Gross, 2000; Warnock, 2005), whilst at the same time positioning schools as ‘agents’ of that ‘marginalisation’ (Mowat 2015, p.460).

The results from Shakespeare School identified a focus on children as a unified group. T4 confirmed: ‘Everyone is in the same boat, we don’t have otherness, we have a collective’ (T4).
Empathy was seen as a key skill in supporting social cohesion and belonging. Empathy was taught, modelled, practised and rewarded through its inclusion within the Holistic Intelligence framework. Although empathy will be discussed later within the chapter it appears key to the philosophy of Shakespeare School and decisions made in rejecting difference as deviancy and practices that legitimised exclusion based on that notion. The school's focus on connecting children to each other and staff provides what Bourdieu would consider to be a social capital network. When inclusion in school has been recognised as part of the process of inclusion in society (Oliver, 2000; Booth and Ainscow, 2002), practices that exclude children in school can be seen to have an impact on exclusion in society and children's removal from a valuable, social capital network. Van San et al. (2013) in their research with adults found that people who lacked a sense of belonging felt alienated from communities, and as a result were more susceptible to propaganda and radicalisation. Their research concluded that if a person is excluded from their own society, and does not feel it values them, they will then offer their services to others who would.

The construction of inclusion currently has its basis in the historical associations with SEN and the medical model of disability and the 'powerful othering framework' (Dunne, 2009, p.49). Within the inclusive research literature difficulties associated with children's social inclusion within the 'hard world of performativity' (Ball, 2003, p.222) have been acknowledged, (Flem and Keller, 2000; Ainscow, 2012; Prince and Hadwin, 2013). Shakespeare School has rejected this version of inclusion that legitimately segregates children based upon a range of differences in the name of inclusion. Instead, difference is considered as diversity and uniqueness to be welcomed and valued as both belonging to and enriching the collective. The focus on empathy as a key holistic intelligence supported both the development of children's own social capital and an understanding of others within that network, and thereby avoiding a focus on ‘otherness’ (T4).

5.1.4 Theme One summary
Slee (2011) identified a tension between inclusion and progress, arguing that inclusion cannot be associated with the neo-liberal values of competition in education. Through the discussion of Theme One of Shakespeare School’s holistic model, a greater understanding of the values and beliefs that have shaped the meanings of inclusion and progress in school have been shared that challenge how inclusion is understood. Both inclusion and progress at Shakespeare School were regarded as broad, interdependent concepts, with progress focused upon the daily transformation of all children’s lives, establishing and requiring all children’s inclusion through a network of learning relationships that utilise academic, creative, emotional and social skills. The combination of progress and inclusion as factors dependent
upon each other and as part of the same approach can be seen to start to ameliorate the tension Sfard (1998) identified between a child’s possession of knowledge and a child’s participation in the social process of learning and belonging. The medical and social models of inclusion have been seen to be rejected by Shakespeare School, and within this section of the thesis a combination of Sen’s capability framework informed by a children’s rights approach and the work of Bourdieu has been recognised. Shakespeare School acknowledged and responded to the combination of the diversity of all its children and the environments in which they lived, and in doing so provided the opportunities and commodities their children required in order that they were enabled as agents in their own lives. In doing so the school provided a joined up and socially just approach that recognises inclusion and progress in school as part of inclusion and progress within society.

Within this section of the thesis the mindset work of Dweck (2012) has been utilised for analysing the distinction between a growth and fixed mindset in relation to high and suitable expectations as key features of the government’s position on teaching, learning and inclusion. The research enabled the assertion to be made that if the government position is based upon a fixed mindset of learning, then high and suitable expectations are nothing more than symbols of inclusion without the power to transform children’s lives.

The practical consequences of the research in this section includes the sharing of the school’s non negotiables, identified as a bespoke version of the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2011) that ensured children’s entitlements and rights to a full curriculum, real opportunities for learning, and to be valued and treated with dignity and respect. Difference in school was not seen as within person deficits and deviancy but welcomed as diversity. The co-agency required for transformative learning, and the treatment of differences was therefore based upon human and humane relationships whereby both children and staff remain proactive and motivated to learn. The combination of valuing the whole child across the full range of curriculum subjects was shown to support the view of each child as unique and part of the community in school. The policy of non-removal for interventions was seen to model to children how to value and treat difference, supported by their regard for empathy as a key skill. As part of that discussion government policy was challenged for the accountability measures associated with pupil premium that can be seen to encourage inequalities in circumstance to be treated with legitimised segregation in intervention groups or one to one teaching, a legacy of the SEN medical model for understanding inclusion. The research at Shakespeare School has therefore drawn attention to the philosophy and values of the school’s hidden curriculum, modelling to children that all learning and all children are valued and entitled to real opportunities and humane treatment.
The discussion of Theme One of the model has provided the school’s hidden curriculum, their professional values and ethics that are aligned to their curriculum and pedagogy to be discussed in Theme Two.

5.2 Theme Two – The Creative Curriculum

The results from Theme Two of the research model identified that Shakespeare School supports both inclusion and progress in learning through the choice for and organisation of its creative curriculum. The choice of curriculum stemmed from, or resulted in, an alignment between the philosophy of the school and the government publication Excellence and Enjoyment (DfES, 2004) and that of the National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education (NACCCE, 1999). With the DfES document’s focus on social justice, providing ‘life chances’ through excellence and enjoyment, regarded as a child’s entitlement or ‘birthright’, the school’s choice for a creative curriculum reflected its understanding of inclusion and of learning as both the ‘fusion of excellence and enjoyment’ (DfES, 2004, p.2) and teaching for creativity to cultivate children’s creative thinking (NACCCE, 1999). The development of the school’s curriculum and pedagogy over time remained authentic to both documents and was evidenced by the school’s educational aim that encouraged children’s exploration, creativity, risk taking, achievement and a sense of childhood.

Within the literature review of Chapter Two, four approaches to designing an inclusive curriculum were shared. The creative curriculum of Shakespeare School, and indeed the hidden curriculum of Theme One, was recognised as not aligned with two of the four. It was not a specialised curriculum in the sense that it was not designed as an additional curriculum focused on providing for the individual deficits of some children (Booth and Ainscow, 2011). Nor, could it be regarded as a curriculum taught to all children by different organisational arrangements for some (Ellis and Tod, 2014). From the literature and analysis of the results it was recognised that the school’s creative curriculum was inclusive in that it was personalised by responding to the diversity of the children in Shakespeare School (Rouse and Florian, 1997; Slee, 1999; Florian et al. 2017) as well as being focused on engaging all children (Kellet and Nind, 2003). Both of these areas were supported through the school’s pedagogical approaches that connected children to their learning and each other. As a result, Figure 5.2 presents an overview of the areas of discussion to follow.
5.2.1 A curriculum responding to and supporting diversity
The school’s developed creative curriculum was considered by staff participants as ‘one of the biggest pulls in allowing the children to access the learning’ (T1), providing a relevant, bespoke and personalised response to the diversity of the children in school (Rouse and Florian, 1997; Slee, 1999; Florian et al. 2017). The school was able to do this because it knew its children well, and aligned the philosophy of the school to the strengths and the current and future needs of the children within its community.

As discussed in Theme One, diversity was considered as the uniqueness of children across their experiences, interests, the Holistic Intelligences and the full range of subjects or domains of learning within school. Shakespeare School created their own curriculum as an appropriate response for their children, enabling staff to: ‘suit everything to the needs of the children’ (SM3). The school did not use bought in schemes of work, rejecting them for their lack of recognition of the diversity of their cohort and the resulting impact this would have for some children: ‘When a lot of schools follow schemes, is it fitting your minority children? Anyone outside that scheme are targets for intervention’ (T4). The creative curriculum was seen as a curriculum that staff participants recognised as offering entitlement and choice, part of their child-centred, personalised provision for all children: ‘built for everyone, it’s designed with every child in mind … this is what they need, not fitting them to what is already there.’ (T4). In taking this approach the curriculum was recognised as an appropriate response to children’s experience needs: ‘filling that gap in their lives’ (SM3) and providing a communal upbringing in support of social justice.

As noted within Chapter Four, in informing their creative curriculum Shakespeare School adopted and then adapted the CPR Curriculum, adding Pause for Thought sessions and the additional strand of Digital Media. Utilising the domains of learning was seen as providing children’s entitlement to the full breadth and balance of the curriculum that was recognised as
central to the school’s philosophy of entitlement. The use of domains of knowledge and a
thematic approach were also recognised as providing children with the opportunity to make
connections between learning for long term purposes, applying and then mastering that
learning for its use within real life and not merely for short term testing:

‘For example they might use some of today’s historical knowledge to access a
maths lesson which is great because it reinforces the topic, reinforces your
understanding and they are applying a different skill and also seeing how that is
going to work in your life.’ (T4)

Aligned with the Early Years Foundation Stage framework, the CPR provided a curriculum
vehicle that could be further adapted for the children’s needs, strengths and opportunities in
that it recognised a percentage of the school’s curriculum should be generated at school, child
and community level. SM2 identified that in keeping with CPR ‘thirty percent’ of the curriculum
was considered their ‘own’ utilising local resources, cultural celebrations and engaging
children in understanding themselves, each other, their local community and the wider world.
Locally themed topics and events included The Tudors, World War Two commemoration, local
archaeological discoveries as well as the city’s mayoral elections. As part of the curriculum
the school celebrated children’s ethnic backgrounds with events organised to reflect and share
their cultural heritage. As part of the school’s Prevent duty (DfE, 2015c) the promotion of
‘fundamental British values’ (p.8) were recorded on the school website, however the point was
made that those values were ‘not exclusive to Britain’ (School website) and therefore not only
in the possession of some children as a birth right, whilst automatically excluding others.

