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CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR INCLUDING EU MIGRANT PUPILS IN ENGLISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

UZOAMAKA. O. METU

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of
Sheffield Hallam University
For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

May, 2014
Abstract

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR INCLUDING EU MIGRANT PUPILS IN ENGLISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Schools in England are experiencing changes in pupil composition as a result of the current influx of EU migrant pupils in education. They are transforming themselves to meet with challenges of inclusion and standards for all pupils. However, there are increasing concerns by schools, individuals and local authorities on their background and the processes of meeting their needs. The main purposes of this research are to (a) explore the processes for including EU migrant pupils; (b) assess the challenges and opportunities faced by teachers and their leaders in schools; and (c) suggest fruitful ways for inclusion of EU migrant pupils.

This study particularly examined the role of the school leaders and teachers in inclusion, the responses and reorganisation in teaching and learning to meet the needs of the EU migrant pupils, and the requirements of policies of inclusion and standards.

The study adopts exploratory qualitative study utilising two stages of study whereby the first stage was designed to inform the second stage in order to explore the associated research objectives and questions. The study adopted multiple case methodology which consists of four case study schools. It also utilised critical review of literature to explore leadership ideas, education policies, teacher beliefs and values and pedagogical practices. Document analysis was used to analyse schools policy documents. In-depth interviews were carried out to get the views and experiences of head teachers and teachers.

The data analysis was based on interpretivist approaches and underpinned by institutional theory concepts such as loose coupling, legitimacy and sensemaking.

There are evidence that although schools change leadership structure and made provision for leading inclusion, there were traces of weak commitment. Teachers believe that inclusion of EU migrant pupils is enhanced by teaching assistants (TAs). Continuing professional development (CPD) was mostly internal. Mainstreaming and pull-out programs are jeopardized by best practices that seem not to work. The findings suggest evidence of loose coupling across the macro and micro domains. However, schools recoupled to face the challenging and uncertain future of EU migrant pupils through novel teaching and learning practices such as Pre-teaching, Teaching and Post teaching (PTP) approaches, and LOVE writing. This study contributes to theory building through an integrated look at inclusion problems across shifting policy epochs. It suggests pathways for improving the coupling and intervention processes with respect to inclusive education. This is the first time that such an in-depth look at inclusive learning is conducted across key policy and intervention domains.
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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated especially to my beloved Mother (Nkiruka) who passed away few weeks before the final submission. I was motivated to complete this study for you. Your resilience and smiles give me strength and hope.
Statement

This PhD is all original work. The objectives and purposes of the research are outlined in Chapter 1. The assistance received from supervisors, and other colleagues have been according to accepted standards of academic research and ethics. References are outlined in the bibliography and the nature of input from these academic writings is outlined throughout the thesis.
## Glossary of Terms

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<tr>
<td>ASDAN</td>
<td>Award Scheme Development and Accreditation Network</td>
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<tr>
<td>ATL</td>
<td>Association of Teachers and lecturer</td>
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<tr>
<td>BERA</td>
<td>British education Research Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BME</td>
<td>British Minority Ethnic</td>
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<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBS</td>
<td>Disclosure and Barring Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFES</td>
<td>Department for Education and Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAL</td>
<td>English as Additional Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-ACT</td>
<td>European Association of Corporate Treasurers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EALIP</td>
<td>English as Additional Language Intensive Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECDL</td>
<td>European Computer Driving Licence</td>
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<tr>
<td>EDEXCEL</td>
<td>Educational Excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDP</td>
<td>Education development Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EiC</td>
<td>Excellence in Cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMTAS</td>
<td>Ethnic Minority and Travellers Achievement Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMAG</td>
<td>Ethnic minority Achievement Grant</td>
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<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>GCSE</td>
<td>General Certificate of Secondary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and communications Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>IEPs</td>
<td>Individualised Education Plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INET</td>
<td>International Networking for Educational Transformation</td>
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<td>ITT</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Training</td>
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<td>IRT</td>
<td>Item Response Theory modelling</td>
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<td>KS</td>
<td>Key Stage</td>
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<td>LAs</td>
<td>Local Authorities</td>
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<td>MAG</td>
<td>Mapping Attainment Grade</td>
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<tr>
<td>MLD</td>
<td>Moderate Learning Difficulties</td>
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<td>NAHT</td>
<td>National Association of Head Teachers</td>
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<td>NCES</td>
<td>National Centre for Educational Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCSL</td>
<td>National College for School Leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td>NAEP</td>
<td>New Arrivals Excellence Programme</td>
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<td>NFER</td>
<td>National foundation for Educational Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>NLE</td>
<td>National Leader for Education</td>
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<td>NUT</td>
<td>National Union of Teachers</td>
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<td>NQT</td>
<td>Newly Qualified Teacher</td>
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<td>NSS</td>
<td>National Support Schools</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>OFSTED</td>
<td>Office of Standards in Education</td>
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<td>ONS</td>
<td>Office for National Statistics</td>
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<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>PLASC</td>
<td>Pupil Level Annual School Census</td>
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<td>PTP</td>
<td>Pre teaching, Teaching and Post teaching</td>
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<td>RRAA</td>
<td>Race Relations Amendment Act</td>
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<td>SWP</td>
<td>Schools White Paper</td>
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<td>TAs</td>
<td>Teaching assistants</td>
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<tr>
<td>TDA</td>
<td>Training and Development Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
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<td>WSC</td>
<td>Whole School Consortium</td>
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Chapter 1 - Introduction

In May 2004, the European Union (EU), which at that time consisted of 15 countries including the UK, welcomed ten new member countries. Subsequently three more countries joined between July 2007 and May 2013, making a total of 28 member countries. This was hailed as a successful policy. However, there has been a mixed reaction to this in the UK, as it ushered in the free movement of people and an increased diversity in schools. In the new global economy, migration has become a central issue for economic development and it is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the impacts and changes brought about by migration. This chapter introduces the current study, entitled ‘Challenges and Opportunities for Including EU migrant pupils in English Educational System’. The chapter provides an overview of the research, beginning with the background of the study, a statement of the research problem, the rationale for the study, the significance of the study, the research aims and objectives, the research questions, the research design, the theoretical framework, assumptions, definitions of the terms, and finally the structure of the chapters.

1.1 The background of the study

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in globalisation. Globalisation is about the growing mobility across frontiers, such as the mobility of goods and commodities, the mobility of information and communications, products and services, and the mobility of people (Robins 2002). An estimated 567,000 people arrived in the UK in 2009, which is consistent with the levels seen since 2004 and compares with the 590,000 in 2008. Non-British citizens accounted for 83% of all immigrants, a third of whom were from EU countries (ONS 2011). The variety among the newly-arrived migrant groups is immense, ranging from different socio-economic backgrounds, previous education, country of origin, immigration experience, and culture, making it difficult to categorise them as a homogeneous group.

Similarly, changes in the composition of the population within society are reflected in the education system. Schools in England are also experiencing changes within the
population of their students. The influx of EU migrant children into the English education system has increased vastly in recent years, presenting new challenges for the system. Schools increasingly experience different languages spoken in the classroom, changes to the staff’s composition, educational policies and practices, and a greater inclination to integrate the different communities.

In recognition of the need to work together, the central government introduced the Education and Inspections Act 2006, which place a duty on all maintained schools in England to promote community cohesion. Similarly, the Office of Standards in Education (Ofsted), established in 1992, caters for standards in education and reports on the contributions made within this area (Teachernet 2010). Also, the 1996 Education Act made it mandatory for parents to secure the education of their children of compulsory school age (National Archives 2011). However, some newly-arrived EU migrant pupils were unable to secure a school place in certain parts of England, despite the legal entitlement to a school place for children between the ages of 5 and 16 (Rutter 2006), which hence put pressure on the education system. As a result, this became a big issue in society, triggering debates in the media (The Big Debate, BBC Radio 5 2007).

There was also controversy about inclusion, policy and practices. While the Children’s Act of 2004 ushered in inclusion, it has been seen as problematic and confusing in various ways (Lindsay 2003). This variety, as captured by Gallannaugh and Dyson (2003), indicated that inclusion was seen as schools making sense of becoming inclusive in relation to children with disabilities, the provision for under-achieving children, and the participation of various social groups in mainstream education. While schools in the UK were getting to grips with understanding, practising and implementing inclusion, in 2010, the Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition (henceforth the Coalition government) came to power and shifted the emphasis from inclusion to raising standards in education. There are several varieties of inclusion implementation and standards in schools in the face of the increasing diversity. Also, increasing numbers of local authorities (LAs) in the UK are concerned that the public services may suffer if the funding fails to reflect these changes in their geographical population. Such funding for
schools is intended to help to accommodate the growing number of migrant pupils (see section 1.2).

Moreover, studies on inclusion and migration in education in the UK have covered a wide variety of areas, such as special educational needs (Avranidis and Wilde 2009; Reindall 2010); this is only a sub-discipline within inclusive education, which requires schools to re-adjust for impairment to accommodate the pupils concerned within the system. Others involve inclusion as a process of integration and bridging the inequality gap (Sullivan 2005; Dyson et al. 2009; Abbot 2010); language support for migrants (McEachron and Bhatti 2006); Polish migrant pupils in education (Reynolds 2008; Sales et al. 2008); and Roma pupils and their achievement in education (DCSF 2008, O’Hanlon and Holmes 2004; DCSFa 2009; DCSFb 2009).

These studies do make a contribution to the nature of society and the cultural cognitive systems of the practitioners that promote the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in education but, despite the concern about inclusion, throughout the literature, issues of leadership for inclusion, classroom pedagogy, and the quality of the social relationships with migrant families in schools, linking the macro and micro levels, have been paid insufficient attention.

1.2 A statement of the research problem

According to (DFES 2004), the aim of the Children’s Act of 2004 was to improve the lives of young people and bring about a step-change in the quality, accessibility and coherence of the services so that every child and young person can fulfil their full potential and those facing particular obstacles are supported to overcome them. However, there is increasing concern among schools, individuals and LAs regarding issues related to the inclusion of EU migrants in schools. For instance, an LA in the north of England, in a recent enquiry, stated:

*Concerns had been raised that schools were facing more pressures because of the recent numbers of new arrivals, most of whom were children of European Union (EU) migrant workers. However, a substantial proportion of EU new arrivals,
especially those from the Roma community, have located within the centre of the Borough, placing extra pressures on the schools serving this area. Whilst these schools have developed expertise in supporting English as an additional language then abbreviated afterwards (EAL) learners, notably those from Pakistan/Kashmir, the most-recent wave of EU migration has set new challenges for them (Licence et al. 2009).

Also, the new coalition government since 2010 has shifted emphasis from inclusion to achievements and raising standards in education, as outlined in the schools’ white paper (DFE 2010) to demonstrate that schooling, the curriculum, and assessment cannot be compromised, therefore rendering equal educational opportunity a myth. This is testified to by the following statement:

*It outlines a direction of travel on the curriculum and qualifications which allows us to learn from, and outpace, the world’s best (DFE 2010).*

In spite of the changes and challenges that the presence of migrant children have brought about within the education system, this is a largely un-researched area (Ackers and Stalford 2004; Reynolds 2008). Indeed, this study addresses this important gap in the literature on the inclusion of, especially EU, migrant pupils in education, and explores two areas: leadership for inclusion and teaching and learning.

As both a migrant and a teacher, experience has shown that the academic future of every migrant child in the classroom depends upon the actions of the teacher who is leading that classroom. It is necessary to understand how schools respond to the pressures of inclusion in areas such as school leadership and, more importantly, the decisions affecting EU migrant pupils, the classroom pedagogy, and the relationships between the schools and the migrants’ families within the community. Due to the problematic nature of inclusion and the background of EU migrant pupils, schools must work out ways to offer these pupils a meaningful pathway.

1.3 The rationale for the study

The main aims of this qualitative study are to: (a) explore the processes for including EU migrant pupils; (b) assess the challenges and opportunities faced by teachers and their
leaders in schools; and (c) suggest fruitful ways for the inclusion of EU migrant pupils. The fruitful ways will address leadership for inclusion; pedagogical and classroom approaches to the inclusion of migrant pupils, demonstrating the need to reinforce the best practices with novel ones to raise the standards for these EU migrant pupils while facing policy pressures.

Many migrant children from EU countries are educationally-disadvantaged (e.g., Roma children) in comparison with their native peers. As a result, Figel (2008) points that, if migrant children leave school with an experience of underachievement which continues into their later life, the risk is that such a pattern will be perpetuated into the next generation. This necessitates the addressing of school leadership and pedagogical issues in this study. The results of the current qualitative study of the inclusion of EU migrants in the English education system will shed light on the challenges that schools face when working within an inclusion policy framework.

The information garnered includes data from schools and the Department for Education and Skills’ (DFES) websites, school policy documents, the participants' background, and documents from the Ethnic Minority and Travellers Service (EMTAS). The data collection process incorporated in-depth interviews with head teachers, teachers, teaching assistants, local authority ethnic minority consultants, relatives of EU migrants and observations of LA strategy meetings in an effort to ascertain the participants’ experiences of the challenges they face with regard to the inclusion process.

Recent developments at the macro level, such as globalisation, are a powerful force that penetrates all sectors of society, including education. Velde (2005) refers to globalisation as three economic features that increasingly link countries together. These include the trade in goods and services, private cross-border investment and migration. Likewise, Little (1996, p428) outlined the patterns of globalisation adapted from Waters (1995, p123) within three sections: economic, political and cultural globalisation. However, migration and education were situated in economic and cultural globalisation respectively, and they are becoming increasingly difficult to ignore. The argument for education is that it is a social activity where the outcomes are used to reinforce and
reproduce educational policy and practices. Furthermore, the meanings and values of education are located primarily within the cultural arena.

This research, therefore, locates itself at the intersection between migration and education; hence, it becomes important to study the influences of the macro level (migration) on the micro level (schools). This study attempts to unite these two levels (macro and micro) by the concepts of the institutional theorists.

In addition, Beckman and Cooper (2004) argue that the UK’s education policy has become increasingly focused on its economic function, with its broader social (empathy for others) and political (engaging in democratic processes) objectives being simultaneously marginalised. This is influenced by the ideology of the trade and services’ liberalisation aim of globalisation. Britain has fiercely pursued this goal by marketising education. As a result, schools are under great pressure due to policies related to raising standards and accountability (performance, testing and the national curriculum). Instead of the education system fostering ‘the educability of all children, regardless of their circumstances’ (Chitty 1999, p31), it erects barriers to the inclusion of pupils, such as the migrants, within education.

Schools have different characteristics and ways of responding to the barriers to inclusive learning. As a result, this study focuses on the education of EU migrant pupils in schools. The extent to which globalisation affects the classroom and schools may seem remote from the macro idea of globalisation, but it is important to understand that schools wish to balance the global environmental pressures and inclusion in education.

The researcher’s personal experience of migration (Section 3.3) and teaching in UK secondary schools has shown also that teachers face inclusion issues with regard to their decisions and every contact made with students. The way in which migrants deal with difficult transitions may not be easily understood by native classroom teachers who are not truly committed to understanding the changing classroom population, while the experience of migration for some young people is not always pleasant; settling into new environments can be met with all sorts of prejudices, language barriers and family
economic instability. Teachers have a duty to provide opportunities for inclusion. Taken together, these issues present challenges for both school leaders and teachers in their decision-making. This study therefore examines the processes of including EU migrant pupils in education and their impact on schools.

1.4 The significance of the study

As mentioned earlier, there are various studies on inclusion in education but so far, the inclusion of migrants in education using the institutional theory idea of loose coupling has not been studied. This study closes this gap and recommends the reinforcement of loose coupling elements (teaching and learning) in schools in the light of the education policy’s emphasis on inclusion to raise standards.

The results of this research have benefited from interview data obtained both from the schools and LAs, and therefore will provide information on effective practices for inclusion within schools which will enable teachers to understand and incorporate these into their existing practices for improvement. From the practical point of view, the results of this study will give insights to head teachers about the importance of leadership for inclusion in order to enhance such leaders through training for their roles. It will also benefit and help future researchers, serving as a reference for how schools might respond to inclusion policy practices, and contributes to the existing literature on the practices of inclusion for EU migrant pupils in education.

1.5 The research aims and objectives

This study aims to explore two key areas: (a) leadership for inclusion; and (b) classroom teaching and learning processes for the inclusion of EU migrants within education. This is explored through the application of institutional theory concepts, such as loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making, to a practical case study of four schools in the north of England, consisting of two primary schools (Birkhead and Ashberg) and two secondary schools (Frontier and Westend) within two LAs (Stratop and Rivervalley).
The study's aims are supported by four objectives: the first two were pursued in the first stage of the study and the second two in the second stage of the study.

The objectives for the first stage of the study are as follows:

Objective 1: To review critically the existing literature on inclusion and identify the issues and policies associated with including migrants within education.

The literature review lays the foundation for this study. It underpins the introduction of ideas in inclusion practices relevant to this study, such as subtle racism and stereotyping. The review includes all of the previous studies, policies and relevant theories that help the researcher to understand the inclusion of migrants within education. The literature review ends with a conceptual framework that unites all of the identified areas of policy and practices of inclusion. This further facilitates the presentation of the theoretical underpinnings and empirical findings of the research. Reviewing the links helps to demonstrate the originality of this study and how it is related to previous ones. It also helps to justify the proposed methodology.

Objective 2: To analyse the extent to which school practitioners' ways of working affects inclusion in terms of support.

This identifies the efforts that schools have made to address issues of inclusion. It also addresses the support that schools receive from the external authorities, such as the LA. In addition, it assesses the relationship between schools and the families in the community, with whom the schools may collaborate to support inclusion.

The objectives for the second stage are as follows:

Objective 1: To analyse how schools and their leaders view their task of inclusion.
The concept of inclusion is vague and has been seen from different perspectives, as noted in Chapter 2. Also, the task of leadership in schools is becoming more complex, especially given the changing education policies and greater demands from the central government for schools to be more inclusive and raise standards. This objective helps to examine the changing roles of head teachers and how schools are reorganising their leadership to include the demand for the inclusion of migrant pupils.

Objective 2: To examine the impact of legislation and school policy on enhancing the inclusivity of EU migrant pupils.

This identifies and examines the changing policies and processes of inclusion for migrant pupils in schools from the perspective of the actors. For instance, in 2010, when the new coalition government came to power, the emphasis on inclusion moved to raising standards in schools. It examines the role of the actors in implementing the policy of inclusion for migrants in relation to raising standards. This objective links both the macro (government) and micro (schools) levels. It investigates the extent to which the actors identified within the schools are able to implement these policies. This includes the challenges they face both in relation to teaching and learning, the decisions they make, the background of the migrant pupils and the support from central government.

1.6 The Research questions

This study evolved due to developments within the education system, the academic literature and the researcher’s experience as a teacher and a migrant in the UK. As a migrant, my interest in inclusion arose as a result of my lived experience of the processes of integration within the English system, as well as my teacher training and studies at a UK higher education. My experience of trainee teaching, supply teaching at different times and understanding of the struggles of EU migrant pupils within the school environment and their families in the community, has raised questions about the inclusion process within schools, as well as about the roles played by the school leaders and teachers in inclusion. The key initial questions for the first stage of the study (Objectives 1 and 2) are as follows:
1. How have schools changed in terms of including migrant pupils?