When Shakespeare School chose to become an academy they were also able to choose their
curriculum, in doing so they rejected England’s National Curriculum (DfE, 2013). Instead,
using the CPR as a basis they formed their own curriculum, one which they considered
supported the school aim for their children. The National Curriculum advertises itself as ‘the
best that has been thought and said’ (DfE, 2013, p.6) and ironically these were in part the
reason for its rejection. Whilst the curriculum quote, originally written by Arnold in 1869
although ‘not attributed’ (Alexander, 2014, p.358), points to a static curriculum of knowledge,
Arnold when originally writing had been encouraging readers of his work to reject the compliant
following of knowledge. Shakespeare School, true to the understanding of Arnold, had critically
analysed the national curriculum offer as a knowledge based curriculum (Norwich, 2013) and
recognised that it was not able to meet the needs of their children and support the opportunity
required to transform their children’s lives.
In responding to the diversity and needs of its children their adapted and localised CPR framework was combined with the Holistic Intelligence school framework that was seen to provide what Hattie (2012) would consider as critical evaluation skills, Bruner (1972) as cultural tools and Robinson (2015) as the skills for citizenship to be ‘learned and practised’ (p.141). Whilst the aim of England’s National Curriculum stipulates that it provides children with: ‘an introduction to the essential knowledge that they need to be educated citizens’ (DfE, 2013, p.6), Robinson (2015), argued that citizenship goes beyond individual’s knowledge but requires the: ‘ability to engage constructively with society and to participate in the process that sustains it’ (p.140). Otherwise, citizenship is seen as merely a way of encouraging individual’s personal responsibilities as a consumer and worker, and not part of the ‘collective’ (T4) that Shakespeare School valued and which Bourdieu’s concept of social capital offered as their sum of resources in order to facilitate ‘collective action’ (Wood, 2014, p.582). The concerns for schools not actively supporting children to develop this network of belonging were discussed in section 5.1.3 of this chapter whereby the treatment of difference can lead to marginalisation. Through the choices made the school integrated citizenship within their curriculum, their Pause for Thought focus, Holistic Intelligences and pedagogy. Shakespeare School’s curriculum was not only a response to the diversity of its children so that they were present in it, but through its focus enabled children to develop the knowledge, understanding and skills to actively engage with others as part of the ‘allness’ (T4) of the children. This is in contrast to the central position of government in its support of neo-liberalism to encourage children to act out of and be rewarded for self-interest, with schools valuing ‘individual responsibility for individual achievement’ (Armstrong, 2005, p.147) in the name of meritocracy. Theresa May in her speech in 2016 to the British Academy proclaimed: ‘I want Britain to be the great meritocracy of the world’. Mills (2008) argued that if as Bourdieu suggested schools reward children whose capital is recognised as that which is associated with the dominant culture and explain it as individual talent, meritocracy is also an illusion in direct opposition to providing opportunities for all children. Therefore, by creating a curriculum suited to its children that provided them with authentic opportunities Shakespeare School recognised the possibilities this would have for genuine transformation in enabling its children to thrive.

Having placed their children at the centre of the curriculum they selected, Shakespeare School developed the creative curriculum in order to engage children with it.

5.2.2 Engagement with the curriculum
The literature review presented in Chapter Two identifies the work of Kellet and Nind (2003), who considered an inclusive curriculum to be one that focused on engaging children. The results of Chapter Four recognised that through the environment, curriculum organisation and
content, the engagement of all children in what they learnt was aligned to the pedagogy of how they learnt. *Engagement* as a term is as widely used as is the term *inclusion* and therefore it is worth establishing its meaning in relation to this discussion. In its noun form The Oxford English Dictionary refers to *engagement* as ‘The state of being engaged or entangled’, as an adjective ‘committed’ and as a verb: ‘to attract and hold fast’, ‘to pledge’, ‘to expose to risk and compromise’. As an adjective therefore, engaging children with the creative curriculum was regarded as a commitment to the school’s long term goal of enabling children to ‘have the best crack at life as possible’ (SM1). In its noun form engagement refers to engaged children as one group, the ‘collective’ (T4) as referred to in Theme One. Engaging this collective in Shakespeare School involved developing an inclusive curriculum that pledged to attract and hold that group fast, exposing children to risk and compromise, using not only the school’s knowledge of their children as discussed in the previous section, but also what children as a group have in common.

As part of child-centred curriculum discourse, researchers have called for schools to value what children bring to their learning in the form of knowledge, expertise and interests from outside school (Hart, 1996; O’Brien, 2000; Florian et al., 2017). However, Shakespeare School added to this discourse by providing an inclusive curriculum that supplied a shared childhood for children, based upon what they have in common as children. SM1 noted ‘we see them all as children, no matter where they are, where they are from, what nationality, the language they speak, the one thing they have in common is they are all children and they want to learn.’ Shakespeare School’s creative curriculum utilised what staff considered to be the natural traits of all children for learning, their emotions, senses and imagination, to attract them to learning, maintain that learning and take risks with their learning. The creative curriculum with its Holistic Intelligences as tools for learning, the storyline curriculum topics and truffle moments as recorded in Figure 4.7, provided ‘an environment which makes you long for childhood’ (School website). The visual displays and ‘effort from the teachers’ (C3) were acknowledged by children, and motivated them by harnessing what Craft (2002) regards as children’s natural capacity for creative learning.

In his work Robinson (2015) draws attention to the use of senses and imagination as tools that raise the capacity for humans’ communication, thought, experience and behaviour. Shakespeare School’s staff recognised the power of this and noted that it not only supported engagement but also progress in learning:

‘... our curriculum has a huge impact on the progress children make. It gets them engaged in the learning to allow them to enjoy an experience based around learning’ (SM1)
... the more you engage children physically and emotionally in their learning the more rapidly they will learn.‘ (SM3)

Utilising children’s senses for learning was recognised as fundamental to the approach of Montessori whereby a child processes ‘everything through their senses, to help them understand their world’ (Hewitt and Tarrant, 2015, p.72). In line with the Reggio Emilia approach, and like Montessori the aesthetics of the environment at Shakespeare School were regarded as critical for learning, not only for stimulating and attracting children to learning but also for sending messages as practitioners to children about ‘how we value them and how we value learning’ (DfES, 2004, p.56). In their photographs C4 recognised that ‘the corridors are very creative, not boring’ and ‘shows the teachers work overtime and hard for us’ (C4). Senses were also referred to by staff as metaphors to explain how the concept of inclusion felt in practice:

‘when you walk in there is a certain ethos and feel about the place where learning is taking place and if it is going to feel, taste, sound right then it is inclusive because the children’s needs are being met’ (SM3).

The environment of the school ‘awash with stimulating scenes, life size models, artefacts and memorabilia’ (Ofsted, 2012, p.8) supported children’s imagination who themselves recognised that ‘everything is made interesting, inside and out’ (C3). The physical areas around school such as Hogwart’s common room were developed to utilise stories as tools for learning. The story line of the curriculum theme was seen as enhancing the ‘children’s learning experiences’, stimulating imagination and developing ‘children’s speaking and writing’ (School Website). Within the research literature, stories have been noted as providing an equitable pedagogy (Banks, 2004) as well as supporting children’s understanding of empathy, increasing comprehension of emotional learning (Ornaghi et al., 2014). The use of children’s stories within a curriculum can be seen therefore as supporting a child centred curriculum. Although, its use within Shakespeare School rather than supporting the differing childhoods children brought with them in fact created a context for the childhood they were experiencing together in school (Mills and Mills, 1999), a shared childhood as part of their communal, well-rounded ‘upbringing’ (SM3).

Stimulating and demonstrating imagination within the Creative Curriculum was seen as an essential skill of creativity within the school’s Holistic Intelligence framework. Robinson (2015) notes that ‘imagination is the root of creativity, with the ability to bring to mind things that aren’t present to our senses’ (p.118). Creativity is therefore considered by Robinson (2015) as being central to culture and to being human by utilising imagination to generate and apply new ideas.
He, like Craft and Jeffrey (2004) and NACCCE (1999) recognise children as having a ‘ready appetite’ (Robinson, 2015, p.135) for the exploration that supports their sense making, particularly when their curiosity is engaged and nurtured. As with the CBI Education and Skills survey (2016) that called for schools to develop young people with the attitudes and aptitude for adult life, Shakespeare School recognised the value of investing in creativity to support the long term benefits for learning through the central aspect of the Holistic Intelligence framework.

The government’s National Curriculum in England document (DfE, 2013) mentions creativity as part of the aim of the curriculum that ‘helps engender an appreciation of human creativity’ (p.6). However, creativity is not defined within the publication and mentioned only with regards to music, art, design and technology and computing. This appears to indicate the centrally held belief that creativity is an outcome and product within non-core subjects, and not the process of making connections, problem solving and developing skills that employers recognise as important for leading to discovery and new knowledge across a wider curriculum (Robinson, 2015).

Shakespeare School’s creative curriculum supported their commitment to the inclusion and long term learning progress for their children, attracting and holding all children through utilising their senses and imagination in support of their creativity. Engagement was seen as a form of pledge that supported the co-agency staff and children had in learning. The curriculum was regarded as inclusive in that it responded to and supported both the diversity of children as well as their engagement, utilising what children had in common and shared as part of their communal childhood within school. The school’s choice of a creative curriculum was aligned to the choices made in their selection of an inclusive pedagogy for learning.

5.2.3 Pedagogy

Inclusive pedagogy was recognised by Corbett (2001) as the way of connecting all children to their own learning, the curriculum and the school. The results from the research at Shakespeare School demonstrate that their inclusive pedagogy also connected children to each other and their future. Once again there was an alignment found between the philosophy of the school regarding inclusion and progress, as discussed in Theme One, and their curriculum offer and pedagogical practice. An overview of Shakespeare’s pedagogical approach for all children was provided as part of the research results in Chapter Four, Figure 4.17.

The pedagogy of the school was not a specialised pedagogy for some children but a pedagogy for all children (Davis and Florian, 2004; Rix et al., 2009), providing the school’s response to
what Dunne (2009) saw as the creative challenge of supporting both inclusion and progress. By aligning the staff’s ‘inclusive mindset’ (Nind, 2005, p.8) to practice, learning opportunities were opened to all children through a rejection of fixed ability thinking, with pedagogy not limiting children’s learning (Florian, 2008; Hart et al., 2004). The school considered that children connected with their learning at a social, academic, creative and emotional level, and organised their pedagogy to support that understanding. The pedagogy of Figure 4.17 actioned their inclusive mindset through active learning (CIE, 2015) and creative learning (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004), avoiding the passive learning state that Csikszentmihalyi (2013) refers to as natural ‘entropy’ (p.11), instead stimulating what he called ‘flow’. (p.110).