2. What strategies are in place for managing the teaching and learning of migrant pupils?

3. To what extent is support available to schools to promote migrant pupils' inclusion?

The results are discussed in Chapter 5. The themes emerging from the analysis informed the second stage of the study; however, two themes that are important for this study (leadership, teaching and learning) were developed in the second study stage (Objectives 1 and 2). The key questions for the second stage are as follows:

1. How do schools and their leaders view their task of inclusion? (Objective 1)

2. What impact has legislation and school policy had in terms of enhancing inclusivity for EU migrant pupils? (Objective 2) The results of these questions formed the second stage (Chapters 6 and 7). At this stage the theoretical framework played an important role in the analysis.

Remarks: Progressive focusing of the study

This study involved the process of progressive focusing which resulted in a two-stage data collection process (rationale Sections 6.2 and 7.2). Two outcomes were achieved as follows: (a) the scope of the study was narrowed to EU migrant pupils in the second stage; and (b) the themes resulting from the first stage of the data collection and analysis (Chapter 5) informed the second stage of the study. Two major themes: (a) leadership; and (b) classroom teaching and learning were developed further in the second stage of the data collection and analysis (Chapters 6 and 7). The multiple stages helped to focus on the relevant issues.

The justification for choosing EU migrants for further investigation is based partly on a recommendation by an LA consultant after an initial meeting (Chapter 3) and on the various challenges faced by school leaders based on the data collected from the head teachers (Chapter 5). Also, the two major areas relevant for this study were selected because the school leaders embody the pathway to inclusion practices. In addition,
classroom inclusion is where the mainstream teaching and learning activities tend to be situated.

1.7 The research design

This research follows a qualitative case study approach to examine inclusion processes related to EU migrant pupils in schools. Qualitative research takes place in a natural setting so that the data collected mirror accurately what is happening in reality and is used as a method for understanding complex social phenomena (Creswell 1998). Case study inquiry then relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide the data collection and analysis (Yin 1998, p13). The study identifies schools as the unit of analysis; therefore, data were collected in many forms (interviews, reports, observations) from different schools. The multiple case study approach was used to explore differences within and between cases. The goal is to replicate the findings across cases because comparisons are drawn across cases.

The research sites for this study were two LAs located in the north of England. The schools chosen have a high percentage of migrant pupils and pupils in receipt of free school meals (FSM). The cases are focused on how teachers and their leaders devise inclusion processes for EU migrants in the mainstream both within the schools and the classroom.

The participants in the study were selected according to differences in their background and their experiences of diversity in order to offer unique insights into the challenges linked to the inclusion of migrants. The various choices made throughout the study and the reasons for these are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3.

The data collection consisted of two stages. Data were collected from three schools in stage one and four schools in stage two of the study. The outcome of the analysis of stage one informed the focus on stage two. As mentioned earlier, this demonstrates the progressive focusing of the study. The data analysis took place throughout the study. The
data were collected via taped interviews, and field notes were also used in the analysis. Connections between the categories and themes were made. NVivo, a qualitative data analysis software program, was used to code each interview and document.

1.8 The theoretical framework

This study utilised institutional theory concepts, such as loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making, as tools to explore the educational policies and practices employed in schools. Institutional theory links an institution with its environment. The premise of the theory is that the rhetoric, policies and stated practices of an institution do not necessarily mirror the behaviour of the individuals within that organisation (Gordon 2010). The reason for choosing institutional theory is because schools as organisations are dependent on their environment for their existence and also face an uncertain future. The three concepts relevant to this study, as mentioned earlier, are briefly explained in the following paragraphs and described in detail in the theoretical review section of Chapter 2.

Loose coupling is a core construct that is frequently used in the institutional analysis of educational reforms to explain how individuals react to institutional influences by making symbolic changes to the structures and procedures to protect their teaching and learning from being affected by external influences (Coburn 2004). These patterns of action are distinct, or separate from each other, yet are still responsive to each other in some fashion (Orton and Weick 1990). The symbolic actions of school leaders and teachers to indicate the policy practices are embedded in the loose coupling analysis within the study.

Legitimacy is the degree of cultural support for an organisation (Scott 1987). This concept illuminates why schools continue to justify the decisions they make. Legitimacy is the domain of culture that must be managed as a result of its fragility especially in the relationship between the teachers and policy makers. Schools' legitimacy also includes the contentment of the policy-makers.
Sense-making is about creating a logical understanding of new or ambiguous situations. The focus is on how teachers and school leaders make sense of situations and experiences in their schools, driven by their individual experiences and cues from the environment. In most cases, the education policies trickle down to schools from the central government to the DFE, LAs, and then to individual schools. This is captured in Spillane's (2005) telephone analogy:

*The player at the start of the line tells a story to the next person in line who then relays the story to the third person in line, and so on...by the time the story is retold by the final player, it is different...not because the players are intentionally trying to change the story; it happens because that is the nature of human sense-making. (p8)*

This analogy portrays schools as the most likely last player to be told the final policy story, which explains why head teachers and teacher often wrestle with policy implementation.

1.9 Assumptions

The aim of this study is to explore the practices of inclusion of EU migrants in four schools within two LAs. It also utilises primarily answers from the interview questions, including some observations and document analysis. The researcher assumed that the interviewees were truthful in their responses to the questions although individuals have their own perspectives on situations. These responses were compared and contrasted to find common themes prior to the analysis.

In addition, this study has some limitations. The study was only conducted in the two LAs that were convenient and accessible to the researcher. It focused on the in-depth experiences of the head teachers, teachers, teaching assistants, LA consultants and relatives of EU migrants, without including the voices of the migrant pupils. This study was also limited by the language and inability of the researcher to access more EU families, as schools do not provide any information on the location of the families of their students for confidentiality reasons.
Definition of the terms

EU migrant (Roma and Non-Roma) pupils

The Roma and non-Roma group from the EU are categorised as international migrants and internal migrants depending on their mobility at any point in time. According to NAEP (New Arrivals Excellence Programme) guidelines, pupils are placed for EAL (English as an additional language) on admission based on information about them from their previous school and an English language test administered by the school to determine their level of understanding. Schools in the UK do not officially differentiate or use the words Roma or non-Roma for EU migrants, this research will therefore refer to both Roma and non-Roma pupils in schools as ‘EU migrant pupils’.

Hard to reach

Among EU migrants, those whose families do not engage with the school as a result of culture, language or a sense of insecurity with authority will be referenced as ‘hard to reach families’. 'Hard-to-reach' is a term that has been applied to numerous groups, and has negative connotations for those targeted, suggesting that they are somehow more difficult to communicate with than other audiences (Freimuth and Mettger 1990, p237).

Inclusion

While the literature abounds with a variety of definitions of inclusion, this study will use that suggested by Ainscow et al. (2006), who regarded inclusion as concerned with all children and young people in schools; it is focused on presence, participation and achievement; inclusion and exclusion are linked together such that the former involves the active combating of the latter; and inclusion is seen as a never-ending process. Thus, an inclusive school is one that is on the move, rather than one that has reached a perfect state.
1.10 The structure of the chapters

The overall structure of the study consists of nine chapters, including this introductory chapter.

Chapter 2 begins by presenting the relevant literature review and theoretical dimensions of the research. It looks at various areas including leadership for inclusion, teachers’ beliefs and values, support for inclusion, the background of migrant pupils, polices and other environmental influences, resulting in a conceptual framework diagram.

Chapter 3 is concerned with the methodology and specific methods used for the study, such as qualitative study. The research strategy of using a case study design is discussed, linking the multiple case studies. The research methods and data analysis used in this study are explained. Different ethical aspects are examined as well as the trustworthiness of the research study.

Chapter 4 provides a contextual description of and background information about the schools and LAs considered in this study. It provides insights into the demographics of the area where the schools are located. The role of the LAs and structure of the schools are described. It gives a detailed description of the participating schools' characteristics, such as the number on the roll, attendance, school specialism and pupil ethnicity.

Chapter 5 analyses the first stage of the data collection. It discussed various themes that emerge from the data, such as leadership, identity, classroom issues, a deprived community, policy issues and the quality of social relationships.

Chapters 6 and 7 present the findings of the second stage of the study, such as leadership for inclusion in schools; and classroom practices for inclusion in the case study schools respectively. The main areas are mainstreaming, pull-out programmes and classroom ability groupings.

Chapter 8 draws upon the major themes, such as leadership and management challenges and classroom re-organisation challenges using the major concepts of institutional theory,
such as loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making, in order to illustrate the different perspectives of the findings. It also ties together the findings and the theory via an integrative framework presented in the chapter.

Finally, the concluding chapter, Chapter 9, provides a brief summary and critique of the findings about the inclusion of migrants and insights into how suggestions about the way forward could be carried over into best practice. It also includes a discussion of the implications of the findings for future research on the inclusion of migrants within education, areas for further research and a brief insight into the researcher's journey.
Chapter 2 - Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This review chapter is divided into three major themes: (1) schools/organisational approaches to policy implementation, highlighting the experiences of migrant pupils; (2) policies of inclusion and raising standards; and (3) external environment/influences on school processes and practices of inclusion.

This review covers studies that appeared in peer-reviewed and data-based articles. They were selected because they examine some aspect of the education of children who are at risk of failing in education and migrant families. In addition, they have been published between 2001 and 2013. This study recognises that a limited amount of literature exists on the inclusion of migrant pupils within UK education, so the search was expanded to cover similar international studies in Europe and America, since countries in Europe are experiencing similar migration issues at present while America has long-standing immigration issues. Articles were gathered through a comprehensive search, based on the aforementioned criteria, via a range of electronic search engines. The search yielded several articles that this study reviewed. Most of the studies relied on qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods.

The purpose of this chapter is threefold. A large body of literature on different aspects of the school inclusion process and practices is critically reviewed, and the major findings are analysed and synthesised. In this way, the study elucidates some of the challenges faced by schools and their responses to the inclusion process. A conceptual framework derived from the literature is discussed. The framework is based upon a synthesis of the themes that emerged from the review which provides a structure for analysing migrants’ inclusion in education. The framework is represented in Figure 2.1 below, with arrows showing the direction of the influences on the system.
Also, the review critically discusses the methodological and theoretical aspects of this study, including institutional theory that underpins this study. A theoretical model (Figure 2.2) is presented to illustrate the external influences at the macro and micro levels (schools).

In Figure 2.1, the inclusion policies and standards that emanate from the government are represented in the conceptual framework as policies (standards and inclusion) and flow to the schools (represented as the school/organisational approaches to policy), where the school leaders interpret and implement the policies to make education work for migrant pupils. While the schools are embedded in their environment, they are also influenced by the individual values and beliefs of both the parents and other members of the community (represented as external/environmental influences). Also, the activities in the external environment influence the perceived outcomes of the schools, as shown in the diagram.

In addition, the conceptual framework derived from the literature review indicates that the external environment has a strong influence on the schools; this has guided the study in synthesising the data analysis (see Chapters 5-7) and also resulted in the derivation of the model shown in Figure 8.1 (see Chapter 8), where a more detailed explanation is provided:
2.2 Schools/organisational approaches to policy implementation

This section discusses Theme 1, which includes the sub-themes of the migrant pupils' background and experiences, leadership for inclusion, teachers’ beliefs and values, and support for migrant pupils.
2.2.1 Migrant pupils' background and experiences (individual and school level)

As the influx of migrants continues to rise in schools and communities, the division between the advantaged and disadvantaged deepens. This gap manifests in the patterns associated with ethnicity, race, social class, gender, sexual orientation, mental and physical ability, language, and so on. Studies on the inclusion of migrants within schools touch on various aspects of school life and the activities of migrants; for instance, peer and social relationships (Reynolds 2008; Devine 2009; D'Angelo and Ryan 2010), family support and cultural values (Lopez-Rodriguez 2010; D'Angelo and Ryan 2011; Moskal 2013), the experience of racism (Devine et al. 2008), and career pathway (Darmody et al. 2012). On peer and social relationships in schools, Reynolds (2008) illuminates the duty of schools to socialising young migrants through the idea of community cohesion. As migration and economic change alter the shape of the increasingly diverse local communities, schools play a full part in promoting community cohesion. The results show that there were tensions around students of Roma ethnicity and, although harmonious relationships existed between the students and the teachers, subtle racism was present.

Similarly, D'Angelo and Ryan (2010) explore the processes of adaptation, accommodation, negotiation and identity formation amongst Polish migrants. The Polish families were critical not only of British education system but also of the high level of cultural diversity within schools. Devine (2009) demonstrates that migrant children, despite these barriers, are active generators of social capital and contribute to their family's coping strategies, teaching their parents English when necessary.

While the literature on the experiences of migrants explores the relationships and tensions around pupils and teachers, this research further examines the influence of the macro environment (policies) on the processes of inclusion for these migrant pupils. Migrants in schools in their host country thrive on support and cultural values to progress in terms of their education. While migrants receive some support from the schools in their host country, family support and cultural values enhance their ability to progress. For instance, the educational success and social mobility possessed by the families are
areas into which the migrants can tap (Moskal 2013). Despite the fact that some families were deskillled in their host countries, Moskal notes that these families still understood the value of the education which they transfer to their children and, in some cases, education is part of the pre-migration plan.

D’Angelo and Ryan (2011) note that Polish families in England’s attitude towards schools and education is strongly influenced by their pre-migration experience and the culture of their country of origin, while Rodriguez (2010) demonstrates that some working class Polish parents display a fair understanding of involvement in their children’s concept of social and cultural capital.

Devine (2009) considers the perspectives of migrant pupils. Although some of them come from professional/middle class families, those at the margins of society become active generators of capital by positioning themselves as intermediaries between their family and society, sometimes acting as interpreters. However, this research aims to go beyond social and cultural capital to emphasise institutional influences on inclusion in explaining the challenges that schools face in the process of including migrant pupils.

Socio-economic status (SES)

The literature on socio-economic status (SES) considers social inclusion (SI) (Dotson-Blake et al. 2009, Veland et al. 2009) and the academic performance of migrants. While the former reviews the literature and advocates partnership between schools and the community to bridge the socio-economic gap for pupils, the latter shows that significant relationships exist between SES and SI, and found that parents’ SES, length of residence and the hours spent on homework significantly affected students’ academic performance but did not eliminate the effects of the ethnic community. Most EU families are economic migrants, as mentioned earlier, and are located in deprived communities.

This study extends the investigation to the relationship amongst peers and teachers in schools. Similar studies have also examined how teachers address and identify underachievement in the classroom and found that teachers were informed by their tacit understanding of their pupils. Teachers used stereotypes to justify their practice of
positioning pupils within educational hierarchies (Dunne and Gazeley 2008). Hence, attention should be paid to the micro social processes that provide the conditions whereby such under-achievement is produced. It is important that the research on inclusion should address other individuals who are at risk, such as migrant pupils with social disadvantages.

Racism

Despite the growing presence of migrants in education, they are not exempt from discriminatory practices/racism and policies in the context of their reception by the host country’s educational system. Name calling, and racist name calling in particular, are important tools used by some children to assert their status over others (Verkuyten and Thijs 2002; Devine 2008). Bhopal (2011, 2012) describes the racism in schools towards white Gypsy travellers and other minorities, who are perceived as 'others' or 'outsiders', as being a disadvantage for these pupils. Issues of power relations have become central to racist and nationalist practices and their negotiation, as these are enmeshed in the day-to-day experiences of schools (Zembylas 2010). They utilised the theory of inter-sectionality in their case study analysis of children's construction and experience of racism and nationalism in a case study school.

Intersectional analysis emphasises how particular identities are lived in the modalities of other categories of identity, such that ethnicity is always lived in the modalities of race and class (McCall 2005). This research follows this lead, identifying the racial attitudes of teachers towards the migrant pupils in the case study schools. Other studies of children from a range of ethnic backgrounds in Northern Ireland and the UK (Bhopal and Myers 2008; Levinson 2009; Bloomer et al. 2013) found that Traveller children were by far the most bullied group in schools. Other groups of children, such as Chinese/Asian and European migrant children, experience lower levels of belonging and higher levels of exclusion compared to their white counterparts. Hence, in this study, an attempt is made to understand the role of the teachers in the process of inclusion to ensure that migrants are able to achieve like other native pupils.
2.2.2 Leadership for inclusion

In the past two decades, the UK government has made a commitment to inclusive education through their green paper entitled: Excellence for All Children: Meeting Special Educational Needs. This was followed by the Special Education Needs (SEN) and Disability Act of 2001, the SEN Strategy: Removing Barriers for Achievement, Every Child Matters Agenda 2003 and Strategy for SEN: Removing Barriers to Achievement in 2004. Although the government’s legislature aims to promote inclusion and remove barriers in education, researchers such as (Rice 2006; Slee 2000) have investigated how such reform can be accomplished effectively, considering the vague nature of the concept. With the increase in diversity in schools coupled with the influx of migrants from EU countries, inclusion has widened beyond disability to be seen as a reform that supports and welcomes diversity (UNESCO 2001).

Moreover, the change in the UK government in 2010 has also brought with it a shift in emphasis to raising standards in education. The key issue here is the role of schools, particularly the teachers and their leaders, in ensuring the success of inclusive practices for migrant pupils. While it seems that schools are incorporating the education policies (inclusion and raising standards), inclusion can be interpreted and implemented in different ways (Hegarty 2001). It has been argued that it can be considered an approach that seeks to address barriers to learning and participation and provide resources to support learning and participation (Ainscow et al. 2006), suggesting that it is essential that teachers and their leaders understand migrant pupils and are committed to their inclusion.

Previous studies point to the fact that schools practise inclusion and show signs that every child is mainstreamed. However, little is known about the skill and sensitivity underlying the inclusion process in schools and the roles that the teachers and their leaders play within it.

Due to the demands of the policies and complexity of leading increasingly diverse schools, the discourses on school leadership are recognising varying forms of leadership
in the wake of the changes to schools’ composition. Various ideas of leadership have emerged in education, such as distributed leadership (Macbeath 2005; Spillane 2006; Hartley 2007), social justice (Ryan 2006), transformational and transformative leadership (Ottesen 2013; Precey et al. 2013), and inclusive leadership (Kugelmass 2004). Spillane (2006) regards distributed leadership as the ease with which it can become all things to all people. This means that the nature of distributed leadership is unfixed, provided that the leadership’s power is shared and serves its purpose for schools or organisations. Others, such as Macbeath (2005), developed a taxonomy of distribution, such as pragmatic, strategic, incremental, opportunist and cultural factors. However, in their research on the emergence of distributed leadership in education in England, Hartley (2007) suggests that the charismatic heroism associated with transformational leadership is not favouring schools as its pupils’ composition changes and the tasks of school leaders become increasingly complex, based on the fact that organisations work well as a result of their members’ competence, trust and collective efforts. While inclusion favours participation and commitment (Ainscow 2006), it may be suggested that the lure of distributed leadership may have been the means of empowering more teachers to assume greater responsibility for building inclusive communities.