Active learning (CIE, 2015) refers to an approach whereby children are positioned as active agents, central to their own learning, building their understanding through relevant, ‘hands on’ (T3) pedagogical and curriculum opportunities provided by staff and school. Creative learning also positions children at the centre of their learning and has been referred to as ‘learner inclusive’ (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004, p.40). Both learning approaches acknowledge their basis in constructivism as a learning theory, recognising the power of social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978; Bruner, 1983). Creative learning however acknowledges children’s imagination as supporting the connections made during learning, developing new knowledge through ‘possibility thinking’ (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004, p.41). The resulting school pedagogy is therefore in direct contrast to instructional models of pedagogy and rote learning that focuses upon preserving ‘the best that has been thought and said’ (DfE, 2013, p.6), and instead aims to stimulate new knowledge.

In contrast to the research findings of Lindsay (2007), staff participants’ at Shakespeare School rejected labels associated with difference and the removal of children for interventions associated with wave two and three of QFT. Instead, staff supported all children’s learning through wave one provision, providing a continuum of general teaching strategies of ‘appropriately differentiated tasks’ (T1). This approach supports what Lewis and Norwich (2004) recognised as inclusive pedagogy. The use of differentiation as a pedagogical approach has been seen as good practice for school improvement (Demie, 2013) whilst at the same time criticised by researchers as being at odds with the ethos of inclusion (Feiler and Gibson, 1999). However, Shakespeare School did not approach differentiation as a static concept whereby children were grouped with set suitable learning outcomes and expectations. In line with the philosophy of high expectations combined with a growth mindset for all children as discussed in Theme One, assessment information from the previous session informed subsequent planning for children’s learning. As a result, active learning through a series of enjoyable, hands on, differentiated and authentic (Hewitt and Tarrant, 2015) problem solving
challenges and tasks based upon the curriculum theme were offered to all children, as seen in Figure 4.13. Children selected their challenge as part of their agency, their ‘ownership’ (T1) in learning and their ‘personal causation’ (Bowman, 1982, p.16). Risk taking in learning was regarded as not only a feature of pedagogical engagement but evidence of inclusion occurring, whereby ‘children feel free to take risks’ (SM1). Cooper (2011) recognised that developing empathy, supported risk taking by providing confidence of how failure as part of that risk taking would be perceived by others. Staff empathy aligned to a philosophy of high expectations was also considered as supporting children to take the necessary risks in their learning to facilitate progress and regarded as contributing to children’s aspirational thinking:

‘If you are empathetic towards the needs of children then you know you have to have high expectations because you are doing such a disservice not to enable them to get as close to their potential as you can haven’t you. So I actually think there is a lack of empathy with the molly coddling approach that is over protective, that doesn’t allow them to take risks, that is not doing anybody any good is it?’ (SM3)

Activating all children to self-direct, take risks in their learning and problem solve was facilitated by high expectations based upon growth mindset, possibility thinking and supported by empathy, dialogic and active learning practices. T1 explained that process through the example provided within the results, whereby children’s learning and problem solving was seen as key:

‘Yesterday we had a lesson where they had to just log on, we were going to navigate our way to a web site. We had half an hour to do this and at the end of the lesson I still had children still trying to log on which really sounds quite mean but yes it was the first time, I said to my support staff today we are not going to step in and what we can do is give them the tools but at no point are we going to type their name in for them. We are going to show them what to do and then it is really up to them. I still had 2 children trying to log on at the end of the lesson but I think you have got to as how are you going to problem solve if someone always steps in and does it for you?’ (T1)

The school’s Holistic Intelligence framework supported metacognition and could be considered as embodied cultural capital developed as a resource and commodity for life. Once again, from within the framework empathy was regarded as the most valued skill in school:

You could ask any child in this school what is our favourite life skill and they will all say ‘empathy’, they know that it is a huge thing. (T4)

Claxton et al. (2011) also noted the relevance of empathy within their work on metacognition. Within Shakespeare School, the pedagogical strategies of collaboration with examples such as peer to peer bilingual support provided opportunities for empathy to be continually be
rehearsed, practiced and acknowledged. Robinson (2015) has called for teachers to provide children with such opportunities whereby they can learn to ‘draw on each other’s strengths and mitigate weaknesses’ (p.138), recognising that co-operative learning not only supports inclusive practice (Florian and Rouse, 2005) but for promotes resilience for future learning (Yeager & Dweck, 2012). As T1 explained:

‘... there was no sitting on the carpet it was over to the children, it was right you are going to sort yourselves now into 2 groups, what are you going to do?’

With over thirty languages spoken in school and eighty percent of children regarded as EAL, ‘sequential’ language acquisition (Devarakonda, 2013, p.85) was recognised by T4: ‘here the children almost use English as the common language you learn English to communicate to people from different ethnic background and it is motivation to want to learn’. At Shakespeare School the peer to peer language support, encouraged by a pedagogy activating talk as part of learning, also encouraged the community action of citizenship that Robinson (2015) referred to. This process can be seen to facilitate an understanding of difference as diversity enabling children to ‘empathise with other bilingual children and take the initiative to support them… and are less likely to be prejudiced’ (Devarakonda, 2013 p.80). Therefore, empathy was shown to be relevant for both inclusion and progression as it supported community development (Immordino-Yang, 2011; Spears, 2010) and risk taking in learning. As a skill it could be seen to play an important part in the resolution of the tension in Sfard’s model (1998) between children’s possession of knowledge and their social process of learning.

The school explained that children connected with their learning at a social, academic, creative and emotional level which supported further learning. They noted that children remembered learning for the future through emotional, memorable experiences, and utilised the Pixar film ‘Inside Out’ for staff training to share that message. Ofsted (2012) reported on the long term impact of such a learning experience whereby children reported that:

‘...their shell shock experience when learning about life in the trenches during World War I is something they will never forget.’ (p.8)

Whilst research in this area has mainly been restricted to adults, the impact of emotion on learning is supported by Cahill et al. (2001) who found that there was enhanced activity of the amygdala whilst viewing emotional films relative to more emotionally neutral films. Kilpatrick et al. (2003) reported that the amygdala influences the processes of long term memory storage and is activated by the experience of emotionally arousing events. Shakespeare School recognised the link to long term memory and were not afraid of utilising emotions to stir up the
interest and curiosity of children in their learning, which could be built upon and connected to deeper and future learning.

The curriculum and pedagogical features from Shakespeare School can be seen to have much in common with key characteristics identified from research into motivation involving computer games. Malone (1981) concluded that challenge, curiosity and fantasy supported the motivation of players to play games, with a proviso that the challenge, like Shakespeare School involved risk, with ‘goals whose attainment is uncertain’ (p.50). Prensky (2007) identifies the requirements of a motivating computer game include: rules, goals, outcomes, feedback, challenge, interaction and a story or representation. Not only are these present within the pedagogy of Figure 4.17 and the Creative Curriculum but also reflect the features of play as concluded by Burnard et al. (2006), of: immersion, innovation, risk taking, imagination, determination and intentionality. Reflected in the pedagogy of Shakespeare School, the features of play and computer games are seen as creating an enjoyment in learning that contributes to what Csikszentmihalyi (2013) refers to as ‘flow’ (p.110), whereby the quality of the learning experience kept those involved motivated to continue. Shakespeare School recognised the analogy with computer games and provided it as a metaphor for their own practice focused on engaging children whereby children are: ‘wanting to do better and being challenged to do better’ (SM1).

‘They never succeed because every time they reach the next level they go onto another level that is harder so as soon as they have reached what they think is the beacon of the challenge to get to, they love it they know the next level is going to be harder.’ (SM1)

The impact for children of the school’s approach was noted in their inspection with feedback from a parent: ‘I can honestly say my son never wants to miss a day’ (Ofsted, 2012, p.8)

5.2.4 Theme Two summary

The creative curriculum at Shakespeare School is the school’s response to the creative challenge for teachers in enabling both the inclusion of all their children and their progress in learning (Dunne, 2009). The choices made by the school in relation to their curriculum and pedagogy demonstrates an alignment between their philosophy of Theme One and their practice discussed in this theme, with the creative curriculum continuing their children centred approach. The creative curriculum provides a context and commodity that values all children (Hodkinson, 2010) by both responding to the diversity of the children in school (Slee, 1999) and engaging them in learning (Kellet and Nind, 2003) as part of a collective, with knowledge and skills aligned to the pedagogical practices as shown in Figure 4.17.
The discussion has provided an understanding of how Shakespeare School resolved the tension between curriculum models presented in Figure 2.3, as developed by Norwich (2013). The curriculum was shown to be children, as opposed to child centred, with the diversity of personal characteristics and skills valued within the social networks and collaboration that utilised what all children had in common. The curriculum was also knowledge centred, but rather than considering knowledge as a static concept that children merely reproduced, the curriculum focused upon developing knowledge and skills that would support them both as learners and citizens beyond school. The risk taking school had demonstrated that in developing their own curriculum they valued risk taking in learning as part of both progress and inclusion, with empathy seen as crucial to both collaboration and enabling children to feel confident to challenge themselves. Empathy was therefore seen as a skill that resolved the tension between a child’s possession of knowledge and their participation in the social process of learning and belonging identified by Sfard (1998). Engaging children in learning was recognised as not being automatic and resulting from children’s presence (Ellis and Tod, 2014), but as a pledge between children and staff through the creation of a shared childhood, utilising what children had in common and stimulated by stories, their senses, emotions, imagination and creativity. A combination of literature was recognised in support of the pedagogy at Shakespeare School, Robinson (2015) for creativity and citizenship, Burnard et al., (2006) for features of play, Prensky, (2007) for computer games and Kilpatrick et al., (2003) for their work on emotions and Dweck (2012) for mindset.

The methods by which Shakespeare Schools philosophy was aligned to and actioned in practice for children has been discussed within this theme, the way these are supported by and for staff and children through the leadership philosophies in school is discussed within the next theme.

5.3 Theme Three – Leadership
The final theme presented within the school Model of Figure 4.18 highlighted the features of Shakespeare School’s leadership approach. This identified transformative leadership consisting of servant, distributive, adaptive and ethical and authentic models of leadership. Davis (2005) explained that models of leadership reflect the concept of influence, therefore the discussion within Theme Three regarding leadership is relevant in order to inform how both inclusion and progress are influenced by leadership. In doing so this theme provides relevant information in order that: ‘best practice can be replicated and developed’ (Atttfield, 2000, p.25) and shared within this thesis. In their research in Norway, Flem and Keller (2005) found the successful inclusion of children was related to a school’s leadership, the results of
the research in Shakespeare School identified the specific leadership approaches and recognised that they utilised and developed the same central aspects for learning as the Holistic Intelligences. Staff engaged with and practised their own academic, social, emotional and creative learning in leadership, confirming and extending the findings of Nind (2005) who noted that inclusive leadership involved collaborative, reflective, problem solving and creative activity.