In a recent study, Bakken and Danielsen (2011) claim that reproduction or inequality occur regardless of how well a school has succeeded in developing a positive learning culture; as a result, Ottessen (2013) advocates the transformational and transformative approach to leadership. Transformational leadership focuses on how schools can include and enhance the achievement of all of their students within the current state of affairs, while transformative leadership explicitly adopts an activist approach, seeking to achieve the goals of liberation and emancipation. This view is supported by Precey et al. (2013), who noted that a managerial form of leadership may not sustain a system that is shaped by high public accountability and a standards agenda.

On the other hand, Ryan (2006) argues that, in this situation, school leaders should be concerned with social justice, which entails searching out, understanding, critiquing, and doing something about injustices (Shoho et al. 2005, p60). Other studies consistent with
social justice include transformative (Brown 2004), democratic (Woods and Woods 2010), and culturally responsive factors (Magno and Schiff 2010). Ryan concludes that social justice can also be seen in terms of inclusion leadership. While transformational leadership points to cultural and social justice, transformative theory recognises and questions society's structures of power and authority and can provide a productive force for breaking into the dominant formations of common sense, so leadership is anchored in value. Schools' composition and contexts differ, so leadership practices differ as schools seek to be more inclusive.

The nature of leadership studies in education has changed over time, shifting from what leaders know and do to how they think and act to solve problems. For instance, distributed leadership, studied extensively by Spillane et al. (2001) and Spillane (2005), derived from the idea of distributed cognition and activity theory, suggests that many actors contribute to schools' norms, beliefs and practices. The distributed perspective on leadership is grounded in activity rather than in position or role. Transformational leadership is defined more like entrepreneurs in organisations. Bottery (2001) argues that such leadership is predicated upon its perception of the need to develop a highly-skilled, technologically-proficient workforce, and that the creation of this workforce cannot be left to the vagaries of a market-based approach.

Much attention has been paid to organisational values, school reform initiatives, leaders' proactivity and formal training (Leithwood and Jantzi 2005, 2006), while the nature of individuals in schools has been largely neglected. It has also been found that little or no significant relationship exists between student achievement and transformational leadership practices in schools (Leithwood and Janzi 2006; Robinson et al. 2008); hence the rise of social justice and leadership for inclusion (Ryan 2006; Theoharris 2007).

Hence, to have an impact on the achievement of migrant pupils, leadership in education should explore leadership for inclusion. This study therefore seeks to explore leadership for inclusion for migrants in the case study schools and how they enhance inclusion for migrant pupils.
Several studies on the inclusive practices of school leaders focus on teaching practice and improving teachers’ commitment. Issues such as collaboration (the willingness and ability of staff with different specialisations to work together), commitment, symbolism and cultural factors (norms, values and accepted ways of doing things that are reflected in observed practices) were found essential for inclusion (Kugelmass and Ainscow 2004). Although their study was a qualitative comparative study, a similar study by Carrington and Robinson (2004), utilising the index for inclusion, emphasised that collaboration is important for inclusive schools. Both concluded that the influence of strong leaders enables the staff as they engage in collaborative processes of school development.

Other areas where school leaders address inclusion were promoting professional learning and development at all levels, exploring attitudinal and behavioural issues, issuing technical responses, and making strategic changes to staff and student timetables (Leo and Barton 2006). It was found that, in the face of pressure about standards, school leaders were reconciling their commitment to the moral values of inclusion and diversity to tackle disadvantage and underachievement. Their point is that school leadership is multi-dimensional rather than merely a categorisation of the different theories of leadership. Hence, validating the importance of this study’s investigation of leadership required increasing diverse school populations.

Aniscow and Sandill (2010) identified two areas: organisational conditions and cultural factors. While the former include distributed leadership, high levels of staff and student involvement, joint planning and a commitment to enquiry to promote collaboration and problem-solving, the latter include thinking and talking, reviewing and refining practice. On similar lines, McGlynn and London (2013) added consensus as an organisational condition, especially around changes addressing attitudinal and behavioural issues, as well as the technical responses issued across the school to meet the emerging student needs (Leo and Barton 2006). Consensus fosters community among the staff. McGlynn and London mentioned earlier argue that consensus, brought about by a reliance on the school practices and norms that work to establish a common culture of inclusion that operates at a largely informal level in schools, was important in achieving inclusion.
Unlike the other studies mentioned above, McGlynn and London (2013) conducted their study in an environment of conflict (Northern Ireland, where opposing religion and identities persist). However, these reviews are relevant to this research study as ethnic identity issues and ethnicity conflicts emanating from the community manifest in schools amongst different ethnicities, and these are identified and resolved by the school leaders in a context that is similar to that of the case study schools employed in this research study; i.e. they are embedded in a deprived community. These studies concluded that a commitment to inclusion was difficult to sustain in the current policy context, especially for schools serving the most disadvantaged communities, and that the moral values of the leaders were fundamental.

In addition, there are other normative perspectives on how school leaders should work to reach inclusion. For instance, Smith and Barr (2008) explore six key ideas that are considered essential for making learning environments supportive of cultural diversity, equity and excellence for all. They build on the work of Peterson (2005) and Watkins (2005) to describe an enabling creative inclusive practice. Smith and Barr (2008) developed a framework for participatory inclusion, which includes a sense of community, empowerment, connective pedagogy, support learning, and networks with the parents, thus reflecting the idea of schools as a community.

Although these works referred to in this review favour a sense of community, the co-construction of knowledge and a learner-centred approach, they fail to consider the effects of policy on the leadership. As a result, Raffo and Gunter (2007) suggested a two dimensional framework of social inclusion, which includes the functionalist and socially critical perspective.

The functionalist perspective indicates that educational provision must be modernised in order to contribute more effectively to economic recovery and increased competitiveness, while socially critical perspectives suggest that social exclusion is just a contemporary form of capitalist exploitation and is inherent in the system, rather than a mere by-product of it (Lipman 2004). Their framework suggests delivery-focussed, localising and democratising approaches to school leadership.

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Similarly, in a broader perspective, Ainscow's (2005) studies, which span over a decade, support the development of a framework that moves schools in inclusive directions, such as the social learning process (communities of practice - participation and reification), the development of a common language through which colleagues can talk to one another and themselves about their practice, and being part of a wider process of systemic change.

Based on an international extensive review, Riehl (2000) identifies three tasks for leading inclusion: fostering new meanings about diversity; promoting inclusive practices and cultures and developing relationships between schools and communities. Riehl argues that effecting change in schools depends on the construction and co-construction of understanding of what inclusion means. All of the studies described share relationships and social aspects of learning in common with school practitioners.

However, in investigating the planning process for a move towards full inclusion in an urban high school, Rice (2006) found that the staff were talking past one another on issues of inclusion and leadership; the school leader sees herself as a problem solver rather than a collaborator; the other teachers were constructed as leaders, with the necessary social capital (relational networking ability, human capital- knowledge, skill and expertise valued by teachers) and economic capital (tangible resources), and were easily found to be hands-on leaders.

Their study concluded that trust and clear role expectations were lacking among the leadership. This creates a need for further studies on the school leaders' sense-making of the processes of inclusion in schools and the nature of the relationships between the teachers, school leaders, pupils and teachers. This study aims to address these issues in subsequent chapters.

2.2.3 Teacher beliefs and values

Studies on inclusion have suggested that teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of migrant pupils in education are influenced by many factors that may be related. In the studies reviewed, the teachers' responses vary according to the class structure (Devine
2005), the quality of the contact with the migrant pupils (Vezzali et al. 2010), conceptions of race and subtle racism (Evans 2007; Reynolds 2008), experiential and intercultural experiences (Garmon 2004), and teacher burn-out with regard to general and diversity issues (Tartar and Horenczyk 2003). Within studies where class structure dominates, migrant pupils from working class families were seen from the deficit view while middle class pupils provide positive role models. For instance, Pecek et al. (2008) found that teachers believe that poor children were viewed more favourably followed by children from wealthy families, then migrant children.

However, Garmon (2003) conducted case study research with a teacher using qualitative interviews over time and, after a process of successive reanalysing, reconfiguring and renaming, identified six factors that determine teachers' attitudes, categorised into two groups: (a) dispositional (openness to diversity, self-awareness/self-reflectiveness, and commitment to social justice); and (b) experiential, including intercultural experiences, support group experiences, and educational experience. Gorman's work has limited generalisability as a one-man case study, although it may be useful to predict how teachers develop greater multicultural awareness.

While the above studies have provided evidence that teachers' beliefs and attitudes affect their contact with and perceptions of migrant pupils, other studies, such as Beecham and Rouse (2012), suggest ways in which teachers might overcome their negative beliefs. They suggest that teachers' views on inclusion can be positively sustained through constant reflection and course input (enlightening teachers on issues of race and ethnicity). Teachers' perceptions of migrant pupils is crucial in facilitating inclusion; hence, Giovanni and Vezzali (2011) suggest contact with the migrant families, noting that the quality of contact increased the perceived heterogeneity of the migrant pupils' category, and led to stronger support for social policies favouring immigrant children. In addition, the quality of the contact also affected the rejection of negative acculturation strategies (assimilation, segregation, exclusion) and the endorsement of positive inclusion strategies.
Teachers’ perceptions of migrants in education is important to this study as it highlights the attitudes towards migrant pupils and the nature of sense-making by the teachers as they work with the pupils. This can also be compared to a study by Evans (2007), who offered insights into how school leaders and teachers make sense of the changes of migrants’ composition in schools. The study notes that socially-constructed conceptions of race impose differential identities and images based on social status, power, and the physical, intellectual and cultural attributes assigned to racial or ethnic groups. Using sense-making ideas, it found that the school leaders and teachers' work reveal the words, actions, behaviour and messages that they send out in an effort to make the environment sensible for them and reflect their perspectives on issues of identity and race among the pupils in their schools.

In addition, positive expectations can have a positive impact on migrants. From the researcher’s personal experience as a migrant, young migrants have positive expectations about what they can achieve in their receiving country coupled with the expectations of their families. Studies on migrant families’ expectations for their children indicate that these are high, regardless of ethnicity, class or race (Portes and Rumbaut 2001). On the other hand, the positive expectations of teachers result in positive academic results for migrant pupils (Cheng and Starks 2002; Rubie-Davies et al. 2010). However, Wood et al. (2007) note that, when the teachers’ expectations are congruent with those of the families, they can positively influence the pupils’ own expectations of themselves. Intxausti and Etxeberria (2013) argue that the expectations of the immigrant families and teachers provide clues to the family-school relationship and inclusive education. In their quantitative study of 271 pupils in two Spanish communities, they found that the families displayed more positive expectations than the teaching staff regarding academic and linguistic achievement and in terms of the development of friendships between migrant children and natives.

Teachers’ positive expectations for migrant pupils are important to their achievement in education. Hence, this research utilises sense-making by teachers to understand how they work to achieve inclusion for migrants.
Teachers' beliefs and attitudes help to explain how teachers make sense of their heterogeneous environment and decisions about the progress of migrant pupils within both the classroom and the school. This extends to the present study to explain what constitutes environmental cues for teachers as they make sense of the inclusion processes and decisions regarding migrant pupils in the cases study schools. This relates to similar findings on teachers' grades, job role, cultural heterogeneity and the school culture as influences on teachers' attitudes.

2.2.4 Support for inclusion in schools

Pedagogical strategies

Despite the influence of standards for the inclusion of migrants in education, there is a growing body of evidence on pedagogical strategies for migrant pupils. Such pedagogical strategies include cooperative reading, systematic phonics, and guided reading and writing (Adesope et al. 2011), as well as the use of questioning, high expectations of students and teachers' planning, assessment, instruction, classroom management, pupil-teacher relationships, and positive classroom environments (Popp, Grant and Stronge 2011). These studies differ in their methodological approaches. The former is focused on interviewing class teachers in a case study approach, while the latter assesses award-winning teachers who work with pupils at risk. These teachers were already highly committed to the process of teaching these children compared to the teachers in the previous studies. It is also important to understand the views of other teachers who are confronted with the recent increase in migrant pupils as a greater number of teachers in schools still struggle with the inclusion of migrant pupils, which is the focus of this study.

Other studies view learning as a process of meaning-making, a collaborative inquiry process that occurs through participation in cultural, dialogic activities with peers and other, more knowledgeable members (e.g., teachers) of the culture (Wells and Claxton 2002), and cultural border crossing (Jegede and Aikenhead 1999). These aforementioned studies emphasise the social learning processes in which teachers can engage migrants to achieve inclusive learning in the classroom. On the other hand, Hamilton (2012) took a
different view, pointing to the holistic needs of the migrant pupils and suggesting that their emotions, language and culture must be considered in teaching and learning. However in a climate that is preoccupied with raising academic attainment and in communities where there has been rapid and significant cultural changes, the holistic needs of individual migrant learners may not be fully recognised.

Also, studies within this domain have focused on the school culture, policy and practices that enable the way in which teachers work (Corbett 2001; Tartar and Horenczyk 2003), effective team work (Cremin, Thomas and Vincett 2003) and the understanding of the pupils' learning profile by the teachers (Tomlinson et al. 2003). Their use of the term 'learning profile' refers to a student's preferred mode of learning that can be affected by a number of factors, including learning style, intelligence preference, gender, and culture. These studies emphasise the importance of collaboration among teachers and their relationship with their pupils.

Teacher-pupil relationships provided the teachers in the study with a broad understanding of their students. These strategies points to how migrant pupils can be included in the classroom without merely mainstreaming them, which this study pursues. This research extends this area by filling in the gap between these pedagogical strategies and the external environment of the case study schools.

*Language support*

As most migrant pupils speak different languages, they need support with English language in school. The majority of classroom learning is language dependent. This has implications for assessment and pupil achievement. However, studies in this area differ on the nature of language assessment. While some, like Baca and Escamilla (2002), Stiggins (2002) and Pierce (2002), note that, when standardised tests are adapted for language learners, there is a significant risk that the assessment results will be unreliable due to multiple factors such as cultural differences, lack of support, limited English proficiency and/or a lack of opportunity to learn the subject matter of the tests, Spinelli (2008) outlines other forms of assessment measures that might be used to eliminate the
issues encountered when using the standardised method. These include curriculum based assessment (CBA) (measures what the student knows, what needs to be learnt and where in the curriculum instruction should begin), performance based assessment (provides an opportunity for students to demonstrate a variety of language, literacy, cognitive, social and motor skills), portfolio assessment (used to facilitate communication between teachers and parents), and dynamic assessment and the test-teach-retest approach (facilitates learning by providing mediated learning that is responsive to students’ needs). They conclude that it is necessary to make appropriate adaptations and that these means helping language learners to demonstrate what they know and can do in their own unique way. However, Reynolds (2008), Nowlan (2008) and Hamilton (2011) mention that migrant pupils are at the risk of being misrepresented in schools as pupils with a disability, as the school personnel attempt to avoid inappropriate diagnosis and placement.

A recent study in this area by Wardman (2012) found that the provision of support in the UK is variable due to funding, and English as an Additional Language (EAL) is not a national curriculum subject. Teachers and teaching assistants were interviewed in various locations. Their findings showed significant variety in the provision due to funding, time wasting due to teachers and managers repeating work already done elsewhere, a lack of knowledge due to the lack of effective training courses, and racism (Keogh and Whyte 2003; Lodge and Lynch 2004; Ward 2004; Devine 2005; Pavee Point 2005).

In line with the work of other researchers already mentioned above, this research will examine the nature of language support for migrant pupils in the case study schools to illuminate any inadequacies existing in the schools’ support for migrant pupils in this area.

While diversity among the student population in schools continues to increase, other studies have indicated that schools recruit staff who consist of both native and diverse teachers in different capacities as teaching assistants (TAs). These studies have mainly focused on the role of TAs in the process. However, Moran and Abbott (2002) and Groom and Rose (2005) examine the vital role played by TAs in developing inclusive
practices. The findings of both studies show that the support from the TAs varies and sometimes they need training; hence, it is difficult to recruit new TAs easily. Although Moran and Abbot (2002) note that TAs can ruin children when they start spoon-feeding pupils, TAs in schools still remain an invaluable resource for inclusion since the teaching staff may be unable to cope with having a large number of diverse pupils in the classroom with multiple differences.

2.3 Standards versus inclusion

Although inclusion is part of a broader human rights agenda, the more recent focus has been on standards in education. Raising standards has been seen as major constraint to inclusion in education. Research undertaken in the UK has provided a range of information in this area. An extensive study involving teams from 25 schools in England working with researchers from three universities attempted to understand how schools can develop more inclusive cultures, policies and practices while under pressure with regard to inclusion and standards (Dyson et al. 2003; Ainscow et al. 2004, 2006), and found that the national standards were a major force in shaping the direction of schools. While accepting that they constrain inclusion, it provides a particular focus and leads schools to consider issues that might otherwise be overlooked. Schools have realised that their existing practices are insufficient to engage all pupils and achieve the required target. Hence, they became proactive in working out better ways for pupils to achieve by engaging more in collaboration and innovative ways of teaching and learning.

Other studies have explored the effects of inclusion on attainment (Dyson et al. 2004; Farrell et al. 2007). In comparison, both differ in terms of their methodological approach. Similarly, both studies found that there was a very small, negative relationship between inclusivity and the attainment of pupils but attributed this to school level factors, including poor leadership and teaching. These results create a need for further inquiries into other school level practices of standards and inclusion which might impact on the achievement of migrant pupils.
The studies mentioned below found that other factors account for pupils underachievement, such as the school culture, differentiation, time limitations and teachers' knowledge and conceptualisations, language, the time for which pupils have lived in the host country, school segregation and the process of selection for immigration to the host country, such as highly-skilled programmes (Schnepf 2004). Hall et al. (2004), using ethnographic data and sociocultural orientation in two case studies, focuses on the power of Standards Assessment Tasks (SATs) to shape, to varying degrees, the way in which schools acts to position children, their parents and their teachers. They explore the norms and expectations, roles and obligations, identities and subject positions (learners, teachers, etc. acting on the basis of others’ expectations), and find that that SATs’ success is the main driver of teaching and learning. Pupils' identity is constructed through their performance in SATs, not as learners. In another case, SATs and their prospect are used as a policing mechanism to keep children attentive. The ideal and most worthy pupil is someone who prioritises SATs’ success.

Teachers are institutional actors who operate within a local and national system that supports their teaching and perpetuate the kind of beliefs and attitudes that they present; however, Michailakis and Reich (2009) note that tensions can arise in an attempt to implement inclusive education at different levels, such as the societal, organisational and individual levels.