Within the research results of Theme One and Two progress was considered as a broader concept than attainment. In Theme Three an understanding of progress was extended beyond children to include the staff and the school, providing what McBeath and Dempster (2009) would consider as transformational leadership for learning and I will refer to as possibility thinking leadership. This extension to an understanding of progress was noted by staff when reflecting upon the school model:

‘... progress can be children, school, adults, it can be everything not just academic attainment.’ (HLTA4)

Inclusion was also extended within Theme Three of the results to a broader concept including the staff. Servant leadership was found to be what Leithwood et al. (2006) would describe as a ‘catalyst’ (p.4) for enabling a shared vision of inclusion and progress and I will refer to this as children centred leadership. This placed the transformational goal for its children at the centre of the team’s decision making and understanding. The common goal of transforming the lives of their children was seen to engage staff in the process of making it possible through collaborative leadership and active leadership whereby the leadership team ‘lead adults to lead the children’ (SM2) and children to lead the adults.

Figure 5.3 Summary of Theme Three discussion – Leadership
5.3.1 Children centred leadership

Bush and Glover (2014) argued that staff working in inclusive schools held a philosophy aligned to the values of inclusion. The discussion of Themes One and Two acknowledged this, and noted that the same inclusive values that promoted all children’s rights, entitlements and equal opportunities also demonstrated a commitment to progress as part of their allegiance to social justice. Additionally, the Holistic Intelligence framework highlighted the emotional skills children required which included: responsibility, integrity, forgiveness and compassion. These skills were demonstrated within the leadership of Shakespeare School, and placed children as central to its leadership philosophy. This centrality can be seen within the school’s choice of a servant leadership approach that was established in 1970 by Greenleaf, and recognised as sharing the school’s values of social justice. In Frick (2004), Greenleaf (1970), identified servant leadership as a philosophy and set of practices that arose naturally from the feeling people have who want to serve before making the conscious choice to lead. From their school profiles it was evident that five of the ten members of the leadership team had progressed from working as teaching assistants before training to become teachers and then joining the senior leadership team.

Within the interview responses staff acknowledged that serving children appeared central to their purpose as well as informing their practice:

‘The children are quite simply all we think about... putting the child first is the cornerstone of what we do and everything comes from that....we feed off what the children can do, what they need to work on so it is all about them. It’s not about Ofsted or about SAT results really, that happens as a result of making sure the children come first’ (T3)

Servant leadership has been acknowledged as occurring in organisations like Shakespeare School that support the least privileged and deprived in society. Spears (2002) found empathy was a key feature of this leadership philosophy and one that has already been acknowledged as part of the school’s philosophy and practice. SM3 noted the presence of servant leadership, which they saw as supporting the inclusion of both staff and children in Shakespeare School:

‘Most people want to be loved or liked, want to be respected, want to serve other people. Most people are happiest when they are helping others and I think that is the sort of atmosphere you have got to generate.’(SM3)

Yukl (2006), like Bush and Glover (2014), noted that leaders’ values were relevant in establishing and supporting inclusive practice and a commitment from members of a team. For values not to be regarded as tokenistic they needed to display real meaning through their
authenticity in action. West-Burnham (2010) describes this as leaders demonstrating that they can ‘walk the talk’ (p.26), and such authenticity of values was recognised by the alignment between the school’s philosophy in Theme One, the practices of Theme Two and children centred leadership. Potter and Hooper (2005) recognised the impact of galvanising the emotional alignment of members’ energies throughout an organisation was key to effective leadership. Examples were provided within the research results whereby staff modelled to children their real commitment of support and belief in what they were teaching and why they were teaching it. Staff were motivated to refrain from eating sugar for one month themselves in order to support the focus and authentic discussion with children in school around healthy eating. They were also encouraged to join the ten minute fitness sessions running for parents and children as part of their focus on healthy living and reducing childhood obesity:

‘Children need to be fit, healthy and fit. That is why we are a healthy eating school and all chocolate is banned in school as we need to be modelling to them appropriate ways of eating.’ (SM2)

The research results highlighted examples of respect for members of staff’s individual circumstances. In order to protect anonymity the examples have not been provided within this thesis but they demonstrated the same features of care, respect, collaboration, empathy and humane treatment that were shown to children. Staff participants shared the impact of these first-hand experiences that sustained their own sense of belonging within the school. This supports the work of Northouse (2012) who noted that ethical leadership promotes the same feelings of belonging that have been acknowledged within literature focused on inclusion (Oliver, 2000). Therefore, as recognised by Hoppey and McLeskey (2013) by staff exhibiting care and humanity it not only sustained relationships but created a community that shared those same values. Furthermore, as was noted in the relationships with children SM3 recognised the motivational impact of this for staff that would ultimately impact positively on others:

‘... most of the industrial world has discovered that if you look after your workforce you get the best out of them.’ (SM3)

Staff participants recognised the entwining of progress and inclusion in relation to their own experiences of inclusion in the school community and their own learning progress:

‘... it is a very friendly school, everyone knows each other and you can walk down the corridor and all the children will say hello to each other. When you are comfortable in a school it helps you to learn a lot as well.’ (TA1)
Shakespeare School leadership had generated a network of staff who at interview did not contradict each other in representing the philosophy of the school, their aims for children nor how this was enacted in practice. Hüttermann & Boerner (2011) argued that in developing a group of staff to share the same values, that group must also be activated through distributed and transformational leadership in order to avoid their dependency upon only the senior leaders to make the decisions. Therefore, just as children were encouraged to develop their own agency so too were staff.

5.3.2 Active leadership
Both staff and children were mobilised to provide expertise in Shakespeare School, developing, practising and modelling their academic skills. This was recognised as distributed leadership (Hutchins, 1995) and acknowledged by staff participants as a recognised approach within the school:

‘Everyone is seen as a leader and everyone has the same approach to leading, it is a team approach, it’s not a top down this is what you are going to do, it is distributed, servant leadership.’ (SM1)

The features of distributed leadership emphasise that leadership expertise is not exclusively placed with the school’s Principal or Head teacher. Rather, leadership is considered as the ‘sharing of influence and power among a group of individuals’ (Hodges 2016, p119). Grönn, (2000) argued that such a move raises a school’s capacity for improvement and in 2014 Ofsted encouraged schools to recognise this through developing their middle leaders to support student outcomes. The results of the research at Shakespeare School found that activating leadership went beyond senior and middle management teams and was a responsibility of all staff and children.

Children were provided with responsibilities in school both to support their own agency as well as engage in their commitment to support others. Children were outwardly valued through the roles they undertook and which acknowledged their expertise as children and learners. These roles included: bilingual assistants, ambassadors, school councillors and digital leaders, as well as informing and supporting staff reflection and analysis on curriculum matters such as the evaluation of topics. T3 noted:

‘I hope they [the children] would think they are the leaders... I would say they think they are important and they push us too, they challenge us and make sure we are doing what is right for them as well.’ (T3)
In the same way children were valued for their learning expertise so too were staff, and T2 emphasised that this included those who were newly qualified and in training:

‘We encourage them to share their ideas because they are going to be picking things up on their course that we might not have heard of either.’ (T2)

Staff development provided a personalised curriculum for staff to support their own development and what staff could offer to children. In the same way that the school’s creative curriculum acknowledged the diversity of all children and engaged them in a broad range of learning to reflect that, so too did the approach for all staff’s CPD. SM3 commented:

‘... all staff are different so you have to cater for the staff needs as well as the children’s needs... I think in terms of inclusion it is the same for staff, you somehow have got to pull them in on something they are interested in and what they can offer the school and utilise those. So we have [name] who is a piano player, [name] is a piano player, other people brilliant at the costume side, the corridor side, so that is all part of including people in the whole school vision and aims. You have just got to give everyone access to whatever it is, whether it is CPD curriculum, to be the best they can be.’ (SM3)

Staff development also included being taught by children which HLTA3 happily acknowledged, ‘The children who go to coding club are teaching me how to do it’. In the same way as the school’s pedagogy supported children to develop their critical evaluation skills (Hattie, 2012) so too were staff supported to develop theirs. The school non-negotiables directed staff to research, this in turn informed their critical reflection, evaluation and analysis as recognised within the academic skills of the Holistic Intelligence framework:

‘Be proactive in your approach ... question ideas with professional dialogue... use PPA time to improve your practice and develop your skill set ... Bring new ideas to the fore based upon sound research but only implement these following the correct procedures.’ (Staff Handbook, p.16).

Heifetz and Linsky, 2004 acknowledged that such reflective practice supports organisational progress. Likewise, the leadership team modelled research informed school practice as they considered the importance of recognising and utilising all team members’ expertise for the benefits of teaching and learning. This practice modelled the co-agency of learning and co-creation of understanding referred to in Theme One whereby children and staff shared and created knowledge together (Jeffrey and Woods, 2003), a belief in a growth mindset and modelled the effort required in aligning staff for such transformation when seeking to alter the what is to the what might be (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004, p.41). T3 provided an example:
‘Well recently they (SM Team) have just done a support staff questionnaire, the support staff filled it in and out and it asked them where do you think you are most effective in terms of which lessons which parts of the lessons, what would help them to be more effective and like what they think their strengths are so we had a staff meeting on Wednesday about it and (name) and the leadership team collated all that data, they put it together and fed back to teaching staff and then we were able to provide our feedback on how we think that should progress.’ (T3)

As with the children, staff were encouraged to take risks in their learning and practice as part of their free thinking ‘professional freedom’ (SM2). Teachers and support staff reported their enjoyment in learning, ‘that push to make yourself better’ (T3), the trust of colleagues that supported learning and the impact on children as a result:

‘… you are always learning something you are always feeling you are developing yourself and if you enjoy that and are passionate about that it gets pushed onto the children and their attitude to learning.’ (T4)

T4 described learning as ‘a bit obsessive’ at times, driven by a desire to understand. This obsession as T4 acknowledged could be considered to be the experience of the ‘flow’ of learning that staff encouraged in their children (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013 p.110) and was discussed in Theme Two:

‘I remember out of interest trying to work out how stars are made and suddenly you realise you have a passion for it.’ (T4)

In order to avoid distributive leadership leading to independent action, the research literature has argued that collaborative learning opportunities are important (Corbett, 2001; Nind, 2005; Lindsey, 2007). Within the research results collaborative leadership was recognised as part of the school’s practice and supported not only the social network for staff, but enabled them to build, practise and model their own social skills to children.