2.4 External environment/influences

White flight/cultural beliefs and values

Native families in the community also react to the influx of migrants in public schools in the form of 'native flight'. This illuminates further the nature of segregation experienced by migrant pupils in schools. Betts and Fairlie (2003) coined the expression ‘native flight’ to denote the tendency of native-born citizens to abandon state schools for private alternatives following an increase in immigration in their home community. The literature in this area has centred on the choice between state and private schools (Gerdes 2010; Rangvid 2010; Bets and Fairlie 2003; Fairlie and Resch 2002). Despite the growing
literature, a consensus has not yet been reached on whether native flight actually exists or not. However, Figlio and Stone (2001), using nationally representative, individual-level data, found evidence that a number of factors, plausibly influenced by public policy (e.g., school-district concentration, student-teacher ratios, and the local violent crime rates), have powerful effects on the composition of state and private schools. Others, such as Bets and Fairlie (2003) and Fairlie and Resch (2002), using a confidential data set from the National Centre for Educational Statistics (NCES), provide evidence of native flight from state schools to private schools partly in response to minority schoolchildren. Gerdes (2010) links the reason for native flight to free school choice (parents are concerned with educational standards) and the integration of migrant groups into the host country by means of its educational system. Although they used data from the LAs, the results of their study indicate an increase in native parents' propensity to enrol their children in free schools as the share of children with an immigrant background grows in their LA residence.

However, a drawback to the above studies on 'white flight' is that it is impossible to determine what exactly lie behind parents' considerations when choosing a school, so they found that correlations are as likely to be attributed to rational aspects as well as (irrational) prejudices against immigrant groups. Rangvid (2010) asserts, in a Danish study, that natives are more likely to opt out of their local state school if it has a large concentration of immigrant pupils. The research used a rich set of covariates, since the student, school, and neighbourhood levels are controlled for, up to an immigrant concentration of about 35 percent. However, they varied in their methodology, using the subjective expected utility approach. The model represents children and their families as acting in a subjectively rational way, i.e., choosing among the different educational options available to them on the basis of evaluating their costs and benefits and of the perceived probabilities of more or less successful outcomes (Becker 2003).

Their results show that natives are more likely to opt out when the percentage of immigrant pupils increases. Native flight however adds to the contextual challenges for
schools with regard to the inclusion of migrants. Hence, the need to examine the macro context as it affects inclusion within schools is relevant to this study.

2.5 Summary

The research synthesis presented above reveals that the issue of leadership for inclusion in education seems to be inconclusive, especially with the increased diversity. While schools are faced with different ideas of leadership, Spillane's (2005) idea of distributed leadership projects flexibility for leadership for inclusion to develop if schools are making changes to promote inclusivity. However, the major determinants of the nature of leadership to be adopted would be the context, trust and ways of working in the school community. Commitment and collaboration have also been echoed by different studies, such as that by Ainscow et al. (2006), to be fundamental to inclusive schools.

However, it was noted that strong leaders influence the success of such commitment but not without a consensus among the staff and other practitioners. The idea of consensus indicates that the staff is in accord with the changes emanating from the leadership and is clear about the inclusion path that the school is taking. Although this may be the case, there are still doubts about how the current policy of inclusion and raising standards could allow teachers and leaders to work in harmony and show a commitment to inclusivity. Again, a sense of community and the co-construction of knowledge for the benefit of the learners is emphasised. However, attention is drawn to the fact that, to build only communities and cultures that could foster inclusion, it is important to incorporate the policies.

It has been noted that inclusion does not end with the school but that collaboration and relationships between the school and its community are equally important in building communities. Instead of the school leaders seeing themselves as problem solvers, inclusion practices provide new meanings for how the school leaders define themselves. Additionally, teacher beliefs and values have been found to influence teachers' attitudes towards migrant pupils. It has been found that teacher background, role/position, and experiences of diversity influence their attitude towards diversity (Devine 2005; Evans
2007; Reynolds 2008). These make up the bank of ideas that teachers can draw on when making sense of inclusion for migrant pupils. Racism and class were also mentioned as the outcomes of teachers' attitudes, but it can be subtle or overt racism. In some cases, racism and class can be embedded in the institutional structures of society. This can be played out in the form of selection in school systems, hence widening the gap between the majority and the minorities.

There are different forms of support available for migrant pupils in education in three major areas of the literature: (a) pedagogical strategies, (b) language, and (c) staff (TAs). As much as the pedagogical strategies are available for teachers, migrant pupils differ in terms of their background, suggesting that these may not work in all cases; hence, the need for teachers to use learning profiles. Similarly with regard to language support, it is striking that English as a second language is not identified as a national language, as mentioned by Wardman (2012). This makes it easy for teachers to divert attention away as soon as the pupils are able to grasp enough to survive in the mainstream classroom. However, if the pupils are adequately tracked, there may be improvements in this area. Schools have also resorted to the recruitment of TAs to enhance inclusion. On the part of the schools, this may come with some cost for training and funding.

On the other hand, the compatibility of inclusion and raising standards has been debated. Some studies have found that the raising standards agenda has influenced that ways in which teachers address issues of inclusion for migrant students. While studies like that of Ainscow et al. (2004) suggest positive perspectives, others like that of Hall et al. (2004) see the negative direction of constraining inclusion, as mentioned earlier. Similar studies have also indicated that other factors, such as the school culture, impact on inclusion, hence suggesting that inclusion and raising standards may or may not be compatible but largely depend on the teachers, students, context and resources. Furthermore, the migrants' backgrounds are an issue that influences inclusion. Migrants are not a homogenous group and cannot be treated as such. A blend of their personal experiences, socio-economic status, and culture is what they bring to the classroom on a daily basis. While teachers struggle to understand them, they also struggle to understand their
context. Migrants are faced with racial profiling and stereotyping either from the teachers, pupils or the community. Hence, if the plight of migrants is considered and changes are made appropriately in schools, some extent of inclusion may be achieved for some migrants.

2.6 Theoretical perspective of the study

This section discusses the need for a stronger theoretical emphasis. It first explains the various theories, concepts and methodologies that emerged from the review, as outlined in the first two sections. It also discusses the theoretical perspectives employed by this study, before explaining the use of institutional theory as a new perspective for the study of the inclusion of EU migrants within the education system. These explanations lead to the theoretical model represented in Figure 2.2.

The studies of inclusion examined above encompass different issues, such as leadership, teachers' belief and values, support for inclusion, and standards versus inclusion (policy practices). Studies in this area have drawn theories from different disciplines. There is a need for a theoretical foundation in education that addresses inclusion and the dilemma regarding the application of the policy to practice. The inclusion of migrant pupils is an area that remains imbalanced with respect to research attention. Future research needs to delineate ways in which inclusion policies and practices impact on migrant pupils in education, with respect, for instance, to school leadership practices, standards versus inclusion, and decisions being influenced by teachers' beliefs, attitudes and values (Evans 2007).

Leadership theories in education have evolved over time. Spillane (2005) indicates that distributed leadership ideas (see above) rest on distributed cognition and activity theory. The idea of distributed leadership involves studying leadership from within rather than the role of the individual or macro structure in shaping the leadership (Spillane et al. 2004). While distributed cognition is concerned with understanding the coordination among individuals and artefacts (namely, how individual agents align and share within a distributed process), activity theory is an approach to understanding human behaviour by
examining the social context of that behaviour and the motivation of social pressures on people as they engage in activities. Since its original formulation, distributed leadership has been subjected to conceptual confusion and overlap (Harris and Spillane 2008). Bennett et al. (2003) regard it as devolved while Leithwood et al. (2004, p59) as overlapping substantially with shared collaborative and participative leadership concepts. This can result in a distorted meaning of the initial idea of distributed leadership in education or a catch-all phrase.

Criticism is also made of the concept of transformational leadership on the grounds that it lacks conceptual clarity and tends to be elitist (Reid 2013). While Ryan (2006) maintains that inclusive leadership is based on social justice, Sapon-Shevin (2003) mention that critical consciousness underpins inclusive leadership in education. a moral awareness which propels individuals to dissemble from their cultural, social, and political environment, and engage in a responsible critical moral dialogue with it, making active efforts to construct their own place in the social reality and develop internal consistency in their ways of being (Mustakova-Possardt 1998). This suggests that school leaders must think beyond their own cultural boundaries to work with diverse pupils in the schools.

Although various forms of leadership have been explored in education, inclusive leadership stands out for this study and the nature of diversity in schools. As mentioned earlier, the shift in leadership studies has moved from what leaders know and do to how they think and act to solve problems. In the process of approaching problems or uncertain situations, teachers make sense of their context by incorporating their beliefs and values (Evans 2007) and drawing on the sense-making concept (Weick 1995). This study moves on to explore leadership for inclusion in the schools studied in this thesis in order to evaluate leadership practices for migrant pupils' inclusion processes.

The treatment of the experiences of migrants and their position in education have been characterised by the use of social and cultural capital accumulation theory (Nowlan 2008; Devine 2009; Moskal 2013). Social capital consists of groups, networks, trust and solidarity, collective action and cooperation, social cohesion and inclusion, and
information and communication. Cultural capital may be anything in one's personal/social background that contributes and diminishes one during one's life, such as family background, education, or wealth (Print 2011). These are important in denoting the context and values of the society, beliefs and towards migrant pupils and their families in the system. It also depicts the socioeconomic status of the migrants and their families. These are essential for understanding why teachers need to rethink their beliefs and values when making decisions about teaching and learning in schools. The framework of the community of practice (Ainscow et al. 2006; Howes and Davies 2007) is also relevant here, as it depicts how inclusion is woven into the social groups and networks in schools to portray inclusion as a whole school practice.

These theories and concepts, however, have been inadequate in explaining the responses to the inclusion of migrants within an education system that is filled with policy dilemmas. Clark (1999) argues that such a dilemmatic perspective suggests that movement towards inclusive schooling is likely to be more problematic and more complex than we suppose, and suggests the need for a perspective which sees responses to diversity as being beset by dilemmas arising from contradictory imperatives within mass education systems.

Hence, this study proposes the use of institutional theory to bring together the micro and macro processes for the inclusion of migrant pupils in education. The use of institutional theory in explaining the process of inclusion in education brings a new perspective to the study of the inclusion of EU migrants in education. While institutional theory serves as a toolbox for analysis, this study will draw on the institutional concepts of loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making to bring together the macro and micro processes of the inclusion of EU migrants in education. This study is among the first to combine these three concepts to study the inclusion of migrants in education.

**Institutional theory: Micro and macro perspectives**

Studies using institutional theory have dealt with issues relating to the policies that link LAs with schools (Burch 2007; Goldspink 2007). Having attempted to link the policies
with the practices in schools, no study have been found that links inclusion policies and practices related to migrant pupils in schools using institutional theory. Burch (2007) argues that, although institutional analyses of public education have increased in recent years, studies in the field of education, drawing on institutional analyses, have not fully incorporated the current theorising, particularly related to other domains such as law and health policy.

This study considers it important that the internal activities by the actors in the process of inclusion, standards and accountability for EU migrant pupils be illuminated to understand what works with regard to inclusion in education system. In line with this, therefore, institutional theory is considered the underpinning theory for this study, taking into account three concepts of institutional theory, such as loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making, to extend our understanding of the inclusion processes in schools for EU migrants.

Institutional theory seeks to explain institutions rather than simply assume their existence. Institutionalists in the social sciences generally presume purposive action on the part of individuals. Zucker (1987, p444) explains two defining elements in the theoretical approaches to institutionalisation in organisations, such as a rule like social fact quality of an organised pattern of action (exterior); and embedding in the formal structures aspects of an organisation that are not tied to particular actors or situations (non-personal/objective).

Meyer and Rowan (2006, p6) argue that man-made rules and procedures are the basic building blocks of institutions. In other words, institutions are socially-constructed by individuals or organisations. They can gain existence if they are furnished by organisations and individuals who populate them that are suspended in a web of values, norms, rules, beliefs and taken for granted assumptions that are at least partially of their own making (Barley and Tolbert 1997, p3). Actors pursue their interests by making choices within institutional constraints. First, it holds that actors are boundedly rational in the sense that they pursue a broad set of self-interests, but with limited knowledge and cognitive capacity (Ingram and Clay 2000, p526).
Institutional theory has developed no central stock of variables, nor is it associated with a typical research methodology or even a set of methods (Tolbert and Zucker 1996). Some researchers, such as Schneiberg and Clemens (2006), claim that institutional theory requires research designs that link levels of analysis. In other words, they believe that analysis should cover the level of world polity to national polices and the organisational level. Hence, the methodological challenge for institutionalists is to compare the explanatory power of the factors at the same time or lower, level of analysis as the entity in question with the explicative power of external or higher-order factors. This aspect of institutional theory’s weakness has been considered in this study, which led to the addition of sense-making to take care of the micro level analysis within the schools under study.

As mentioned earlier, this study seeks to utilise three concepts of institutional theory: loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making. Loose coupling is a core construct frequently used in institutional analyses of educational reforms to explain how schools react to institutional influences by making symbolic changes to their structures and procedures to protect their classroom activities from external influences (Coburn 2004). Schools have been described as a loosely coupled system (Weick 1976) and teaching as a cluster procedurally underspecified activities in pursuit of vague imprecise goals (Weick 1982). Meyer and Rowan (1991, p57) and Hallet (2010) maintain that, because attempts to control and coordinate activities in institutionalised organisations lead to conflict and loss of legitimacy, elements of the structure are decoupled from activities and from each other.

The loose coupling concept is beneficial to this study. As the inclusion concept is elusive (Slee 2001), it lends itself easily to loose coupling where the benefits of persistent, buffering, adaptability and effectiveness can be tapped (Orthon and Weick 1990) to explain the processes of the inclusion of EU migrants in the case study schools. Its use has generated controversy (Orthon and Weick 1990). Firestone (1984) argues that the concept is unsettling, because it counters the intuitive suggestion that traditional bureaucracy and rational planning may not be useful in explaining organisations. Other
studies have embraced loose coupling, noting that coupling can be formal, informal, rational, and emotional interactions (Goldspink 2007). In the light of this, loose coupling will enable the study to focus on people, relationships and learning rather than structures and centrally-determined standards for conformity.

Also, Meyer and Scott (1983) define legitimacy as the degree of cultural support for an organisation, suggesting the importance of some kind of social agreement over and above the immediate relations of power and interest that sustain the organisational structures. Meyer and Scott use the analogy of entropy to illuminate legitimacy. For instance, if bricks are thrown off a lorry, the pile of bricks we see is a disordered set of bricks on the ground. This is likened to an organisation as a theory, where a completely legitimate organisation will be one about which no question could be raised, and every human and external resource used is necessary and adequate. This is the organisation depicted as that pile of bricks when it is neatly-organised on the truck and it is the perfect pile. Actions engaged in by the schools to resemble that perfect pile are important. Ball and Maroy (2009) refer to it as the 'logic of action', noting that the personal style of leadership (managerial) and the available resources (control of information in different bodies and external contacts) are very important in ensuring a continuity of equilibrium between the internal and external conditions.

Studies on legitimacy indicate that it can affect equality practices (Mmpaey and Zanoni 2013), and also be a means of gaining resources through the actions of the head teacher by fulfilling the LA's expectations with regard to policy (Hallet 2010). Schools can acquire legitimacy by formally conforming to the dominant norms, and decoupling their radical pedagogical practices by relegating them to the informal sphere. They can proactively manipulate the perceptions (impression management) of the school's ethnic diversity and radical pedagogical practices by suggesting strategic dimensions of school practices rather than equality practices according to Mmpaey and Zanoni (2013) in their study of school legitimacy in a diverse, Flemish school. However, this research will further illuminate some of these instances of legitimacy pursuit by schools in the process.
of balancing policy and practice for the inclusion of EU migrants within the education system.

Moreover, Weick, Sutcliffe and Obtsfeld (2005, p409) define sense-making as a significant process of organising, noting that it unfolds in a sequence in which those concerned with the identity in the social context of other actors engage in the on-going circumstances from which they extract cues and make plausible sense retrospectively, while enacting more or less order into those on-going circumstances. Weick (1995) notes that sense-making possesses at least seven distinguishing characteristics that set it apart from other explanatory processes. These seven characteristics include: identity, retrospect, enactment, social, on-going, extracted cues, and plausibility. The crucial imagery portrayed in sense-making is the impression that: 'there is nobody here but us scratching around trying to make our experience and our world as comprehensible to ourselves in the best way we can, that the various kinds of order we come up with are a product of our own imagination' (Fay 1990, p38, in Weick 2001, p9).

Studies on how sense-making has shaped teachers’ actions in schools indicate that head teachers utilise it to influence teachers’ access to policy ideas, participation, interpretation and adaptation, and create different conditions for teacher learning in schools (Coburn 2005; Evans 2007). Sense-making is also situated in the context or environment of the schools. Spillane et al. (2002) indicated that professional biographies, building histories and roles can serve as a cue for sense-making. By incorporating sense-making into this study, it contributes to the cognitive approach to policy implementation for the inclusion of migrant pupils in education by demonstrating that pre-existing knowledge (the experience and understanding of diversity) influences how schools and their leaders make decisions to promote migrant pupils’ achievement in education.

The diagram below brings together the review of institutional theory, showing connections between the macro and micro environments of schools and their linkages. It gives an insight into the external structure of the environment and its influences on the internal activities of schools.
This model is presented to show the creation and diffusion of institutions in schools and the schools' responses. It depicts a layered institutional framework and flows. Such a framework helps to understand the top-down and bottom-up processes of the relationships among the government bodies and policies, educational organisations, schools, teachers and diverse pupils. The diagram shows the macro and micro levels. There are three fields within the macro arena. The concept of field identifies an arena, a system of actors, the actions and the relations whose participants take one another into account as they carry out inter-related activities (Davis and Marquis 2005, p337). The societal institution's field consists of the government and policies of inclusion, standards and accountability; the organisational field (intervention agencies-National curriculum strategy, Department for Education, Office for Standards in Education Ofsted, School environment, teachers and pupils).
The micro level offers an insight into how institutions are interpreted, translated, implemented or altered among the actors in the course of their daily activities. As a result of the need to understand these processes at the micro level, the sense-making concept explains the activities of policy implementation and responses within the school environment. There is a need for a richer understanding of how individuals locate themselves in social relations and interpret their context. In our view, the development of micro-level explanations will give more depth to accounts of macro-level events and relationships (Powell and Colyvas 2008, p2).

The explanation of Figure 2.2 shows that, at the macro level, societal values, beliefs, norms and scripts are interwoven in the government policies on education within inclusion values, standards and accountability. These policies flow down through various levels, such as intervention agencies (National Curriculum, Department for Education, and Ofsted) embodied in the form of socialisation, social construction and sanctioning powers. These are carried and reproduced, but also modified and reconstructed by the interpretations and interventions of the subordinate actors, individuals, organisations and fields. The activities of the actors in the schools and how these policies are interpreted and acted upon by the actors/stakeholders within the schools are what take place in the micro segment of the diagram. This theory is extensively used in the data analysis (Chapters 6-7) and discussion (Chapter 8).