5.3.3 Collaborative leadership

Collaboration was reported as occurring at whole staff level and within year group teams, T1 reported: ‘I don’t think I have seen staff work together ever as much as I have here. The team ethos is fantastic’. Staff confirmed that they themselves were part of the school's definition of inclusion and the same way of treating difference between children was recognised in the treatment of staff: ‘We think inclusion extends to adults as well, … as a TA I feel no less valued than HLTA2 does as an HLTA, and as T6 does as a teacher’(TA2).
The school’s non-negotiables emphasised the power of teamwork and the impact of independent action to the larger team:

‘Support your team and school colleagues. Our school succeed from working together and not individuals working alone.’ (Staff handbook, p.16)

Within the interviews and the focus group staff participants referred to learning from each other, utilising talk as a tool to support collaboration and valuing all staff input. The benefits of this collaboration was recognised by T2 as increasing capacity, and reflected Bourdieu’s concept of social capital as a resource or commodity accumulated through everyone’s involvement:

‘... you will have eight members of staff planning together, that is a powerful tool which is the size of a standard primary school really. Eight adults all putting their creativity and input in, those ideas and experiences with the lessons, and for staff that grows with them...it does make life easier for yourself being that part of a team planning together, sharing also learning ideas and getting to see people’s ideas you wouldn’t have thought of it.’ (T2)

The impact of this collaboration led T2 to reflect upon the quality of teaching, noting that due to the effort of the team: ‘I think it would be pretty much impossible to do anything less than a good lesson in this school’. The staff handbook identified that consistency through collaboration created the success of the school. Throughout the interviews staff participants identified consistency of practice between and within the year groups as important in supporting children’s learning in relation to curriculum knowledge and pedagogy:

‘It’s that consistent approach to whenever you are teaching a semi colon you are teaching it in the same way. Whenever you are teaching a structure of a sentence you are teaching it in the same way. Whether it is a teacher, TA, any member of staff you go to it is a consistent approach to the learning of sentences and punctuation and sentence structure and paragraphing.’ (SM1)

‘... as staff we are all on the same page, there is a consistent approach in literacy, in maths so you are not going from one lesson where you are doing the column method for multiplication and the next one they are doing the gird method and the next one they are doing Napier’s bone. So you are building on learning.’ (T2)

It was also recognised in relation to staff role modelling team work and social skills as part of their behaviour:

‘Children pick up on everything, I know 100% they would know if there was friction between me and a TA, they would pick up on that so it has a huge impact because they know we are a team so if they come to one of us they will get the same reaction as if they go to someone else.’ (T1)
Both Corbett (2001) and Rix (2005) argued that leadership that supported inclusion required a shared understanding of its goal and a commitment from staff. Just as T4 talked of the children as a ‘collective’, collaboration was required as part of school leadership practice that in turn supported that common understanding of what SM3 referred to as a ‘collective mindset and a collective positive emotional state’. T1 referred to staff unity of a shared vision towards the goal of transforming children’s lives within their work that involved the belonging of togetherness and the focus on progress:

‘... it doesn’t matter whether you, a cleaner, dinner lady everybody is included and we all have the same ethos that we are working towards. I think it is that feeling that we are all in it together and we all have a purpose we are working towards.’

(T1)

Inclusion and progress were entwined in the goal staff had for children, this goal was supported by the same creative thinking skills in staff as were taught to children.

5.3.4 Possibility thinking leadership

Adaptive leadership, which was presented within the research results, noted that in order for an organisation to survive and improve it is required to evolve and adapt over time. Adaptation, like the emphasis on children’s learning in Theme One, has a long term focus that builds on the past, experiments and then reflects in order to succeed (Heifetz, 2004). As a result this involves responses at a whole school level as well as an individual staff level of change. Such an approach requires the leadership to provide the conditions for members of the organisation, in this case the staff at Shakespeare school, to develop the same growth mindset children were supported to demonstrate in Theme One and Two. In the same way as staff supported children’s creative skills to develop their ‘possibility thinking’ (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004 p.41) so too were staff supported to develop theirs. The results identified that in order to transform children’s lives the staff recognised that this required them individually as well as a staff to take a proactive and forward thinking approach to transformation, in order to do things better. SM2 referred to this as a ‘restless optimism’ that was seen to support such progress: ‘we are always trying push it, to find a better way of doing things, if we find a really good way we obviously stick with it until we find a better way of doing it’ (SM2).

Examples of whole school organisational change were presented within the results, such as the timings of the school day: ‘we can’t have seven hundred children being picked up at ten past three’ (SM2). The development of the school’s own curriculum was also provided as an example of school progression within the results. SM1 referred to such examples of change and progress as examples of the staff’s high expectations, likening it to engaging in a never
ending computer game of challenge, one where you are constantly ‘challenged to go a little bit further’.

Within the results staff acknowledged risk taking associated with progress, HLTA4 reflected that whilst ‘It’s about risk taking’ there was an ethos in school that ensured people were not afraid to take the risk and make a mistake. HLTA4 continued, ‘if you make a mistake it doesn’t matter does it. You learn from it and move on. It’s about adapting to situations and having some common sense’. The notion of being provided with the space to take risks and the backing of colleagues without fear of reprisals was presented by staff in the same way they encouraged children to do the same. SM1 reported that, ‘There’s the feeling you can give it a go and you are not going to be told off if it goes wrong’, this was confirmed by SM4, ‘I think the staff are confident to adapt so that is how it works so well’.

Staff recognised the link between learning and transformation through possibility thinking was not always as evident in other schools:

‘We are really forward thinking, when you are in a place you don’t realise it until you go somewhere else and I have been on courses and you hear other teachers talking and I am almost biting my tongue and it is almost archaic the way they are thinking. It’s just not forward thinking, they are not open.’(T2)

Such an adaptive and responsive school system had been considered by Corbett and Slee (2000) as a requirement for fostering an ‘inclusive educational culture’ (p.134). However, the school was also proactive in nature, with creative and possibility thinking modelling aspirational thinking to both staff and children. The results of the research as presented in the model in Figure 4.19 and discussed in this theme recognises Shakespeare School as a proactive and a responsive problem solving organisation, aligned with the philosophy and practice that is both children centred and children informed. Skritic (1991) refers to such an organisation as an adhocracy. The Holistic Intelligence framework made up of key academic, emotional, social and creative skills could be seen as commodities within the organisation that supported leadership capabilities for staff and children’s inclusion and progress.

5.3.5 Theme Three summary
Progress and inclusion continued to be entwined as part of the school’s response to support the transformation of children’s lives. Within the school model, leadership remained authentic to that goal and extended the understanding of progress to include both the staff and the school. An understanding of inclusion was also extended to recognise the inclusion of staff and children within leadership whereby everyone was valued and contributed and belonged
to a team who supported each other. The leadership approaches within Theme Three were aligned to the school philosophy of Theme One and the methods by which they were practiced in Theme Two. The skills of the Holistic Intelligence framework were developed, practised and modelled by staff as part of the school’s approach to leadership and therefore experienced first-hand by those responsible for teaching them to children.

The philosophy of leadership in school modelled the same understanding and treatment of difference to staff as it did to children, the same encouragement to take risks in learning and to be challenged as it did with children, the same focus on collaboration for co-creating learning and creativity for generating next steps. As a result, like the active learning they promoted for their children, staff experienced the benefits of the skills they taught. Through the focus on active leadership not only were academic skills supported, but subject knowledge was also enhanced. Staff reported their openness to learning from others, including children, and immersion in their own learning as part of the ‘flow’ of learning (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013, p.110) as acknowledged in Theme Two of this chapter. T1 noted the necessary strength of feeling that supported flow and the feeling of membership of the school:

‘I think that the staff and the people who are employed here are passionate people and you have to be to work here. It is the kind of school where people genuinely care about being here.’ (T1)

The research at Shakespeare School led to an agreement with Flem and Keller (2005) that the successful inclusion of children is related to a school’s leadership. The research however has provided detail of how this has been achieved in Shakespeare School and the relevance of the first-hand learning experiences of staff. Furthermore, a combination of leadership research was presented as relevant to the school, this included: Heifetz and Linsky (2004) for adaptive leadership, Hodges (2016) for distributive leadership, Greenleaf (1970) for servant leadership, Spear (2002) for empathy in leadership, Yukl (2006) for authentic leadership and Northouse (2012) for ethical leadership.

As a school that converted to an academy following their successful Ofsted inspection, they have been free as an organisation to take risks in their learning and development, with their children and context at the heart of their policy. Bottery (2001) and Bush (2011) argued that staff who recognise their context within policy are most likely to support it, Shakespeare School staff also recognised the relevance of policy to their own progress and inclusion. SM3 pointed to the dangers not only for leadership approaches in school but government approaches in supporting school excellence:
‘If we were in school and we were being autocratic and top down like the government and like the new regional commissioners are, it’s all about fear. If you are being like that in a school and you are issuing letters of warning and threat that if you don’t improve, the school will get worse.’ (SM3)

Unlike progress, the concept of inclusion could not yet be extended within this research to include the school within a wider system. Education as a public service since the 1944 Education Act has undergone a form of privatisation, with academies like Shakespeare School now receiving financial resources directly from government. The system of education no longer models inclusion within a ‘collective’ of the local authority. With accountability passed from government to school, a school’s survival now lies with the quality assurance procedures measuring academic outcomes and the judgements of Ofsted inspections. In doing so schools are placed upon a bell curve of normality and those labelled as in need are marginalised and treated as deviant with a removal of their rights. Like the medical model of inclusion those marginalised schools are segregated, placed under surveillance with intervention procedures that can force their membership of another group of schools where their passive submission is required in order for them to change. The research within Shakespeare School does not argue against accountability for the use of public money, but rather highlights that the approach taken to include schools within a competitive system directly models to staff how difference is treated.