2.7 Summary

Institutional theory underpins this study and the concepts relevant to the study include loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making. This theory is based on the premise that the formal structure of organisations adheres to the dictates of their institutional environments rather than the demands of the main work activities. Indeed, by doing so, this creates conflict in efficiency, causing these organisations to adopt some practices ceremoniously. The work of Meyer and Rowan (1991), Powell and DiMaggio (1991) and Scott (1991) on institutional theory influences the research on education as schools are now viewed as institutions. The concept of loose coupling illuminates what happens in
schools and how schools respond to their instructional environment in uncertain situations by shielding their main core (teaching and learning) while adhering to the institutional practices.

Legitimacy explains that, if schools are embedded in their institutional environment, this means that they must appear at all times to be doing what society wants, even if this means blowing their own horn in order to continue to gain the approval necessary for their existence and relevance within society. Sense-making indeed gives an insight into the processes, meanings and interpretations that schools give to their actions. These concepts, woven together and applied to the inclusion processes of EU migrant pupils in the case study schools, will provide a critical insight into how the institutional structures constrain the efforts to ensure the inclusion of these EU migrant pupils. Unless the teachers' culture and motivation changes, and teachers understand the need for a sense of commitment, reflection and openness to learn, the inclusion of EU migrant pupils will never be achieved. The chapter ended with a theoretical model diagram (Figure 2.2) showing the flow of ideas within schools and how the schools are impacted by the flow of ideologies from their environment. This chapter contributes to the wealth of knowledge, drawing out ideas that will help to develop understanding and enhance the inclusion processes and practices for EU migrant pupils in schools.

Overall, the elements of this chapter facilitate a critical examination of education policies such as inclusion, standards against the current practices and processes for the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in schools. The insights guide the research design, such as the qualitative interviews and observations carried out in order to understand the gaps in the field of inclusion. The analyses are presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 of this thesis. The critical review of the leadership's role in inclusion also sheds light on the complexities of this role in schools and the need to rethink leadership in schools in the light of the increasing recent changes in pupils' population. The literature review also supports the analyses of the results of classroom teaching and learning processes in schools which provides insights into how schools respond to inclusion and policy shifts to emphasis
increasing standards which impacts not only on schools but also on the migrant pupils (Chapters 7 and 8).

The next chapter introduces the methodological framework and methods for the data collection employed in this study. It also offers an insight into the reasoning behind the various choices made throughout the research process and how it blends the entire research study. It also illuminates the experience of the researcher as a migrant, student and teacher, and brings the study closer to the researcher’s personal journey within the English educational system.
Chapter 3 - Methodology and methods adopted for this study

3.1 Introduction

This chapter details the methodology, methods of data collection and analysis used to investigate the research objectives and research questions mentioned above in Chapter 1. The first part discusses the methodology and outlines the overall methodological framework for this study. The second section deals with the sampling, data collection and analysis methods.

The data analysis process is illustrated in the diagram in Figure 3.1 below. The data collection stages and analysis process move from the initial case selection and analysis for the first stage to the second case selection and analysis, to the writing up of the cross-case analysis. The three wide arrows at the top of the diagram (define and design; prepare collect and analyse; analyse and conclude) indicate the stages of the major planning decisions for the study, which are discussed within this chapter.

Figure 3.1 Stages of data analysis

source: Modified and adapted from Yin, 2009
Also, the reflections on the data collection and research methods were based on the case study methodology. This is followed by discussions on ethics and a chapter summary.

The next section presents the research methodology and methodological framework. The linkages and rationale for the framework are discussed in detail. This is followed by the researcher's positionality which serves to enhance the justification of the choice of methodology adopted for this study.

3.2 Research methodology and discussion of the linkages in the methodological framework.

The overall design of this study adopted a qualitative approach. Qualitative research is grounded in a philosophical position which is broadly 'interpretivist' in the sense that it is concerned with how the social world is interpreted, understood, experienced or produced. This is based on methods of data generation which are flexible and sensitive to the social context in which the data are produced rather than being rigidly standardized or structured, or removed from 'real life' or the 'natural' social context, as in some forms of experimental method (Denzin and Lincoln 1994, p2). From this perspective, we know that truth cannot be grounded in an objective reality. Hence, the validity of truth is negotiated and there can be multiple, valid claims to knowledge. While the education system is deeply situated in the cultural, political and social arena of society, these form external influences that increase the complexity of the education system. This complexity requires the use of research technique that does not limit researchers to cause and effect relationships. This research adopts the qualitative approach because of its unique features, such as the appropriateness of the methods and theories, the perspectives of the participants and their diversity, the reflexivity of the researcher and the research, and the variety of approaches and methods available in the field of qualitative research.

In their study, Pope and Mays (1995, p43) maintain that the goal of qualitative research is the development of concepts, which help us to understand social phenomena in natural (rather than experimental) settings, giving due emphasis to the meanings, experiences, and views of all participants. This suggests that qualitative research seeks to use different
means to probe questions to elicit explanations of individual experiences. Therefore, techniques like interviews, observation, diaries, and documentations are employed by qualitative researchers.

In addition, qualitative researchers embrace ontology that denies the existence of an external reality. By this, we mean one that exists outside and independent of our interpretations of it (Searle 1995, p154). It also implies that social properties are outcomes of interaction between individuals rather than phenomena out there and separate from the participants (Bryman and Bell 2003). On the other hand, the epistemological position of the qualitative researchers stresses understanding the social world by examining its interpretation by its participants. Thus, the researcher enters the field with some sort of prior insight about the research topic but assumes that this is insufficient for developing a fixed research design due to the complex, multiple and unpredictable nature of what is perceived as reality and, at the same time, remaining open to new ideas.

Thomas (2010) summarises the features of the qualitative approach in the following table:

Table 3.1 Features of the qualitative approach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ontology</td>
<td>There are multiple realities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reality can be explored, constructed through human interactions and meaningful actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discover how people make sense of their social world in the natural setting by means of daily routines, conversations and writings while interacting with others around them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many social realities exist due to varying human experience including people’s knowledge, views and interpretations and experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemology</td>
<td>Events are understood through the mental processes of interpretation that is influenced by interaction with social contexts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Those active in the research process socially construct knowledge by experiencing the real life or natural settings.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inquirer and the inquired into are interlocked in an interactive process of talking and listening, reading and writing. More personal, interactive mode of data collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Processes of data collected by text messages, interviews and reflective sessions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research is a product of the values of the researcher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, with a qualitative strategy understanding, this study outlines in the diagram below the overall methodological framework for the study (Figure 3.2). The methodological framework shows, at a glance, the first and second stages of the study. For ease of understanding, the objectives (column 1) and their linkages to the research questions (column 2) are restated, as mentioned above in Chapter 1. These are linked to column 3 which shows the research strategies through which the research objectives and questions were explored. These strategies include a critical review, interviews, document analysis, and observations.

It is important to reiterate that this research seeks to: (a) explore the processes for including EU migrant pupils; (b) assess the challenges and opportunities faced by teachers and their leaders in schools; and (c) suggest fruitful ways for the inclusion of migrant pupils. Column 3 points to chapters of the thesis where issues and outcomes associated with the research questions and objectives are discussed. For instance, research question 1 (hence RQ1) is discussed in Chapters 1 and 2 and 5, RQ2 in Chapters 4 and 5, RQ3 in Chapter 5, and (in stage 2) RQ1 in Chapters 2 and 6, RQ2 in Chapters 2 and 7, a discussion of the cases linking the theoretical underpinnings in Chapter 8, and finally the findings and recommendations in Chapter 9.

Column 4 in the framework shows the research data analysis procedure indicating the progressive focusing from stage one to stage two of the study.
Overall methodological framework of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obj.1: To critically review the existing literature on inclusion and identify issues and policies associated with including EU migrants in schools.</td>
<td>RQ1: How has the school changed over the years in terms of increasing migrant pupils? What are the policies of inclusion? What are the processes of migrant pupils inclusion through the mainstream at different stages?</td>
<td>Critical review of literature, document analysis and interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj.2: Identify the processes, policies for including migrant pupils in schools.</td>
<td>RQ2: What strategies are in place for managing teaching and learning for migrant pupils? In what ways has implementation of inclusion affected migrant pupils? In what ways do the school relate with the migrant families/parents?</td>
<td>Document analysis, interviews (Chapter)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj.3: Analyse the extent to which school practitioners' way of working affect inclusion of migrants in terms of background and support</td>
<td>RQ3: What are the support available to schools for migrant pupils? How has the school responded in terms of support both financial and non-financial? How has the local authority supported the school?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the first stage informs the second stage:
1. Scope of the migrants were narrowed to EU migrants.
2. Leadership, classroom teaching and learning were progressed further in stage two (See chapter 3 for rationale)

Second stage of the study shown below:

| Obj.1: To analyse how schools and their leaders view their task of inclusion. | RQ1: What is the role of school leaders and teachers in inclusion of EU migrant pupils? | Critical review of literature, document analysis and interview, Observation (strategy meeting) (Chapter 6) | |
| Obj.2: To examine the impact of legislation and school policy in enhancing inclusivity of EU migrant pupils. | RQ2: What impact has legislation and school policy had in enhancing inclusivity for EU migrant pupils? | Critical review of literature, document analysis and interview, Classroom observations (Chapter 7) | |

Main results, contributions, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further study (Chapter 9)

Reinforcing the loose coupling elements to education problems Developing pathways to help schools integratively manage inclusive education problems. Novel practices such as PTP and Love writing reinforcing best practices. Voices of teachers to be included in policy

Overall methodological framework for the research with links among the research objectives, questions, strategy, analysis procedure, key issues and their thesis chapter.
Rather than being guided by highly-focused research questions that lead to the search for particular study designs, the principal issue was to identify the core concepts for the study during the initial literature review. The main concern was to suspend any preconceptions about inclusion and inclusion practices in schools in order to enable the concepts to emerge from all the data collected from the field.

This study is therefore guided by a requirement to identify all of the relevant concepts. To this end, no strict limitations were placed on the research questions about inclusion in the schools under study. The research questions at this stage were designed to be open-ended so that the interviewees might have an opportunity to answer questions on issues of inclusion freely from their own perspective. The inclusion areas covered include; schools' leadership for inclusion, educational policies and practices, and schools’ responses to issues of migrant pupils.

While the first stage of the research questions tended to be broad, the outcome (Chapter 5) provided a clear focus for the direction of the second stage. Although there are different issues related to the inclusion of EU migrants emanating from the schools, leadership and classroom inclusion processes were chosen for this study, as the leadership to a great extent drives every activity in schools, especially policy implementation.

Leadership for inclusion seeks a deep understanding of the role of schools and their leaders in the daily processes of promoting the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in schools and involves approaches that complement the efforts of teachers within the classroom. Classroom teaching and learning facilitate achievement for the migrants and the classroom provides the context for daily interactions between pupils and teachers. Also, pupils spend more time in the classroom than anywhere else within the school, so inclusion practices happen more often in classrooms. These two major lines of enquiry formed the main research questions for the second stage.

It is clear from the above that the methodological framework illustrates the linkages among the objectives, key research questions and methods. The point is that it illustrates
how the research objectives and the associated research questions are explored throughout the thesis.

3.3 Researcher's positionality

The research problem in this investigation emanated from the researcher’s personal struggles as a migrant, a teacher and a student of higher education in the UK while experiencing at first hand the inclusion process and its challenges. As a new arrival, I experienced strong emotional challenges and difficulties related to adjusting to a new environment such as understanding the nature of the social relationships and culture. I struggled to get to grips with the system of teaching and learning over the period of time that I spent at the academic institution.

After completing my postgraduate studies, I decided to enter the teaching profession. This brought me closer to the core cultural relationships and practices of English society. I was surprised at the degree to which issues of race and identity affected my social relationships and experience. However, within the university environment, there was a lot of coursework to complete, but the contact time with lecturers was quite limited in which to seek the meaning of identity or racism in relationships. It is not unusual for a proportion of all the students to work part-time to augment their income, so I took on several part-time jobs. I worked in neighbourhood organisations and mingled with the local people. This was my first experience of what I would call 'culture shock'. There were issues of the language barrier, differences in work ethics, and people’s attitudes towards me as a person of colour.

In addition, my native accent interferes with my oral English and the locals who were my work colleagues find it difficult to understand what I am saying, so occasionally I need to explain things repeatedly, which I sometimes found frustrating. I began to realise that although English is the language of instruction in schools in my home country, oral English is equally important in daily conversations with locals in the UK. I found this to be the beginning of my acculturation, which started shaping my understanding of the English language. Meanings that the English attach to words vary compared to similar
words in my home country. There are also differences in body language. In addition, the attitudes of my work colleagues and the locals were quite similar, as they have preconceived notions about a person of colour. As far as some of the locals I encountered are concerned, a person of colour does not know how to speak like them and could be made a scapegoat when things go wrong at work. This placed a lot of pressure on me and made me withdrawn, perceiving my environment as hostile.

At the initial teacher-training school (ITT), I was the only black teacher in a local school. The issue of race was very significant in my relationship with my mentor, staff and pupils. I experienced blatant racism among my fellow staff. I categorised their attitude towards me into three types: a few of the staff were neutral about race and related quite normal to me; a few had racial bias and exhibited it by not including me in meetings and picking on any slight mistake; others were sympathisers but would not speak up against racism. I recall starting a lesson for my first time as a trainee teacher with a group of 25 year 10 'A' list students, according to the timetable I had been given. Midway through the lesson, a member of my department’s staff came in and asked me to stop, asked why I had been allocated this class and said that I cannot teach the 'A' list as she did not think that I would be capable. She mentioned that I was not part of the system and did not think that I knew very much. I felt humiliated in front of the students. This teacher continued from where I had left off, and I departed the classroom quietly.

On my last day as a trainee teacher, after checking my portfolio and awarding marks, my mentor remarked that people could try to take everything from me but the only thing that cannot be taken away is intellectual ability. This statement generated a lot of questions about racial incidences in my mind. For days after I left the school, I kept recalling different incidences of name calling by the staff in the presence of my pupils and attempts/refusals to have appraisal sessions as a trainee teacher, and also the notion that it does not matter if I am laughed at in front of students.

On the part of the students, it was important to them to listen to me speaking like them while delivering my lessons. This did not materialise as my native accent interferes from time to time. It was an opportunity for them to laugh and mimic my way of speaking. For
some, it was their first encounter with a black teacher, who seemed to be relatively new to the system and unaware of the disciplinary procedures within the school. I recall a case with a girl in my class who refused to pay attention during lessons or complete any of the assignments but instead chose to sit chatting with her friends during lessons. On these occasions, I took the necessary disciplinary procedures by writing to her parents, reporting it to the school authority and issuing warning letters. When this student came in with her parents on parents' evening, I sat with another member of staff from the department to talk to them. She said, 'I started failing this subject since this black teacher came'. Through going through the records and explaining the situation within the classroom, it emerged that her parents were unaware of the reports sent home as she had intercepted them.

I have experienced every form of racist attitude both from the locals in the organisations where I worked part-time while a postgraduate student and also from my fellow teachers and students within the school where I taught as a trainee teacher. Cole and Stuart (2005, p349), describing the racial attitudes towards trainee teachers in the south of England, note that there are different forms of racism, such as overt intentional racism, based on biology or genetics, whereby people are declared inferior on racial grounds and which is now generally unacceptable in the public domain.

Racism can be based on genetics (for instance, in notions of white people having higher IQs than black people), racism out of ignorance, overt (as in racist name-calling) or covert (as in glances, muttering, and avoiding people's company). Their findings show that many pupils are ignorant about the world and its people beyond their own community and that pupils are often largely misinformed by the media’s depiction of Africa, which tends to focus, in a well-meaning sense, on poverty and deprivation.

Furthermore, my experience of teaching in UK secondary schools exposed me to the policy pressures under which teachers work every day, ranging from the demands of pedagogy (teaching and learning within the classroom), standards and improvement, professional development, administrative work, and family commitment. A turning point was the arrival of a new student from the EU whose parents had just migrated to the UK.
As a classroom teacher, I found myself a key player in determining the future of this pupil. Considering my own personal experience, I began to wonder if other practitioners within the school understood the struggles of EU migrant pupils and their role in charting the future of these pupils. In order to streamline these thoughts, the inclusion of EU migrant pupils became an umbrella word for this study.

My experience is no different from that of these pupils, who have been subjected to humiliating circumstances, such as stereotyping, discrimination, and being easy prey for racial harassment among their peers in the education system. Hence, exploring the experience of other individuals in my category will bring to light some unspoken struggles that need to be addressed with regard to inclusion at the micro (individual and school level) and macro (community and national) levels. Moreover, teachers’ daily constant contact with pupils is highly dynamic. Inquiry into this dynamism captures teachers’ subjective meanings. On my own part, the lure to be able to undertake such an inquiry in the future was quite strong, as was my desire to have a voice and be more than a mere classroom teacher. According to Butt et al. (1992, p56):

_The notion of the teacher’s voice is important in that it carries the tone, the language, the quality, the feelings that are conveyed by the way a teacher speaks or writes. In a political sense, the notion of the teacher’s voice addresses the right to speak and be represented. It can represent both the unique individual and the collective voice; one that is characteristic of teachers as compared to other groups._

This self-reflection brings to light, the silent struggles of a migrant who was navigating a new terrain full of uncertainty. My experience relates to every EU migrant pupil in the UK. As an adult, I consider myself lucky as I could negotiate some boundaries such as knowing when I face racial behaviour and avoiding conflicts by defining my own boundaries compared to an underage child. No doubt classroom teachers are key players in the future of their pupils. It has been noted that a philosophical position may be so important that it can be seen as an epistemological claim (Noblit 2004, p21).

Awareness of my positionality on inclusion affects what I think can be known or truth. My ability to recognise this makes it possible to begin to question equity and equality in
education. Then, one begins to probe other issues that will challenge the institutions, regimes of knowledge and social practices limiting choices, constraining meanings, and denigrating identities and communities to end the current education practices and create a generation of students who are ready to embrace diversity for equity and inclusion for equality. According to Franklin (2012), to get to the roots of inequity, inequitable access to learning, the under-representation of teachers of colour, practices of cultural assimilation, an a paradigm shift is needed in all teachers.

Furthermore, the literature review (see Chapter 2) suggests that inclusion is a problematic issue in schools, and questions remain regarding how we can achieve inclusion for EU migrant pupils in education. It is my belief that all EU migrant pupils have great enthusiasm to learn, despite all odds (background issues, language and adjustment). The teachers themselves know this and are fully-equipped to provide the opportunity to learn through inclusion so that students can fulfil their aspirations.

3.4 Case study approach

This study utilises an exploratory case study design. The researcher intends to draw out rich data on the experiences and impacts of inclusion on EU migrant pupils and schools of study. In order to achieve this, thick description is important; hence the selection of the case study method. Yin (2003, p13) defines a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are blurred. The nature of the case study method provides the flexibility to study phenomena in their own context. This method is preferred for this study because it is particularly suited to research questions that require a detailed understanding of social or organisational processes because of their rich data in context.

In addition, an in-depth explanation regarding the nature of the data to be collected can only be achieved with small scale data captured using the case study research method, which has been frequently associated with qualitative research. Sandelowski (1996) notes that case study is a research strategy that is not located in any one methodological domain.
but that may involve qualitative and/or quantitative techniques that are always oriented towards understanding for some purpose. This may be a singular entity, such as a person, an aggregate or a spatiotemporally-defined entity, such as a family, organization, cultural group, or event. Within such study, the case study method helps us to understand complex issues and can strengthen what the researchers and their audience already know about the case.

Multiple case study approach

Yin (2009, p53) mentions that duplicate study may contain more than a single case, in which case it is considered to have a multiple case design. Herriot and Firestone (1983, p14) refer to this as a multisite qualitative study, which addresses the same research question in a number of settings using similar data collection and analysis procedures in each, consciously seeking to permit cross-case comparisons without necessarily sacrificing within-site understanding.

The researcher found from her personal experience of working as a supply teacher in several schools within two LAs in the north of England that the approaches to the inclusion of EU migrant pupils vary, so it became important to understand how the inclusion of EU migrant pupils is practised in different school environments. This study has therefore considered the use of multiple case studies in order to explore and bring out the rich data in different schools chosen for the study.

Yin (2009, p53) notes that a multiple case study approach increased the external validity to the research through the implied ‘replication logic’ inherent in its design meaning that each case serves as a distinct experiment that stands on its own as an analytic unit. Replication logic is comparable to that used in multiple experiments; for instance, when a significant finding from a single experiment is uncovered, an attempt is made to replicate this finding in another. In the multiple-case studies design, there are no hard-and-fast rules about how many cases are needed to satisfy the requirements of the replication strategy. Yin (2009) suggests that six-to-ten cases, if the results turn out as predicted, are sufficient for providing compelling support for the initial set of propositions.
Study design

Yin (2009) identified the following three specific types of case study: exploratory, explanatory, and descriptive. He notes that exploratory cases are sometimes considered a prelude to social research, explanatory case studies may be used for conduct causal investigations, and descriptive cases require a descriptive theory to be developed before the project begins. However, Stake (1995) extends the nature of case studies to: intrinsic, when the researcher has an interest in the case; instrumental, when the case is used to understand more than what is obvious to the observer; and collective, when a group of cases is studied. In all of these types of case study, there can be single- or multiple-case applications.

This study adopts an exploratory study design, as it focuses on the inclusion of EU migrant pupils within education. Although exploratory case study is a prelude to the main research, as mentioned above, Stebbins (2001, p6) argues this type of research involves putting oneself in a place repeatedly where discovery is possible. If this is the case, the idea of exploratory in this case study research makes it attractive to examine the inclusion and standards in education for migrant pupils, moving beyond the schools to the institutional structures and causalities.

Unit of analysis

For the purpose of this study, schools have been identified as the cases. Case studies tend to be selective, focusing on one or two issues that are fundamental to understanding the system under examination. Patton (2002, p9) indicates that the key issue when selecting and making decisions about an appropriate unit of analysis is to decide what it is you want to be able to say something about at the end of the study. He further notes that there is no distinction between the case and the unit of analysis, as they are identical. 'Cases are units of analysis' (Patton 2002, p447).

However, Berg (2001, p231) distinguishes between a unit of analysis and a case, arguing that the former defines on what the case study is focusing (what the case is), such as an individual, group, organisation, city, and so forth.
While this study focuses on inclusion and standards with regard to their impact on schools and EU pupils in the different cases, our analysis will be focused on what happens in the study schools, so this research recognises schools as the unit of analysis, which is in line with Patton's suggestion. In support, Yin (2003, p114) confirms that the significance of this identification to the study is that the findings will pertain to specific theoretical propositions about the defined unit of analysis.

Case selection

Case selection entails choosing a case to study out of many similar cases that best fits the phenomenon under study. The researcher examines various interests in the phenomenon, selecting a case that is of some typicality but leaning towards those cases that seem to offer the opportunity to learn (Denzin and Lincoln 2000). The phenomenon of study in this case is the inclusion of EU migrant pupils. The English education system is composed of various levels of educational institution, such as kindergartens, primary, secondary and higher education. However, primary and secondary education is preferred of all the levels, as children aged between 6 and 16 years old are aware of their environment. According to Ackerman et al. (2004, p203), six-year-olds think logically as long as the problem tackled remains within the realm of their direct experience. Also, the researcher has teaching experience at the secondary level. Moreover, these cases were recommended by the LA consultant during a meeting held at the LA’s premises during the first stage of this study, so this decision was based upon the LA’s data on the migrant pupils’ population in schools. Finally, the data may be compared between the primary and secondary schools.

Furthermore, within the primary and secondary level, there are different types of state and independent schools. Those run by the state are directed and funded by the central government while the self-governing ones are funded by private individuals or organisations. State schools have been chosen as the research focus. All children in England between the ages of five and sixteen years old are entitled to a free place at a state school, of which there are four main types: community, foundation and trust, voluntary aided/controlled and specialist schools. Our attention focuses on community
schools, which are a standard type of maintained school, run by the LA. By far, the majority of UK children are educated within the free, state school system (British Council Education Information 2010), which suggests that EU migrant pupils, whose families are mainly economic migrants, are likely to attend community schools also.

3.5 Population and sampling frame

Ingram-Broomfield (2008, p105) defines a target population as the total membership of a defined set of subjects from which the study subjects are selected. In this study, the population is migrant pupils, including all ethnicities except British and all age groups, who are currently enrolled in a school in England. Regarding the sampling frame, Flick (1998, p115) argues that sampling emerges at different points during the research process, as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Areas of sampling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage in research</th>
<th>Sampling methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>While collecting data</td>
<td>Case sampling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sampling groups of cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While interpreting data</td>
<td>Material sampling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sampling within the material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While presenting the findings</td>
<td>Presentational sampling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This suggests that most of the decisions made in qualitative research throughout different stages of the study regarding what to include rely mainly on using different sampling strategies to achieve the research aims and objectives. In contrast, sampling in quantitative research is usually large and depends upon the ability to generalise. Bryman and Bell (2003, p91) maintain that the ability to generalise your findings from your sample to the population from which it was selected means that the sample must be
representative. The nature of qualitative inquiry is so subjective that it requires in-depth study and rich data. It therefore, seeks selected areas where there is a possibility of finding of such data. Accordingly, Patton (2002, p114) notes that qualitative methods typically produce a wealth of detailed data about a much smaller number of people and cases, which increase the depth of understanding of the cases and situations studied.

Choosing a setting for a study includes finding a location, organisations and participants. Morse and Field (1996, p104) state that a location should be determined where the topic of study manifests itself most strongly. Schools in the north of England are experiencing an increase in diversity in the wake of the EU expansion in 2004. Stratop and Rivervalley are among the LAs experiencing such an increase and so were deemed appropriate for this study. They have also been chosen because of their location and proximity to the researcher, so purposeful and convenience sampling was undertaken.

Selecting the LAs and schools

It is important to this study to understand the LAs’ influences and role regarding the inclusion of EU migrants in schools. The researcher hopes that data in this area will be obtained from the LAs’ chairpersons and education units working with schools. The initial request to speak to the chairperson and education units of the two LAs of interest to this study (Stratop and Rivervalley) was referred to the department in charge of ethnic minority affairs. The LA’s chairperson’s secretary, who spoke to the researcher on the phone, made it clear that the issue of inclusion and diversity is only handled by the Ethnic Minority and Travellers Achievement Service (EMTAS). Undeterred, the researcher then emailed the research questions and abstract, including the reasons why it was important to speak to the LA chairperson, but this proved in vain. Similarly, the schools exhibited a similar pattern of directing calls and emails to the inclusion leaders when they were contacted. This pattern of seeing inclusion as an issue for inclusion units at the onset may indicate a narrow view whereby inclusion is not a daily issue in which everyone in the school is involved; hence the impression that inclusion is meant for those who have the need for it.
3.6 Access negotiation and the recruitment of the participants

This section discusses the criteria for potential participants, the number of people recruited, the location and the approach used. The recruitment was based on a number of data collection activities and the characteristics within the study population. Gaining access to schools to conduct a research study is usually difficult, mainly on the grounds of protection and safety for the young children. The head teachers of the selected schools were initially contacted by phone, followed by an email containing an attachment containing a one-page overview, the research objectives, an informed consent form (Appendix 5), a parent or carer consent pro forma (Appendix 6), ethical guidelines, a current Disclosure and Barring Service check (DBS) and a letter of introduction (Appendix 7). In return, the contacted schools agreed and interview dates were arranged. In addition, approval was granted by the university ethics committee vetting to ensure that the rules and regulations guiding the research were maintained. The university ethics committee has a responsibility to ensure that all research and teaching exercises carried out under university’s auspices are consistent with the established ethical principles.

This study recognises that research is an on-going process. Therefore, the recruitment process was designed to be flexible enough to accommodate any changes that might occur, such as modifications to the research questions, the emergence of new issues on inclusion, a selected participant declining participation at some point, or their data proving not to be useful. It was important to work with the LA consultants at EMTAS in order to build trust with the selected schools. These consultants work extensively with the families and schools within the communities on issues of inclusion in education. When the consultants were identified, they were quite happy to participate and a meeting was scheduled. They advised on potential school participants and provided the contact names of head teachers of schools that might wish to participate. They forwarded emails to the head teachers to indicate their interest. In Stratop and Rivervalley LAs, ten head teachers were contacted (five from each). Four of the ten schools indicated an interest.

There were initial calls made upon the schools for participation and emails explaining the aim of the research were sent out as a follow-up. The schools were selected from the
LA's list of schools found on the Internet. The schools treated this as a 'cold call' initially. A few schools that replied simply indicated 'no interest'. However, schools that were introduced to the researcher by LA EMTAS consultants were followed up with calls and emails, attaching the overview of the research aims and objectives, and they accepted the invitation to participate in the study, as mentioned above.

Choice of the names of the interviewees and LAs

The primary goal of all researchers is to protect the identity of their research participants. The anonymity and confidentiality of the participants are central to ethical social research practice. Pseudonyms are subject to various fashions; some are coined while others are chosen at random. It was assumed initially that there might be three or more rounds of data collection for this study, so it was necessary to differentiate the names to avoid confusing the names of the interviewees and schools during each round. Hence, the English alphabet (A, B, C) was used for stage one of the studies while, for the second stage, a name was generated by the 'false names generator' found via Google, which selects names at random using names and genders that are peculiar to different countries, depending upon the researcher's preference. In this study, fake random names were selected according to the participants' gender and country of origin.

Choice of schools and participants for the first stage of the study

In selecting the community schools within the Stratop LA for the first stage of the study, a meeting was held with two LA EMTAS consultants, as mentioned earlier, to identify suitable schools. Based on the schools' data about their ethnic minority population held by the service, three schools were identified, including a primary and secondary school for each LA. The major initial considerations with regard to the choice of schools were relevance, diversity, and context.

With regard to relevance, inclusion is a major issue in UK schools (both primary and secondary), especially given the increasingly diverse pupil population. Also, the 2008 schools' data held by the Stratop LA shows an increasing population of diverse pupils within its schools. The interviewees for the first stage represent the head teachers of three
schools (two secondary and one primary) and an EMTAS consultant in Stratop LA, as listed in Table 3.3 as follows:

Table 3.3 Participants for the first stage of the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Designation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Desmond</td>
<td>Stratop Local Authority Consultant (Ethnic Minority and Travellers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thyme</td>
<td>Achievement Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julia Roberz</td>
<td>Head Teacher (School A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katy Boulevard</td>
<td>Head Teacher (School B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dona Karen</td>
<td>Head Teacher (School C)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Choice of schools and participants for the second stage of the study

In the second stage of the research study, again, the choice of schools was influenced by recommendations from the initial meeting about the first stage. Stratop and Rivervalley LAs were chosen based upon the fact that both have a similar experience of an influx of migrants into education. Schools were chosen based on the schools' data held by the two LAs and their assistance with personal contacts as a result of my on-going relationship with the schools. Moreover, these schools feed one another as well as work together to share resources and ideas, so the choice of a 'family of schools' was considered, which refers to groups of schools comprising primary and secondary schools within a particular local radius feeding one another with human and material resources and working together on a common school improvement theme such as EAL (English as an Additional Language), curriculum standards, subject projects, etc. Two families of schools were chosen consisting of a primary and secondary school from each LA, as shown in Table 3.4 as follows:

Table 3.4 LAs and Schools for the second stage.
On the other hand, the choice of participants during the sampling process for the EU families in the second stage of the study proved difficult as these parents were not a visible group to approach, although they live within the community. Initially, access was sought through the participating schools to reach out to the families of their EU migrant pupils, but the schools declined this on the grounds of data protection (their duty to protect the identity of their pupils’ families). Attempts were made through the LA liaison officers working with families within the community, but similar problems with data protection were encountered. An attempt to reach the families through independent charity organisations provided a clue to rethink the sampling method for such families. These organisations informed the researchers that the EU families in contact with them do not understand English, have little or no education, and feel suspicious as they are unaccustomed to research interviews. In a further attempt to change tactics to obtain these participants, the snowball sampling method was used to recruit families to participate in the research.

Snowball or chain referral sampling is a method that has been widely used in qualitative sociological research. This method yielded a study sample through referrals made among people who share or know of others who possess certain characteristics that are of research interest (Bienacki and Waldorf 1981). As a result, friends within the community who have friends who are members of the EU families living in the community were introduced, and they agreed to participate in the research. Taken together, the recruitment of participants from the LAs (Stratop and Rivervalley) was purposeful sampling the while families within the community were contacted via the snowball sampling method. This
resulted in a total of 14 audio recorded and two manually recorded interviews, and five observations (three classroom and two LA observations).

Table 3.5 shows the location, names and positions of the participants and observations undertaken at this stage. Pseudonyms are used for all the names and locations relating to the research participants due to confidentiality reasons.

Table 3.5 Participants for the second stage of the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisations</th>
<th>Participants and position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stratop Local Authority</td>
<td>John Parker - Ethnic Minority and Travellers Services Consultant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thomas Minton- Senior manager EMTAS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivervalley Authority Local</td>
<td>Elizabeth Becker - Manager EMTAS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Walid Kassis- Manager Community Cohesion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birkhead School</td>
<td>Annie Tavares- Deputy Head teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ella Wellman- Director teaching and Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frontier School</td>
<td>Asiya Abadi- Inclusion Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Noemi Belak- Head of Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kristina Polenik - Bilingual Teaching Assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashberg School</td>
<td>Julius Dixon - Head teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anna McCulloch- Inclusion Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westend School</td>
<td>Adeela Saliba- Head of Inclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Felicita Czamecka - EAL Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Connie Sharp- Teaching Assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Families in the community</td>
<td>Lojza (Slovakia) Family (Two teenagers in secondary school)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This research stage involved collecting and transcribing the interview data obtained from the participants and written observations. Although the intention was to collect more data, after conducting 15 interviews, making five observations with schools and LA staff, and interviewing two families within the community, no new insights were being produced. At that point, it was important to be more conscious about seeking data from new participants. Therefore, it became necessary to analyse the data already collected in order to utilise the emergent issues and develop them further in case the need to go back to the field arises.

3.7 Summary of the methods and approaches in the key chapters

This study had utilised a number of different methods, including a critical review of the literature, in-depth interviews (formal and informal), document review analysis, observations, multiple case study and a critical discussion of the results.

Critical review of the literature

This involves a review of the existing literature on areas such as leadership in education,
teacher beliefs and values, support for inclusion, migrant pupils' background and experiences, policies of inclusion and standards, cultural beliefs and values, which provides a strong theoretical foundation to underpin this study.

**In-depth Interviews (formal and informal)**

Interviewing is a method of collecting data from humans by asking questions and obtaining their verbal reactions. Turner (2010, p754) notes that interviews provide in-depth information pertaining to the participants' experiences and viewpoints about a particular topic. Interviewing the identified participants for the research provides an opportunity to listen and understand the experiences of inclusion of the policy makers, teachers, EU migrant pupils and their families within the community. Additionally, in-depth interviews provide an opportunity for reflexivity on the part of the practitioners in the schools. Fontana and Frey (2000, p649) identify different forms of interviewing, such as individual face to face verbal interchanges, face to face group interchanges, mailed or self-administered questionnaires and telephone surveys.

This study relied mainly on individual face to face interchanges. The participants were contacted by phone and email in advance to invite them to interview. On acceptance, the interviews were held in the participant's office. They received copies of the research objectives and terms of confidentiality, and each interview lasted for at least an hour. Fontana and Frey further explained that interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured. Structured interviews involve the interviewer asking all of the respondents the same series of predetermined questions with a limited set of responses.

While semi-structured and unstructured interviews are widely used for qualitative studies, giving the respondent some degree of freedom to provide more information, structured interviews are used to survey people's opinions, beliefs and perceptions. Bryman and Bell (2003) note that, during a semi-structured interview, the researcher has a list of questions on fairly specific topics, referred to as an interview guide, but the interviewee has a great deal of leeway regarding how they reply. Additionally, in an unstructured interview, the researcher uses at most an aide-mémoire as a brief set of prompts for
dealing with a certain range of topics. Semi-structured interviews were adopted mainly for the formal settings; for instance, interviews with the LA EMTAS consultants and school practitioners. Interview guides were prepared for every level of interviewee.

Patton (2002) explains that qualitative interviewing could also take the form of informal conversational interviews, which resemble a chat, during which the informants may sometimes forget that they are being interviewed. This study incorporates the experiences of the EU families in the community. However, the researcher recognises that formal interviews are difficult to arrange with the EU families within the community so, to facilitate the discussion of issues of inclusion; informal conversational interviews were deemed the best approach, which relies primarily on the spontaneous generation of questions during the natural flow of an interaction. The strength of this method, according to Patton (2002), is that questions can be personalised to deepen communication with the interviewee. In this case, therefore, the unstructured interview method was adopted for the informal conversational method.

Document Review analysis

Public records, personal documents and physical materials are the types of document available to the researcher for analysis (Merriam 2002). Archival data within the schools and policy documents were made ready for use on request by the school practitioners. With popular technology, schools have websites where their policy and other documents are stored electronically. Other websites, such as teacher net, the schools’ inspection service and the directorate for education’s sites, also provide useful electronic data for schools. Marshall and Rossman (1995, p85) identify items for document analysis such as the minutes of meetings, logs, announcements, formal policy documents, and letters. They further argue that documents supplement interviews as a data collection method and are rich in portraying the values and beliefs of the participants in the setting.

This research, however, utilised documents from schools, such as internal and external documents. The schools’ internal documents that were collected for analysis were the Ofsted inspection reports, policy documents (attendance, school activities and documents
for parents) posted on their websites. The external ones include documents from Ofsted websites, league table reports, and Office for National Statistics (ONS) data for schools. More information on the data collected from schools and their websites is discussed extensively in Chapter 4. In addition to documents, some of the interviews were audio recorded.

*Observations*

The researcher directly observed the settings, activities, people and meanings of what is observed from the participants’ perspective. This provides a holistic understanding of the context within which the study participants operate, who are children between the ages of 6-16 years who are of EU origin, selected for the study. The researcher recognises that these pupils express themselves more through actions (unspoken words). Classroom observation therefore enabled the researcher to understand the behaviour of the teachers and pupils and the meaning that all of the participants construct from their own perspective.