5.4 Summary of the discussion
Dunne (2009) argued that teachers were presented with a creative challenge when managing the tension between children’s inclusion and their progress. From the research at Shakespeare School, a model as seen in Figure 4.19 has been provided that highlights the characteristics of both an effective and inclusive school. Within this chapter each theme of the school’s model has been discussed, challenging an understanding of how inclusion and progress are considered and the methods by which they are both supported in practice. Shakespeare school can be seen as a transformational organisation demonstrating an alignment between the school’s philosophy, or its hidden curriculum, with their creative curriculum and leadership, providing a holistic, joined up approach with their children and their learning at its centre.

This holistic approach remains necessary for both concepts, as inclusion and progress in school were part of the same transformational process for children and staff. Progress was regarded not as attainment or outcomes but about transforming lives within and beyond school, not just for learning but for children as citizens. Learning across the Holistic Intelligence
framework, like knowledge, mindset and habitus was not regarded as a static concept, but as transformative, ‘possibility thinking’ (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004 p. 41), whereby both agency and learning within a network of others valued. Inclusion was broader than children with SEN, including all children and staff as a collective to which they all belonged. The inclusive ethos, pedagogy, curriculum and leadership approach of Shakespeare School recognised children’s rights, entitlements and the value of difference, with difference regarded as diversity rather than deviancy. Empathy was regarded as a key skill and leadership skill in supporting both inclusion and progress by providing an understanding of others, supporting a sense of belonging as well as being utilised to support high expectations based upon a growth mindset and the freedom to take risks in learning. Within the humane context of the school risk taking was seen as a sign of inclusion, a freedom to learn, consider possibilities and aspire. The creation of allness within school was supported by the provision of an engaging, responsive and shared childhood for children, one that they all had in common through their creative curriculum, providing the humane and motivational context, conditions and opportunities for inclusion and progress in learning to take place so that all children could thrive. As a result, Shakespeare School resolved the tension between a child’s possession of knowledge and their participation in the social process of learning and belonging identified by Sfard (1998) and the tensions between the focus within curriculums as indicated in Figure 2.3 and developed by Norwich (2013).

In answering the research question and analysing the school’s understanding of inclusion the medical and social models were seen as inadequate, with the medical model legacy of diagnosis and labelling not recognised and the power of diversity in school not represented by the social model. Instead a combination of Sen’s capability approach with the work of Bourdieu and children’s rights was identified as an appropriate model for inclusion that recognises the methods by which inequalities can be responded to within school using a framework that does not ignore the physical, social, economic, cultural and political dimensions of children’s lives outside school. As a result, rather than school being ‘the (my emphasis) engine of social justice and economic growth’ (DfE, 2016a, p.8), it is positioned as an invaluable part of the whole engine in a child’s life that can be evaluated as a whole for the impact it has for maintaining, reproducing or ameliorating the inequalities children face. Norwich (2013) highlighted that Sen’s capability approach was incomplete in that it did not take into account social power, constraints on choice and how the dilemma of difference is resolved in practice, suggesting that it would benefit from being ‘integrated with other approaches’ (Norwich, 2003, p.20). My research at Shakespeare School has responded to this and provided a detailed example whereby the issues of agency, choice, and diversity have been resolved in practice.
The discussion highlighted the practical consequences of this research, provided through the holistic model of Figure 4.19 and the rich description and detailed account of the humane methods by which Shakespeare School resolves inequality within its walls. A bespoke set of teachers’ standards was shared within the thesis in Figure 4.3 and discussed for its support of children’s entitlement to be treated with dignity, respect and provided with the opportunities of a full and relevant curriculum. An overview of the school’s creative curriculum, as seen in Figure 4.8, was discussed for its provision of a curriculum that both responded to the diversity of children and engaged them, utilising the strengths all children have as children. The pedagogical practices as shared in Figure 4.17 were discussed for their choice in connecting children to their learning and in doing so provided the combination of work that informed an understanding of the school’s practice. A combination of literature was provided in discussing the pedagogy at Shakespeare School, Robinson (2015) for creativity and citizenship, Burnard et al., (2006) for features of play, Prensky, (2007) for computer games and Kilpatrick et al., (2003) for their work on emotions and Dweck (2012) for mindset. The Holistic Intelligence framework in Figure 4.10 was discussed and regarded as central to the philosophy, curriculum and leadership in school, providing children and staff with the tools and first-hand experiences for developing both inclusion and learning.

Leadership philosophies beyond those advocated by government were discussed for what they offered to understanding the focus of leadership in support of inclusion and progress. The combination of leadership philosophies were presented, including the works of: Greenleaf (1970) on Servant leadership, Spear (2002) on empathy in leadership, Northouse (2012) on ethical leadership, Yukl (2006) on authentic leadership, Hodges (2016) on distributive leadership and Heifetz and Linsky (2004) on adaptive leadership were considered as part of Shakespeare School’s joined up approach to ‘walk the talk’. (West-Burnham, 2010, p.26). In summary, due to the alignment between their philosophy, practice and leadership Shakespeare School was found to be a transformational organisation, whereby all children and staff are welcomed and empowered by membership of a creative, academic, social and emotional learning collective.
Chapter Six
Conclusion

At the house competition children were in mixed age group, house teams throughout classrooms and corridors. Individual scores contributed to a joint score and it was organised so that children modelled and practised a Holistic Intelligence... throwing a ball across a table needed to ensure it bounced once and then landed in a bucket, working on accuracy. Competition between the teams was evident but there was a lack of competition within the teams, replaced instead by collaboration and suggestions of the best place on the table to aim the bounce, providing the Holistic Intelligence term accuracy with a connection, an image and physical memory for when it is met again in lessons.’ (Research diary extract)

Through its holistic approach Shakespeare School enables a diverse school population with above average levels of special educational needs, economic and social deprivation to thrive and achieve high levels of educational outcomes. Through detailed and systematic, scientific inquiry this thesis has answered the original question. ‘How does Shakespeare School support both the inclusion and progress of all children?’ The findings demonstrate that it achieves this through being a transformational organisation, that due to the alignment between their philosophy, practice and leadership all children and staff are welcomed and empowered by membership of a creative, academic, social and emotional learning collective. Within school the term inclusion has been shown to refer to the holistic process and mindset by which all children and staff are valued as part of that learning collective and provided with real opportunities. Progress is regarded as the daily and long term transformation of lives so that children thrive supported by a mindset of possibility thinking, learning and agency, and remains part of the same process of inclusion.

The research has provided both theoretical and practical contributions, extending the conceptual framework of Figure 3.6 to that seen in Figure 6.1 and structured as follows;
One: Research summary and contribution
Two: Limitations of the research
Three: Implications of the research
Four: Areas for further research
Five: Reflections by the researcher
Six: Final words

6.1 Research summary and contribution
Government in England has provided all primary schools with the responsibility for ‘achieving excellence’ in order to resolve inequalities in society and support the country’s ‘economic
growth’ (DfE, 2016, p.8) by ensuring all children achieve age related expected educational outcomes in specific subject areas regarded as core. Furthermore, the outcomes and progress children make in achieving them provide the metrics by which all children’s inclusion within education can be judged (Ofsted, 2000), and through their inspection process the metrics by which Ofsted can hold primary schools, as opposed to government, to account. In doing so government has not only been able to distance itself from its own accountability but also the means by which children's outcomes are achieved, with schools encouraged to find their own ‘best possible solutions’ (DfE, 2016, p12). The government document Educational Excellence Everywhere (DfE, 2016) therefore provides a symbol of inclusion (Skritic, 1991), with the rejection of inclusion as a never ending process (Ainscow, 2005) and ongoing journey, and instead regarded as nothing more than attainment. By equating educational outcomes with inclusion as opposed to the process by which they are achieved, it enables practices to be justifiable by results however difference between children is considered, managed and modelled, and whether those practices support all children’s rights and entitlements or not. The research at Shakespeare School has challenged this understanding of inclusion and provided practical contributions that recognise the methods by which inequality is resolved matters for inclusion and progress in school, as well as having real meaning for children beyond those walls.

The results of the research at Shakespeare School identified that inclusion and progress was a whole school endeavour and joined up approach involving children and staff. The school model of Figure 4.19 represents the school’s creative and transformative approach for children, with the key characteristics shared of a school that is regarded as both an effective and inclusive learning environment. The alignment between children’s rights, entitlements and consideration of difference to the aspects of the creative curriculum and leadership philosophies, provided the approach by which tensions between inclusion and progress were resolved. As a consequence, children and staff were enabled to take risks in their learning, with the resulting educational outcomes evidence of an effective and inclusive approach rather than the outcomes regarded as inclusion per se.

Shakespeare School’s model supports social justice, but rather than viewing progress and inclusion through the narrow metrics of core subject outcomes, social justice is enabled through the provision of a shared childhood of exciting and interesting experiences and opportunities, providing all children with a common currency of skills and knowledge for inclusion and progress beyond school. The joined up, holistic approach of the school enables children and staff to experience first-hand, authentic and positive social justice in action. Furthermore, that justice was found to be based upon all children’s entitlements and rights as
children and the differences between children, including their circumstances, not considered as deviancy but a celebration of the diversity of their collective to which they all belong. This was regarded as not only preparing children for society as citizens with knowledge, skills and a network to support them within it, but for society to benefit from their contribution and understanding of the humane treatment of others as a result.

The practical consequences of this research have been shared, providing a detailed account of the school's model of Figure 4.19 and discussing the aligned characteristics of what makes Shakespeare School an effective and inclusive school, and why that matters. The discussion drew attention to the hidden curriculum within the centralised Teachers' Standards (DfE, 2011) that legitimised and modelled to children what and who is valued in school, the opportunities available to children and how they and others may be treated. Through the school’s non-negotiables that were aligned to their consideration of children, the creative curriculum and leadership, transformational and ‘possibility thinking’ for inclusion and progress was seen as practiced and modelled (Craft and Jeffrey, 2004, p.41) so that all children, learning and opportunities were valued and treated with empathy, respect and dignity.

The sharing of the school’s creative curriculum in detail highlighted how and why staff provided children with a relevant and imaginative context and purpose for learning, fostering children’s creativity, enjoyment of and curiosity in learning. The truffle moments within the curriculum reinforced that collective belonging through the provision of a shared childhood of experiences. Children and childhood were evident within the curriculum, providing all children with what Thomas and Loxley (2007) argued as recognition of themselves and their identity in support of their collective belonging. The Holistic Intelligence framework provided detail of the skills seen as supporting children’s progress, aspiration and inclusion, providing a currency for their academic, emotional, social and creative success within the school collective and society. The research also provided an overview of the teachers’ inquiry based pedagogical practices and why the focus on challenge, explanation, engagement and exploration supported learning for all children and their connection with the curriculum.

The research highlighted the combination of works that informed the pedagogical approach in school. This included: Robinson (2015) for creativity and citizenship, Burnard et al., (2006) for features of play, Prensky, (2007) for computer games and Kilpatrick et al., (2003) and Csikszentmihalyi (2013) for his work on flow. The research also acknowledged the contribution that Dweck’s work of growth or fixed mindset brings to the meaning behind high expectations and the impact this had for the relationship between inclusion and progress. Whilst Glazzard (2013) argued that no one is likely to advocate low expectation, the work of Dweck (2012)
enabled the fundamental difference between high expectations based upon growth or fixed mindset to be discussed and why that remains important for both inclusion and progress. The schools approach to learning and the Holistic Intelligences were found to be not solely for the use of children, the leadership philosophies of the school ensured staff were also actively engaged, experiencing first-hand the skills and the processes they had responsibility for teaching.

As a school that converted to an academy following their successful Ofsted inspection, Shakespeare School was free as an organisation to transform, to take risks in their own learning and development, putting their children and their context at the heart of their transformation. The research at Shakespeare School demonstrated an agreement with Flem and Keller (2005) that the successful inclusion of children is related to a school’s leadership. The detail provided within this thesis explained how and why inclusion and leadership have been considered and actioned in Shakespeare School. This thesis has provided examples of how relevant leadership philosophies beyond that of distributive leadership have been combined and utilised in practice, with reference made to the work of: Greenleaf (1970) on servant leadership, Spear (2002) for empathy in leadership, Northouse (2012) on ethical leadership, Yukl (2006) on authentic leadership and Heifetz and Linsky (2004) on adaptive leadership, detailing their implementation and impact on children, staff and the school.

The research at Shakespeare School highlighted a school model that not only resolved the tension between a child’s possession of knowledge and their participation in the social process of learning and belonging as identified by Sfard (1998), but also the tensions between the focus within curriculums as indicated in Figure 2.3 and developed by Norwich (2013). In answering the research question the medical and social models of inclusion were seen as inadequate. Instead, a model that combined Sen’s capability approach with the work of Bourdieu and children’s rights was suggested as recognising that the methods by which inequalities are resolved in schools matter and is not isolated from the physical, social, economic, cultural and political dimensions of children’s lives outside school. My research responded to the criticisms Norwich (2013) presented of Sen’s capability approach for inclusion by integrating the work of Sen and Bourdieu with children’s rights and providing a detailed example of practice at Shakespeare School whereby the issues of agency, choice, and diversity have shown to be resolved. The contributions of this research have therefore been added to the original conceptual framework of Figure 3.6 to that which is now presented in Figure 6.1.
6.1.1 Post research conceptual framework

*Research and practical contributions provided within this thesis

Figure 6.1 Post research conceptual framework
Shakespeare’s holistic model of inclusion and progress has been added to the centre where previously this had remain unrecorded and the contributions of the research added, with an asterix marking those additions.

6.2 Limitations of the research

The validity and robustness of my research remained a priority throughout, with limitations of the research considered and discussed in detail in Chapter Three. Those considerations were not only documented but informed the decision making process prior to undertaking the research, rather than considering them solely post research. The choice and then final selection of Shakespeare School as a single case study was part of the rationale viewed as critical in answering the research question, maximising what could be learnt from its in-depth and detailed study in understanding the uniqueness of the school in its entirety (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Flyvberg, 2006). The selected data collection methods were chosen following the consideration of alternatives, with two phases of data collection, a range of methods and points of analysis as identified in Figure 3.5. This strengthened both the credibility of the research prior to its commencement and the value of the contributions detailed above, and now included within the conceptual framework of Figure 6.1.

Qualitative research provides reliability through credibility and what Stake (1994) refers to as ‘safeguarding the trip’ (p.241). I actioned this firstly through the design of my research to include the internal validity processes within it. This involved the multiple sources of data collection, participant checking throughout the planning phase and both phases of the data collection, recording reflexive long term observations within my research diary and utilising a critical friend to support peer examination as well as theory and investigator triangulation (Merriam, 1998). This approach ensured that opportunities were taken throughout to challenge the analysis and explanations being developed within the research, an approach aimed at falsification rather than verification (Flyvberg, 2006). This approach continued during and after the initial writing and then rewriting of the thesis, through regularly presenting the research at research forums and conferences, inviting challenge and continuing to keep abreast of the research of others. Secondly, further safeguarding was provided through the level of detail included throughout the research, from my position as a researcher, to the detail of the research design, the results and their analysis within the discussion, the conclusion reached and context informed contributions shared. Those contributions, already shared within this chapter and detailed within Chapters Three and Four support what Stake (1995) refers to as ‘naturalistic generalizations’, whereby readers can understand what makes Shakespeare School unique and important through transferring the applicability of findings to their own situation and understandings (Firestone, 1993).
Whilst recognised as a limitation, parental participants weren’t sought for ethical and financial reasons. However, the photographs and comments from the children’s research project with their teacher were included as documentation within the research results. The data was considered as providing a minimal level of participation data, according to Hart’s (1995) ladder of participation based upon Article 31 of the UNCRC. As a vulnerable group, that data children provided will also be removed prior to publication of the thesis, therefore some data will be lost to the final published piece of research. It is therefore wholly appropriate to identify effectively capturing children’s voices, as well as those of their parents, as an area for further research.

6.3 Implications of the research

This thesis has provided a unique and detailed account of research undertaken in a school that has not been studied in this way previously. The contributions of this research have been summarised in section 6.1 with an overview of those contributions provided within Figure 6.1. At a time when government rhetoric and policy focuses on, values and holds schools to account for the impact on children’s educational outcomes, the research undertaken at Shakespeare School evidences its holistic approach to providing all children with positive experiences of learning that enable them to thrive academically, emotionally, socially and creatively.

The research is currently being disseminated both locally and nationally. At a local level the research has been presented to the governors of the school and three local head teacher groups, sharing the research and holistic model through their networks, including two academy chains. It has also been presented to, and informed the subsequent discussion with, the local authority EAL group that was set up with the aim of supporting equitable outcomes for children within the city whose first language is not English. The school model of Figure 4.4 and a summary of the results and discussion have been provided for the school for use within their work with two large teacher training providers and provided to staff from other schools undertaking vision visits. The school has found that often visitors experience and understand the visual impact of the school environment but less so the layers of joined up thinking from which it developed and now contributes as part, but not all, of the whole approach. As a result, the school model and explanation acts as a tool in support of practitioner and whole school reflection enabling them to take decisions that support a more holistic and bespoke approach of joined up thinking and action to meet the needs of their children, staff and communities in their locality.

At a national level the research has been presented at the BERA British Curriculum Forum (BCF) event. Such a forum, along with publication of the research, provides the opportunity to deliver an evidence informed challenge to national policy that utilises a medical model of
inclusion on which to base an understanding of social justice that is then equated with social mobility, and sanctions the removal of entitlements from and marginalisation of children based upon their inequalities. The research has also been presented at two Higher Education (HE) providers through conferences and their associated journals for staff and student researchers as well as students on primary education courses. As a result of these presentations follow up visits from the universities to the school have taken place and in one case now contributes to their course delivery for pedagogy and creativity. The school has recently hosted a curriculum research visit by Ofsted and a regional commissioner event for the eastern area, the model resulting from the research was utilised as part of the school’s explanation of their practice. The research has also been shared with Teresa Cremin and the Creative People and Places programme who are about to undertake a project within the same school.

As a contribution to the discussion regarding the quality specifications within the government’s Higher Education Teaching Excellence Framework (DfE, 2016d), I have disseminated this research at a teaching and learning research conference in the HE Institution in which I teach. With national policy for HE now being increasingly aligned to schools, not only does the research provide a reflective tool for use at modular, course and faculty level it provides a positive example of such specifications, for example personalisation and student engagement, in practice. As a result, this research will contribute to the continuing development of the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (HE) within my institution. This programme supports all new staff and the research will inform discussions regarding the treatment of student differences when focused upon achieving positive outcomes for all students.

6.4 Areas for further research

Article 12 of the UNCRC establishes the rights of children to express their views on matters which affect them. With the concept of inclusion based upon a rights based model within education then research in which knowledge about children is constructed should therefore recognise and welcome their active participation within it. This would be a useful step in gaining children’s valuable insights and perspectives (Tangen, 2009). The government policy, Special educational needs and disability code of practice: 0 to 25 years, calls for staff to listen to children’s views and ‘any concerns raised by children themselves’ (DfE, 2015, p.79). However, gathering children’s views in this way is still considered as non-participation, with it emerging at best as a degree of non-participation referred to as *tokenistic* within the participation ladder as developed by Hart (1995). In order for children’s rights of participation and expression of views to be recognised within future research, the degree of agency regarding initiation of the project, consultation and decision making should be established both for children and adults. This could usefully provide a model for government and schools as to how to ensure children’s involvement
in policy such as in the Code of Practice moves beyond the tokenistic illusion of listening, to one that has real meaning for everyone involved. Shakespeare School has currently not identified how they will evaluate the impact of introducing the Holistic Intelligence framework. This therefore provides an opportunity not only for children to research the impact it has had on them and staff, but also to investigate further any potential link between the work of Bourdieu and Sen’s capability model from children’s perspectives.

The definition of progress within the research was extended to include schools. With accountability passed from government to school, a school’s survival now lies with the quality assurance procedures that measure academic outcomes and the judgements of Ofsted inspections. In doing so schools are placed upon a bell curve of normality and those labelled as in need, or in special measures, are marginalised and treated as deviant with a removal of their rights. Like the medical model of inclusion those marginalised schools are segregated, placed under surveillance with intervention procedures that can force their membership of another group of schools where their passive submission is required and risk taking avoided in order for them to change. Therefore, whilst the definition of progress can be extended to schools the definition of inclusion cannot. Where once education was considered a public service with common values shared in order to support a democratic society (Haydon, 2007), the privatisation of education has led to the opportunity for schools to share values that will ensure their own survival. As Shakespeare School prepares to form a MAT, continuing the research within the Trust it creates as a longitudinal study will provide research evidence of that policy in practice.