Frechtling (2002) argues that observational approaches allow the evaluator to learn about things about which the participants or staff may be unaware, or that they are unwilling or unable to discuss in an interview or focus group. Savenye and Robinson (1996, p1052) distinguish between two types of observation – participant and non-participant observation. While the former entails the observer becoming 'part' of the environment, or the cultural context, the latter is one of the several methods available for collecting data that is considered to be relatively unobtrusive.

It is important to note that the position of the researcher is flexible, in view of the fact that she is a qualified teacher and the field of the research is the schools where she has a rapport with the teachers, identifying each other as fellow practitioners. It is not unusual for the researcher to sit among the children during activities outside the classroom. According to Dewalt and Dewalt (2002, p25), there are different degrees of participation. Table 3.6 illustrates the continuum as follows:

Table 3.6 Continuum of participation.
Continuum of participation  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Membership roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete participation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Spradley’s continuum of participation (Dewalt and Dewalt, 2002)**

Given that the continuum of participation ranges from nonparticipation (no involvement with people or activities) to complete participation (becoming a member within the group being studied), the researcher’s level of participation in the field observation is categorised as moderate. Moderate participation, according to Dewalt and Dewalt, is a situation where the researcher is present during the scene of action and is identifiable as a researcher, but does not actively participate or only occasionally interacts with those within it. This suggests that there exists a basic balance between participation and observation, or outsider and insider. To facilitate this chosen position for observation, it was negotiated with the head teacher and the classroom teacher where the observation would take place. In the process, where the researcher encounters ethical issues associated with working among the children during observation, ethical considerations depend on the researcher’s ability to understand and respond to the feelings about the children with whom they work (Christensen and Prout 2002, p483).

Additionally, Mulhall (2002) distinguishes between two methods of observation, structured and unstructured. While structured observation is used in positivist research as a discrete activity to record physical and verbal behaviour, unstructured observation is used in humanistic inquiry to understand and interpret cultural behaviour. This study adopts the unstructured observation method to enable the researcher to capture insights into the interactions between the pupils and teachers, the whole picture of the classroom teacher’s inclusive activities and the influence of the physical environment.
Classroom observation for this study was a three-stage process involving a pre-observation meeting, class observation and a follow up chat. During the pre-observation session, the researcher met the inclusion leader who introduced the class teacher to the research, and the time for actual observation was agreed. All of the teachers shared one thing in common; they wanted to know my identity and my purpose in observing them. One teacher at Ashberg School pointed out during the pre-observation session that the teachers dislike having their teaching observed, unless they are well-prepared for the observation session. However, they were assured that all of the information was for research purposes only, and confidentiality was assured. As teachers, they were confident that they were only trying to safeguard their professionalism. The observation took place for a total of three hours. The first hour covered a lesson in the morning, the second hour break time in the field, and the third hour was an afternoon session, mainly involving taking narrative notes about what had happened during all of the sessions. This was the same for all of the case study schools. The post-observation meeting lasted about ten minutes with the teachers to clarify any questions the researcher might have.

Audio recordings

All of the interviews with the school practitioners and LA staff were audio recorded. Consent to use audio recording is embedded within the confidentiality document that the participants read and signed before the onset of the interviews. The school practitioners were quite comfortable with this, but were very conscious of what they say about EU migrant pupils. They were quite comfortable discussing issues about academic and inclusion issues pertaining to the Roma group from the EU with the audio recorder turned on. However, they discussed Roma group discrimination with the researcher informally and with the audio recorder turned off. The aim in audio recording interviews is to obtain concrete evidence from the interviews and ensure that all of the information from the respondents is captured. The few Roma families interviewed for the research refused to be audio recorded and were selective about what could be recorded manually. Audio recording helps the researcher to concentrate on the questions during the interview rather than stopping the respondent at times to jot down information. The audio recording can
be replayed repeatedly after each meeting for transcription purposes and to enhance the researcher's familiarity with the interview discussions.

3.8 Data collection methods and analysis

This section discusses the selection decisions, criteria and methods of data collection. There are several data-gathering techniques used for qualitative studies. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995, p78), the fundamental methods relied upon by qualitative researchers for gathering information are as follows: participation in the setting; direct observation; in-depth interviewing; document review; and audio recording. These methods form the core. Although there are several dimensions within the core methods, those used for this study are discussed in the following sections.

Data analysis procedure

This study utilised extensively data analysis software (NVivo), which assists with managing, shaping and making sense of unstructured information. It provides a sophisticated workspace that enables one to work through the gathered data. With purpose-built tools for classifying, sorting and arranging information, qualitative research software frees up more time to analyse the materials, identify the themes, glean insights and develop meaningful conclusions (Ereaut 2011, p1). A sample of the first stage of the data analysis using NVivo software is shown in Figure 3.3 below:

Figure 3.3 Sample of NVivo software data analysis interface.
The researcher looks beyond the empirical data to explain what lies beyond the words and actions of the schools, EU migrant pupils, government rhetoric and policies. Miles and Huberman (1994, p10) argue that qualitative data analysis consists of three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. Data reduction entails focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data or transcriptions. Data display organises the data in such a way that conclusions can be drawn, and conclusion drawing calls for decision by the researcher about what things mean, noting the regularities patterns, explanations, configurations,
causal flows and propositions. More specifically, Ritchie and Spencer (1994, p173) introduced the framework method of analysis using the following five-stage process:

- Familiarisation
- Identifying thematic framework
- Indexing
- Charting
- Mapping and interpretation.

Ritchie and Spencer explain that the strength of the framework approach is that, by following a well-defined procedure, it is possible to reconsider and rework ideas precisely because the analytical process has been documented and is, therefore, accessible. In the process of analysis throughout this study, the five-stage process approach has been adopted, as explained in the next section.

The familiarisation process involves immersion in the raw data (or typically, a pragmatic selection from the data) by listening to tapes, reading transcripts, studying notes and so on, in order to list the key ideas and recurrent themes (Pope, Ziebland and Mays 2000, p1). All of the interviews conducted in the schools, and the LAs were audio recorded. After each interview session, which lasted for a minimum of an hour, the audio recordings were transcribed, noting all the pauses and the hypes in the tone of the interviewees. Some notes were taken during the interviews. However, transcription can prove a challenging task as it entails playing the recordings repeatedly to facilitate familiarisation with the data.

The notes made during the interview and observation processes were reread repeatedly and the key ideas were formed. Bogdan and Biklen (1982, p156) suggested examining the setting and context, the informants’ perspectives, and their ways of thinking about people, objects, processes, activities, events, and relationships. They describe coding data according to categories and the details of the settings; the types of situation observed; the subjects’ perspectives and views about all manner of phenomena and objects; processes,
activities, events, strategies, the methods observed, and social relationships. In the first round of coding, every sentence or group of sentences were read and coded in the free nodes. The codes formed emerged from the data. NVivo software was used to hold the coded data in small compartments until the data coding had been completed. Within this stage, identifying a thematic framework occurs after familiarisation, when the researcher recognises emerging themes or issues in the data which form the key themes. They were moved to the thematic nodes. According to Ritchie and Spencer (1994), these key themes are likely to reflect the aims of the original proposal as well as those emerging from the data. In the third stage of indexing, the thematic framework is applied to the whole data. This is a systematic arrangement of data whereby the themes emerging from the data are arranged as sub categories under the key theme.

In addition, NVivo software facilitated this arrangement easily through 'node' structures. In the charting stage, the fourth stage, the specific pieces of data that were indexed in the previous stage are now arranged in charts of the themes. This means that the data are lifted from their first textual context and placed in charts consisting of the headings and subheadings drawn during the thematic framework, or from a-priori research inquiries or in the manner perceived to be the best way to report the research. Fifth is the mapping stage, which is influenced by the primary research objectives as well as by the themes which emerged from the data themselves. In the data presentation stage, each school in the case study is treated as a stand-alone case and analysed in isolation. This was done for all four schools using the themes that emerged from the data. The case is presented using the content analysis approach. Next, a cross-case analysis is performed, discussing the similarities and differences relating to each school, underpinned by the research theory (Chapter 2). Questions and responses were framed around these three aforementioned outstanding lines of enquiry. They formed the major themes of the analysis. The framework for the analysis of each major theme starts with a brief review of the theme and its rationale. The sub themes are analysed by comparing and contrasting the data emerging from the four schools of study and, finally, a summary examines the key outcomes of each sub theme and develops a link to the next theme.
3.9 Ethics

There are standard ethical rules which researchers must abide by in order to achieve the research objectives and neither harm nor exploit the participants. Also, most organisations have rules and regulations guiding the research undertaken within and outside their organisation. However, Lindorff (2010, p57) remarks that it is easy to see ‘ethical’ in the research context as ‘being truthful and doing no physical harm’, but this directs attention away from the issues of the participants, groups, and community rights or even abiding by the guidelines of the ethics review board of the institution.

Ethics require an understanding of the participants’ sensibilities, knowledge of the context of their current situation, and appreciation of future possibilities. The university has its own standards and ethical guidelines, which are binding on every researcher. This research study received the necessary approval, such as the faculty’s research ethics committee’s approval (Appendix 3) and the university research degree sub-committee’s (Appendix 4) approval before the data collection began. Other ethical issues which are anticipated in the field, such as approaching potential participants, gaining consent from the participants, the data collection, analysis and dissemination, reciprocity and remuneration, are discussed in the subsequent sections.

Informed consent

In their study, Harcourt and Conroy (2005, p569) note that a primary key to ethical research is informed consent and, in the case of any person who has not reached the age of consent, then informed assent suffices. In any research process, participants are given the right to decide and determine whether it is in their best interest to collaborate. The British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004, p5) defined voluntary informed consent as a condition in which the participants understand and agree to their participation without any duress, prior to the start of the research. Contacting schools in the UK about a research project is not usually an easy task, especially for external researchers. Schools tend to be protective of the children as they seek trust and authenticity in the researcher. In some cases, the use of gatekeepers from the LA becomes
necessary. This issue was overcome by trust, and the fact that the researcher is identified as a qualified teacher and a supply teacher allowed her the opportunity to build relationships with teachers within the geographical location of the schools of study. Once the participating schools had been determined, a letter was sent to the head teachers explaining the purpose of the project. Follow-up phone calls were made to discuss the date and length (usually at least 30 minutes) of the interview, thus fulfilling the obligation of informed consent.

The consent gained from the schools in the initial stages enabled the researcher to undertake non-participant observation in the classroom. Since the pupils are regarded as the research subjects in this study, this does not allow the researcher to interview them, although it was made clear that, as research unfolds, if the need to interview the pupils arose, consent would be negotiated through the parents or, if the child is competent, he/she would give his/her own consent in writing.

Reciprocity and remuneration

Sometimes, during research, the fact that the researcher must request the informants to provide him/her with their time and information, some informants ask 'What’s in it for me?'; the researcher encountered this question with all research participants. However, a reason that makes sense to them determines how much information they are prepared to release. This research study made sense to them because it is about a current phenomenon in schools to which teachers and their leaders are seeking solutions, so it was an opportunity for them to reflect on what they have achieved so far in terms of the EU migrant pupils in their schools. On the other hand, at the LA level, they are also seeking solutions and collaboration with schools. Therefore, the participant schools felt that this study is important to them and requested that its outcome might be shared at their network meeting of teachers and head teachers that is usually held at the LA monthly. This request was agreed to verbally with the participating schools.

Confidentiality and anonymity
There is need for confidentiality and anonymity in research. Research participants do not wish their name to be mentioned in any report. According to BERA (2004, p6), the confidential and anonymous treatment of participant data is considered the norm when conducting research. All of the research participants were assured of anonymity and the use of pseudonyms both before and after the interviews. The UK Data Protection Act (1998) which came into effect in March, 2000, has also made issues of anonymity and privacy more important as this is no longer an ethical case but a legal one. The main principle of the Act is the protection to the rights of individuals in respect to personal data held about them by data controllers, including academic researchers. Barbour (2008) warns that just one among many details can lead to individuals being identified. It can be difficult to anticipate which aspects of descriptions might give rise to an individual or setting being recognised in subsequent reports or papers, so researchers must be constantly vigilant, although the participants have been assured that, in the research papers, both themselves and their location will be protected to the extent of changing their gender, if the need arises.

**Data collection, analysis and safety ethics**

Regarding the data collection, Creswell (2003) notes that researchers need to respect the participants and the research sites. During our data collection stage, the participant schools, once a date for the interviews had been agreed, organised themselves and their groups of pupils in terms of the interview time and sequence, thereby allowing them time to teach and supervise the pupils in their classes. This made accessibility easy for all involved, thus providing the opportunity to respect their own and their pupils’ normal daily activities. In all cases, the interviewees were given the opportunity to ask questions freely and the right to opt out of the interview at any time they wished.

Ethical issues were also extended to the data analysis. Creswell indicates that, during interpretation, researchers need to provide an accurate account of the information, and this may require a debriefing between the research and the participants. Once the research participants had been contacted, they agreed to be open to questions from time to time throughout the research process. Care was also taken to avoid any physical contact with
the child/young person. All reasonable precautions were taken to ensure that the respondents are not harmed or diversely affected as a result of participating in this research project.

3.10 Trustworthiness in qualitative research

This research arose out of the researcher's personal experience of inclusion issues in schools both as a migrant and a teacher. Young migrant pupils may not have much input into how they will be included in the host society but, if teachers do not get inclusion right, exclusion sets in, which may damage the migrant's future. Therefore, the issues of inclusion discussed in this research are worth considering. The issues surrounding the use and nature of the term 'validity' in qualitative research is a contingent construct, inescapably grounded in the processes and intentions of particular research methodologies and projects (Winter 2000, p1). The qualitative paradigm assumes that reality is socially constructed and is what the participants perceive it to be. This lens suggests the importance of checking how accurately the participants’ realities are represented in the final account (Altheide and Johnson 1994, p485). Gubrium and Korol-Ljungberg (2005, p324) suggest that, in qualitative research, a useful way of conceptualising this is to think in terms of trustworthiness, or the ways we work to meet the criteria of validity, credibility and believability of our research as assessed by the academy, our communities, and our participants. Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Following on Lincoln and Guba’s work, the discussion in the subsequent paragraphs on trustworthiness is based on their four constructs already outlined.

Credibility is built up through prolonged engagement in the field and the persistent observation and triangulation of the data. Shenton (2004, p64), expanding on Lincoln and Guba’s credibility criteria, outlined several provisions that researchers might make to promote their confidence that they have accurately recorded the phenomena under scrutiny. Such provisions include the following: (a) the development of an early familiarity with the culture of the participating organisations before the first data
collection dialogue occurs; (b) triangulation, tactics to help to ensure the informants’ honesty when contributing data; (c) iterative questioning; (d) peer scrutiny of the research project; (e) the researcher’s reflective commentary; (f) the investigator’s background qualifications and experience; (g) member checks; (h) thick description of the phenomenon under scrutiny; and (i) an examination of previous research findings to assess the degree to which the current project results are congruent with those of past studies. This research study explores credibility through Shenton’s list in the paragraphs below:

On the issue of the development of an early familiarity with the culture of the participating organisations, as a qualified teacher in the UK, while acting as a supply teacher within the LA, informal chats were continuously held with my fellow teachers who shared similar concerns about the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in schools. Having taught in schools both as a trainee and supply teacher for several years, the researcher became familiar with the educational culture nationwide. It gave me the opportunity to access the policy and practice documents of the schools.

Also, the researcher observed and taught a mixed group of native and EU migrant pupils during a year of my teacher training, which experience gained led to this research study. Within that year, a meeting was held with the consultant in command of community development to seek his views from the EMTAS perspective regarding migrants’ inclusion in the LA to ensure that the research is worthwhile and conforms to Lincoln and Guba’s idea of prolonged engagement in the field, although this varies as researchers.

Denzin and Lincoln (2000, p5) define triangulation as a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning; verifying the repeatability of an observation or interpretation. There are different types of triangulation, such as that by data sources (which can include persons, times and places), method (observations, interviews, and documents), researcher (investigator A, B, C) and theory (Miles and Huberman 1994). This study adopted triangulation by data sources. According to Patton (2002), this involves comparing and cross-checking the consistency of information derived at different times and by varied means within qualitative methods.
This study explores EU migrants’ inclusion in four UK schools (two primary and two secondary) using multiple data collection methods, including, interviews (individual and group), non-participant observation, and documentation. Within the schools selected, different individuals, such as head teachers, deputy heads and TAs, were interviewed to obtain their views on inclusion. Non participant observation was performed at various times in the classroom after the individual interviews had taken place. Policy and school documents were collected from the schools for further analysis. Secondary research was performed using the internet to obtain information about the schools from their website and other government sites, such as Ofsted’s for the school's inspection reports and the DFE’s (Department for Education).

Using triangulation and a multiple case study approach provided rich information and the analysis within and across cases revealed a number of commonalities and differences (see Chapter 8). According to Mathison (1988, p15), three possible outcomes can result from triangulation: convergence, inconsistency and contradiction. The value of triangulation is not as a technological solution to a data collection and analysis problem; it is a technique which provides more and better evidence, based on which researchers can construct meaningful propositions about the social world.

Moreover, the method of iterative questioning was used in the study. Srivastava and Hopwood (2009, p77) argue that qualitative data analysts are constantly on the hunt for concepts and themes that, when combined, will provide the best explanation of 'what’s going on' in an inquiry. The process requires a skilful interpretation and handling of the data, and relies on a systematic, rigorous method.

There are various methods of questioning techniques employed for this research, such as semi-structured and unstructured methods. Semi-structured questions were used for the individual interviews. A list of open-ended questions was prepared for different categories of people in the form of the interview guide. There are two foremost research questions as well as a list of sub-questions covering all aspects. However, in the interview process, additional questions based on the interviewees’ responses were asked in order to probe further. According to Bryman and Bell (2003), questions that are not included in
the guide may be asked as the interviewer picks up on things that the interviewee says. In all of the interviews, the questions asked were driven by the main objectives and the research questions, with further probes being issued when new connections are unearthed. All of the interviews were audio recorded and played repeatedly before the next interview.

Colleagues, peers and academics had the opportunity to scrutinise the project throughout the duration of the research. For instance, the researcher's supervisory team scrutinised every interview analysis made by the researcher at meetings held once or twice monthly throughout the study and the future plan of action was noted in writing by the team members. Furthermore, postgraduate colleagues formed a peer review group which meets at least once per fortnight to discuss projects and experiences both in the field and in the writing up stage. It provides an opportunity for reflection and facilitates valuable input from colleagues who are familiar with such fieldwork. There were opportunities to participate in faculty research conferences, where the initial part of this study was presented. There is also a compulsory oral exam, tagged the 'RF2 presentation', that must be taken by all new researchers, where valuable feedback and insights are offered by established academics. This study benefited from this and it helped to shape the direction of this research. Shenton (2004) argues that the fresh perspective of such individuals enables them to challenge the investigators' assumptions, whose closeness to the research frequently inhibits their ability to refine their methods.