6.5 Reflections by the researcher

Better Late Than Never...
Discovering your inner world
Learning to welcome it, roll it around
Feeling the fusion of thoughts in waiting
That rest in your veins too (Research diary extract)

On paper this research appears to have taken six years, however I recognise that it has taken considerably longer to develop the research from an initial experience thirty years ago. The research training and texts such as Denzin and Lincoln (1994) extended my knowledge and understanding of the philosophical and methodological perspectives I brought to and utilised within the research. The doctoral training also provided the opportunity to increase my understanding of the complexities of case study design and the alignment of my research within a constructivist paradigm to Stake (1995) and Merriam (2009) as opposed to the postpositivist
The use of the research framework of Figure 3.1 proved invaluable in highlighting the research skills I was required to develop and the potential contribution to academic and professional knowledge to be made by answering the research question.

When I first started the research I was struck by the impact of reliving the experience of diagnosing the degree of Down syndrome in children over thirty years ago. Through the research at Shakespeare School it has enabled me to critically analyse that experience, viewing policy and practice from a researcher’s perspective. I recognise that the medical model of inclusion was prevalent at that time with pragmatic and expedient decisions being made to support the organisation in which I worked as opposed to the children, their entitlements or rights. Children were accredited with difference and the resulting pathway on which they were set not only justified the assigned differences but disempowered those children and their families. The act of diagnosis and removal of choice based upon a fixed mindset was shared with the rhetoric of support, benevolence and expectations for those children to achieve their most suitable outcomes. Whilst I would like to celebrate the progression made in thirty years from grading children as A, B or C with the implications that held, my research has recognised that whilst the education system focuses on outcomes alone the treatment of children and their differences continues to be deliberately and legitimately ignored. The language of government policy talks of inclusion through excellence, high expectations, setting suitable challenges so children reach their potential. However, without a real commitment to supporting all children’s rights and entitlement through possibility thinking, a growth mindset and a shared currency of transformative knowledge and skills, the language may be updated but the ethos remains.

6.6 Final words
The official scripts of inclusion within government educational policy conflict with the notions of equity and social justice. The government focus on outcomes as equitable to inclusion has led to the government focus on driving up standards as the process by which social justice will be achieved, whilst distancing themselves from being accountable for the methods schools use in pursuing that goal. As a result, this has led to the sanctioned treatment of children and schools that are categorised by their inability to meet norm related standards and then marginalised as a result of that difference, a legacy of the medical model of SEN and all in the name of inclusion and excellence. Alexander (2014) argued that government policy is top down policy, reinforced by evidence that is detached from the realities of school. Providing my research that focuses upon teaching and learning informed by children encourages the debate to be aired and shared in public, with some optimism that there is an alternative as evidenced in Shakespeare School, and that the methods by which outcomes are achieved do matter.
Schleicher (2014) asked how schools could harness diversity, create fairness and achieve the best outcomes for all children. The research at Shakespeare School has provided a detailed account of the school’s proactive and joined up response to how this has been achieved for their children. From their view of children to their bespoke curriculum, pedagogy and leadership, the school has remained focused on providing knowledge and skills that instead of being regarded as quasi private goods acquired through advantage, are considered an entitlement for all and support social justice for all. This aligned approach has been shown to support positive progress in learning and the development of a collective through an inclusive school culture that puts its children and their future first.

‘The children are quite simply all we think about... putting the child first is the cornerstone of what we do and everything comes from that....we feed off what the children can do, what they need to work on so it is all about them. It’s not about Ofsted or about SAT results really, that happens as a result of making sure the children come first.’ (T3)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Term</th>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Child</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBI</td>
<td>Confederation of British Industry</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSIE</td>
<td>Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLDD</td>
<td>Complex Learning Difficulties and Disabilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Development</td>
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<td>CPR</td>
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<td>Department of Children, Schools and Families</td>
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<td>English as an Additional Language</td>
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<td>EHCP</td>
<td>Educational Health Care Plan</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>Holistic Intelligence</td>
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<td>HLTA</td>
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<td>National College for Teaching and Leadership</td>
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<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<td>Systematic Synthetic Phonics</td>
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<td>Teacher</td>
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<td>United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child</td>
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<tr>
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<td>World Health Organisation</td>
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Appendices

Appendix One – Phase One participant information sheet

Appendix Two – Phase One participant consent form
Appendix Three – Example of first interview questions

Date: 28.04.15
Folder: A recording
Participant: S
Interviewer: SK
Role: S

SK  I am going to ask you a few questions. It may take up to 30—45 minutes. I am going to
start by asking one main question. Start whenever you like. TV first and then may
ask some further questions.

You know that all children do well in this school. I am interested in finding out what it is
that makes it possible. What do you think makes it possible?

SK  Did you want to explain a bit more about that?

SK  Is that the same for behaviour?

SK  How do you assess children as learners in the school?

SK  How do you do that?

SK  What roles do the children have in school that have an impact?

SK  How do you see the leadership in this school?

SK  What impact do you think has on the children and the progress they make in school?

SK  Is it or how is it embedded in the policies you have within school?

SK  So in a nutshell, what do you make possible in the school that other schools aren’t able to?

SK  Why do you enjoy working here?

SK  Let’s go back to the original question and please consider if you want to add anything
further to your answers.

You know that all children do well in this school. I am interested in finding out what it is
that makes it possible. What do you think makes it possible?

SK  What does that high expectation look like in school?

Appendix Four – Example of second interview questions

Date: 01.07.15
Folder: A recording
Participant: N
Interviewer: Sue Kitchin (SK)
Role: S

Shared observations from the previous interviews for comment:
- High expectations - Staff and children
- Curriculum - Consistent, progressive, detailed, engaging, personalised, child centred and
  immersive, supporting the ‘whole’ child
- Growth mindset - Staff and children are empowered as learners and by learning.
- Leadership values - Team work, empathy and role modelling by staff and children

SK  What do you consider the term inclusion to mean?

SK  What does it look, feel, taste, sound and smell like in your school then?

SK  How does your school support both inclusion and progress for all learners?

SK  Reminder of last question

SK  How do you support empathy?

SK  How does leadership work in this school?

SK  Is there anything you would like to add to your response to the first question? Repeat Q.
Appendix Five – Example of initial noticings

What it is that makes it possible, where to start. Let’s start at the core of it. I think the curriculum is the main thing that grabs the children. **We have a really exciting, a very immersive curriculum and without that I don’t think we would get the progress we get.** There are other factors but that is the main factor, the fact they come into school wanting to know more about the topic they are learning about, makes them learners rather than just children coming to school. As part of the curriculum we have truffle moments, the experiences the children do, they know that will help them with their learning and support them with the learning that they do. So, that has a huge impact on the progress they are going to make and it also gets them engaged in the learning to allow them to enjoy an experience which is based around learning. It is definitely something that helps the teachers keep their (children’s) interests throughout the lessons. So the curriculum is immersive and its child based so every experience so in every ...all the learning, the children come first and (it) has got to engage the children for the teachers to want to teach it. It’s not something the teachers are interested in so let’s go with that, the whole school is set up for children. The fact the corridors are like they are, everything in the classroom is for children, if the teachers have things they are put away in the cupboard and not seen. I think all those little factors the children know we are here for them and not for any other reason. And then moving on from that, the curriculum is in place, the truffle moments are in place, there is consistency throughout school right the way from nursery to year 6 the approach we take to the curriculum is very similar so when the lessons are taught the consistency of the teaching really supports the children’s learning.

SK  Do you want to explain a bit more about that?

Appendix Six – Example of Noticings Database

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<th>Where</th>
<th>How</th>
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Appendix Seven – Phase Two participant information sheet

Please note that:

- You are invited to participate in this study.
- You can decide to withdraw from the study at any time, even after the study has begun.
- Your name and other identifying information will be removed from the study data. All information was collected in a way to ensure the anonymity of the participants and institutions.

It is not anticipated that any harm will be caused to you or your school. However, if you have any concerns or questions, please contact the study team at the University of Cambridge for further details and information.

Thank you.
Appendix Eight - Phase Two participant consent form

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM – PHASE TWO

NAME OF PARTICIPANT: __________________________

NAME OF RESEARCHER: __________________________

DATE: __________________________

RESEARCH SUPPLEMENT:

1. I agree to take part in the above research. I have read the Participant Information Sheet for the study. I understand that my data will be in this research, and all my answers have been answered to my satisfaction.

2. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research at any time and that the data will be anonymised, for any reason without prejudice.

3. No one will be informed about the confidentiality of the information provided will be compromised.

4. I am free to ask any questions at any time before and during the study.

5. Once completed, I have been provided with a copy of this form and the Participant Information Sheet.

Date: __________

Signature: __________

I agree to the processing of such data for any purposes connected with the research. I understand that any data collected will be held securely

Signature: __________

Date: __________

Name of participant (group) __________________________

Agreed: __________

Date: __________

If you wish to withdraw from the experiment, please complete the form below and return to the person handling the study.

I wish to withdraw from this study:

Signed: __________

Date: __________

*The University includes Anglia Ruskin University and its academic colleges

Appendix Nine – Focus group presentation and questions

- Exploration of themes

How does this model represent the values and practices in your school?
How do you see difference within and between children in this school?
How do your curriculum and practices support the inclusion of all children?
How does your leadership approach model inclusion to children and staff and why is that important?
Are there any alterations you would suggest?
Appendix Ten – Example of coding process and overlapping codes

Appendix Eleven – Coding database

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Appendix Fourteen – E mail permission

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From: [Redacted]  
To: [Redacted]  
Subject: Research update

You term has started back very well thank you. That is no problem at all, hope it all goes well.

On Mon, Sep 21, 2015 at 12:07 PM, [Redacted] wrote:

Hi [Redacted],

I hope it has been a good start to the term for everyone. Thank you for providing the links to the documentation we discussed. Are you happy for me to utilise them within the research data and the final thesis, they will remain anonymous of course. I am also presenting the research to date at University research groups. I guess the only aspect it may have are potentially more visits by an interested person. Would this be OK with you as well?

Hope to speak soon,

Sue

---

From: [Redacted]  
To: [Redacted]  
Subject: Photo Permission

Hi Sue,

Just to say myself, and the children, give me permission to use the children’s photographs they took, thoughts shared and the comments they provided within your research thesis.

Thanks,