In addition to ensuring credibility, reflexivity is important, as this emphasises an awareness of the researcher's own presence in the research process. Finlay (2002) identifies five reflexive methods: introspection, inter subjective reflection, mutual collaboration, social critique and discursive deconstruction. Following Finlay's map of reflexivity, as a researcher, reflection on this study is located in the introspective arena. The idea for this research (see Section 3.7) emanated from the researcher's personal struggle to integrate within society as a black migrant. The EU migrant pupils' experiences are similar to my own, with some of the pupils having mixed racial origins and skin colour. I began to see the future of these children as lying in my own hands. I
began to question the role of the head teacher and the other teachers in these children’s future. Finlay points that, in addition to examining one’s particular experience and own meanings for one’s own sake, insights can emerge from own introspection, which then form the basis of a more generalized understanding and interpretation.

According to Patton (2002), the researcher’s credibility is important and a qualitative report should include some information about him/her, which may include the researcher’s experience, training, funding, gaining access, personal connection with the study site, and background characteristics, which may be relevant to the report. As a qualified teacher, I have had the opportunity to teach in many schools within and around the LA base as a supply teacher for the last three years. This gave me the opportunity to meet with practitioners and share my views with them, as well as understand how the schools are organised and administered. As a result of my familiarity with the schools, the recruitment of the participants (schools) was made possible by known practitioners within the field. In the field, my ability to introduce myself as a qualified teacher in the UK increased the interviewees’ confidence (through knowing that they were talking to someone in the same field) while discussing schools’ inclusion practices.

In addition, member checking is used in the process. This implies an opportunity for the members (participants) to check (approve) particular aspects of the interpretation of the data they provide (Doyle 2007; Carlson 2010). In this study, the inclusion of this method entailed checking through with the participants the key points they raised at the end of each interview to ensure that the researcher is on the right track and understands the points in the same way as the interview participants.

Transferability

Transferability is the ability to transfer research findings to new or similar situations. The samples employed in qualitative research are usually small to allow for in-depth study, so it is often difficult to transfer the findings. Humans’ actions are affected by their own environment; therefore, no two environments or actions can be exactly the same. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) suggest the use of thick descriptions, which are deep, dense, detailed
accounts. Thin descriptions, by contrast, lack detail, and simply report facts. Chapter 3 detailed all of the methods employed in this study. The research questions and a table of outcomes are included in the appendix. The complete set of data analysis documents are on file and available upon request. Providing access to the inquiry’s ‘paper trail’ gives other researchers the ability to transfer the conclusions of this inquiry to other cases, or to repeat, as closely as possible, the procedures of this project.

3.11 Summary

The chapter provides a detailed overview of the methods and methodology employed in this study. The major decisions and choices of how this study should proceed to arrive at the stated aims and objectives have been discussed in detail above. These choices and the qualitative nature of the study combine with the researcher’s background and experiences as a migrant, teacher and person of colour.

This study adopted the qualitative approach and involved a multiple case study of four schools within two LAs. Case studies are small samples that give the researcher an opportunity to get an in-depth study of phenomena. The case study schools were chosen due to their increasing intakes of EU migrant pupils. The choice was made under the guidance of the LA consultant, who also facilitated access to these schools. The study consists of two stages, with the first-stage results enhancing those of the second-stage. The data collection instruments were formal interviews, Observations, informal interviews, document analysis, audio recordings and the extensive use of computer-aided data analysis (NVIVO software) were included.

Overall, the methodological map discussed above provides clear guidance for navigating the study results in the subsequent chapters of this thesis. The next chapter, Chapter 4, describes in detail the case study schools’ contexts and demographics, as well as their historical contexts, including their background and structure, in order to appreciate the changes that have occurred in the schools over time and to facilitate understanding of the decisions and policies introduced by the school leaders and teachers to adjust to the diverse student population and policies.
Chapter 4 - Setting the scene

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the case study schools in context and explores their demographic situation. It also includes the migration trends in the north of England, as well as the ethnicity trends in primary and secondary schools in the two LAs of study. It also discusses the role of LAs with respect to migrants' inclusion. The structure of schools in England is described to show the compulsory progressive pathway for the EU migrant pupils. Each of the participating schools in the first and second stages of the study is described to give insights into the environment that these pupils navigate. The chapter summary shows at a glance the nature and characteristics of the schools involved in the two stages of the study. It is also important to state that the information presented on the participating schools in this chapter was obtained from the document analysis of secondary sources, such as the schools' website, Department for Education (DFE), schools' policy documents, the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) and schools data collected from the LA office for the Ethnic Minority and Travellers Service (EMTAS)

4.2 Demographics

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, the EU Accession Treaty of 2003 enabled increased migration from the A8 countries (Poland, Lithuania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Czech Republic, Latvia, Hungary and Estonia, Cyprus and Malta) to the UK. Most of the migrants spread out to the north of England to settle, which resulted in an increase in the number of migrant families and, in effect, changing the population of pupils in schools within the region. Table 4.1 below shows all of the regions of England and the population of non-white British for 2001 and 2013. These periods were chosen as they reflect the periods before and after the EU treaty of 2003. A comparison of the figures shows that all of the regions experienced a considerable increase of at least 3.5% in non-white British migrants, except for London, which is known for its highly diverse population.
Table 4.1 Population growth: geographical patterns in % and thousands.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical areas</th>
<th>% of mid-2001 population that is not white British</th>
<th>% of mid-2009 population that is not white British</th>
<th>Increase in non-White British population 2001</th>
<th>Increase in non-white British population 2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England and Wales</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>2,449.1</td>
<td>2,485.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>2,360.0</td>
<td>2,392.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North East</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>101.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>124.9</td>
<td>256.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yorkshire and the Humber</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>281.5</td>
<td>276.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Midlands</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>261.6</td>
<td>210.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Midlands</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>150.4</td>
<td>218.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East of England</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>366.1</td>
<td>386.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>431.2</td>
<td>180.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South East</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>412.3</td>
<td>497.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South West</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>287.8</td>
<td>264.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>93.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extracted from ONS (Office for National statistics) population estimates by ethnic group 2002-2009, pg. 4, 18/12/2013

The population of non-white British pupils in schools also changed, as shown below (Tables 4.2 and 4.3) in the Pupil Level Annual School Census (PLASC) data of the two LAs of focus in this study (Stratop and Rivervalley). The data show figures for state-funded primary and secondary schools for 2004 and 2013 in Stratop and Rivervalley respectively. These periods were chosen to illustrate the trend over time in the schools' population of traveller, Roma and any other white background students within the LAs of study. In both LAs, there has been a continuous increase in the population of traveller Roma and any other white background in the schools.
Table 4.2 Stratop LEA: number of pupils by ethnicity both primary and secondary (State funded schools).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Traveller</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gypsy/Roma</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other white background</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>849</td>
<td>1,171</td>
<td>1,582</td>
<td>1,654</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extracted from gov.uk national statistics: schools pupils and their characteristics. State funded schools: number of pupils by ethnic group, by local authority, area and region.

Table 4.3 Rivervalley LA: number of pupils by ethnicity both primary and secondary (State funded schools).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Traveller</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gypsy/Roma</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other white background</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>663</td>
<td>693</td>
<td>712</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extracted from gov.uk national statistics: schools pupils and their characteristics. State funded schools: number of pupils by ethnic group, by local authority, area and region.

The charts above show at a glance the trend of growth in non-British white ethnicities in schools. A comparison of this increasing trend in the number of travellers, gypsy/Roma and individuals of other white background between 2004 and 2013 shows that the population of these groups, especially from EU countries, has tripled since 2004. Although increases were expected from EU countries, such massive numbers were not anticipated by the schools and the LAs. Similarly, most schools and LAs in this region
are new to such a development and as such were ill-prepared for the outcomes of
diversity. According to Cantle et al. (2009, p5):

Demographic changes have occurred swiftly and without warning in some
schools with potentially destabilising effects. Many of those working in schools,
the education service and the council more vastly appear to lack the confidence,
knowledge and skill to relate effectively with many BME (Black and minority
ethnic) communities. Cultural awareness and sensitivity, cultural competence, is
widely recognised as being insufficiently developed.

Similarly, Robinson and Reeve (2006, p29) mention that the challenges faced by new
immigrants include living in poor-quality accommodation, struggling to access services,
accessing the care support and assistance they require, the reinforcement of their levels of
depprivation, and community tension, and they may serve as an engine for regeneration.
According to the Department for Communities and Local government (2011, p7), the
north of England has a large proportion of deprived locations. Deprivation covers a broad
range of issues, referring to unmet needs caused by a lack of resources of all kinds, not
just financial, such as unemployment, poverty or low income (including many lone
parents, elderly people and people with long-term or mental illness), homelessness or
inadequate housing, and a lack of education, access to services, crime and living
environment. Other migrants’ settlements, such as the Pakistanis, Bangladeshis, and
Caribbeans', are already well-established communities with some self-help organisations
and active projects to assist their members. New migrants from EU countries are yet to
form similar closely-knit communities. Such community organisations work as charities
and liaise with the government to enhance community cohesion. According to the Ethnic

Immigrants largely from Asia and the Caribbean were subjected to overt
discriminatory attitudes and found themselves excluded from accessing
mainstream services. In response to this the immigrant communities set up self-
financed community based organisations and initiatives to service the needs of
their own communities in areas such as education, healthcare, immigration and
welfare. These community-based initiatives spread rapidly as the size of the
communities grew.
In addition, there are reports of high population mobility in schools; some families move around within the country in search of seasonal jobs in the region of the north. This has been associated mainly with travellers, the new EU migrants, low-income families, members of the armed forces and refugees. For instance, Dobson et al. (2000, p6) note that there are four categories of pupil mobility in schools which include international migration, internal migration, institutional movement, and voluntary transfer. EU migrant pupils, the focus of this study, fall into the first two categories: international migration and internal migration. In order to meet the challenges of education and the demands of the increasingly diverse population of migrants and their families, the central government and LAs play an important role with regard to admissions and school places for these pupils.

4.3 The role of the LAs in education

Prior to 2010, LAs played a crucial role in schools in communities. The nature of their role dwindled over time, following different Education Acts. The fact that more schools are becoming autonomous has contributed to this issue. While schools have been increasingly converted or coerced to become academies and free schools, the LAs' role has been further reduced to support and adversarial, commissioning school places, and supporting families and children in their communities. Parish, Baxter and Sandals (2012, p2) outline three core responsibilities of LAs in education: ensuring a sufficient supply of school places; tackling under performance in schools and ensuring high standards; and supporting vulnerable children. These duties, presumed to be among the primary function of the LAs, are being challenged by recent coalition government education policies for schools through the establishment of academies and free schools.

LAs do not control schools but work with them to provide guidance and support on making sense of the issues and legislation as the need arises. As mentioned earlier, in Chapter 1, while schools are uncertain of the way forward in tackling inclusion, Rivervalley LA sponsored a delegation to Slovakia to study an EU Roma group in their natural environment. It produced a report on how best to include this group within
schools and possibly influence policy. Individual schools, however, may not be able to undertake a study of this magnitude nor have the personnel to do it.

By turning schools into academies, according to DFE (2010, p11), every school will be able to shape its own character, free of either central or local bureaucratic constraint. Although this is the case, it has been fiercely criticised on the grounds of its promises of freedom yet no freedom. Schools are advised to take up academy status; for instance, the case of Downhill's school (Chapter 6). Freedom for schools means that they can decide their own pupil intake, recruit the staff and choose on which aspect of the curriculum to concentrate.

Our concern in this study is to understand where the EU migrant pupils are situated within these changes to schools and LA support. Freeman (2012, p3) reports that school place planning is a complex process, fraught with uncertainty, more so now than ever before, as previous planning assumptions about mobility, housing yield, and demographic change have largely been invalidated by the rapid shifts in economic conditions and patterns of migration. It is within the jurisdiction of the LAs to work with schools towards equity and inclusion in the area of tackling underperformance in schools and ensuring high standards. Ainscow and Tweddle (2003) discussed the key elements of the previous labour government’s policy that provide the context for the work of the LAs, including the Education Development Plans (EDP) where the LAs, in consultation with the schools and other stakeholders, set out cost plans for the schools’ improvement and raising pupils’ standards within their communities. These aims may not be achieved as schools will be seeking to enrol the brightest and best students to enhance their position on the league table, thereby isolating the weak and vulnerable ones, such as the EU migrants.

Ofsted had been a strong critic of LAs; for instance, the EDP drawn up by Stratop LA was criticised by Ofsted in their annual (2000, p7) report as inadequate and constituting a menu of activities rather than a clear strategy for improvement as well as the fact that they appear to reflect the national priorities rather than the local ones:

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The priorities are too numerous and overlap. The individual activity plans are uneven in quality. Links between different activities are not established, and as a result the plan lacks coherence. Activities are not set in a sensible sequence over three years. Implementation is not sufficiently phased to be manageable by schools or to provide an evident sense of direction. The plan, therefore, is a menu of activities rather than a clear strategy for improvement.

On the other hand, Rivervalley's Ofsted 2003 inspection report on EDP shows similarly deficient planning:

The plan is insufficiently detailed and targeted to guide coordinated action and to enable the LA to check its progress. The literacy priority, for example, has five different activities, within which are many discrete programmes. All are worthwhile, but it is not clear how they link or how they are targeted at schools with the most need.

However, considering that more schools are autonomous, there is a danger of wide disparities arising in terms of their improvement. LAs collaborate with schools to support vulnerable children. Parish et al. (2012, p9) report that this relationship is fragile because schools that have historically supported children have continued to do so while those who have not disengaged easily. Schools in deprived community are delicate as a result of issues of deprivation, as discussed above, having noted that EU migrant families tend to settle there. While more schools are turning to the academies and free schools that are springing up as well as focusing on raising standards, it is likely that schools will avoid enrolling students who face multiple challenges and are consequently difficult to place. However, the schools cannot be blamed, as the Local Government Chronicle (LCG, Jun, 2012) reports that DFE threatens to take action against academies that fail to produce the anticipated results.

4.4 The current structure of the English education system

Schools in England are categorised in different ways: state and independent schools. The state schools constitute the maintained mainstream schools, city technology colleges and academies. Mainstream schools share a lot in common; for instance, they all receive public funding and are required to teach the National Curriculum. The mainstream
maintained schools constitute community, foundation, voluntary-aided and voluntary-controlled schools.

City technology colleges take the form of a charitable company that is independently-managed, non-fee paying and geared toward science, technology and the world of work. Academies, meanwhile, are independently-managed, non-fee paying schools in urban areas for pupils of all abilities aged 11-18 years-old. They are established by sponsors from business, faith and voluntary groups working in partnership with the central government and local education partners.

Each school has its own individual characteristics and emphasis. Most visible are the variations in size, location, age group and gender of the pupils, which present both subtly and completely different teaching challenges. Different kinds of schools are run in various ways, implementing varied policies and serving distinct educational needs. From the age of 5-16 years-old, education is compulsory for all children in England. The subject matter studied by pupils is based on the four key stages (KS) of the national curriculum. Table 4.4 depicts the ages, stages and tests for all pupils in both primary and secondary schools in England.

Figure 4.1 The structure of the English education system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Tests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Nursery</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>Reception</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>Year 1</td>
<td>National Tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-7</td>
<td>Year 2</td>
<td>Key Stage 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>Key Stage 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-9</td>
<td>Year 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-11</td>
<td>Year 5, Year 6</td>
<td>National Tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-12</td>
<td>Year 7</td>
<td>Key Stage 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-13</td>
<td>Year 8</td>
<td>Key Stage 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-14</td>
<td>Year 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-15</td>
<td>Year 10</td>
<td>some GCSEs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-16</td>
<td>Year 11</td>
<td>GCSEs/GNVQs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post 16 Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-17</td>
<td>Year 12</td>
<td>AS/A levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-18</td>
<td>Year 13</td>
<td>AS/A levels</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Schools work alongside several departments in LAs, such as health, police and social services, to achieve the goal of inclusion. For efficiency, various departments have united to work under an umbrella of multi-agencies. In 1997, the UK’s Labour government brought to the forefront multi-agency working for the welfare of children and young people. Prior to this, departments had been set up as bureaucracies, resulting in slow responses, and had been criticised for fragmentation and duplication (Glennerster 1997).

The different departments concerned can come together and deliberate on an issue to bring out their perspectives and reach a common goal. For instance, in education and inclusion, in particular, while some migrant families face housing problems, others are experiencing culture shock, difficulties accessing social services, language problems, and the parents not having steady employment. While teachers are at the front line in having to deal with ‘difficult’ children in school, neither the causes nor the effects of exclusion can be understood solely in educational terms. Schools often find themselves having to deal with problems that are the responsibility of the families or other public agencies. All of the schools in the study were located in two LAs which constitute a deprived environment and share similar effects of deprivation on pupils' behaviour.

4.5 Schools chosen for the empirical study (first and second stage)

School A

School A is a primary, mixed community school located in the most deprived area of Stratop LA. It has over 400 pupils, aged 5-11 years-old. The majority of their pupils are of ethnic minority heritage and speak English as an additional language. The school is highly multi-racial. It has about eighty per cent of pupils from twenty different ethnic minority groups that also have EAL. According to Ofsted (2011, p2):

School A is much larger than the average-sized primary school. The very large proportion known to be eligible for free school meals (given to pupils whose parents claim a state benefit) are above average. The proportion of pupils with special educational needs and/or disability is a little below that typically found in primary schools. Although the proportion of pupils joining and leaving the school at other than the usual times is broadly typical, some of those joining are new to the country and to formal schooling.
Many of the parents are actively involved with the school, and it is developing as an innovation-extended school with a strong three-way partnership between the school, parents and wider community. There is a wide programme of activities offered both during the day and after school. School A is part of the National Support School programme (NSS), and the head teacher is a National Leader in Education (NLE). NLEs and NSS programmes draw upon the skills and experience of the best school leaders as well as their schools to provide additional leadership capacity and raise standards within schools that are facing challenging circumstances.

School B

School B is a mixed comprehensive secondary school located in Stratop LA, which caters for over 600 students aged 11-16 years-old. The school grew out of the amalgamation of three local grammar schools and, in 2007, it attempted to opt out of LA control and assume independent foundation status. Over 35 languages are spoken in the school. About 65 per cent of the pupils are from minority ethnic backgrounds, and many have EAL. The school has specialist Media Arts status. Specialist status is a UK government initiative, which encourages secondary schools in England to specialise in certain areas of the curriculum to boost achievement. The school is strategically located to welcome large changes to its population. In line with their Ofsted report (2009):

Majority of students made inadequate progress within the previous two years. Those of White British and Pakistani heritage did least well, and the progress made by girls in 2008 was particularly poor. In 2008, the proportion of students gaining five or better grades remained below national floor targets.

In 2009, the school was told to improve its results by 2011 or face closure, a merger or being turned into an academy. Following this warning, despite campaigns, consultation for closure began and it was finally closed in 2011.

School C

School C is a mixed-gender secondary school located in Stratop LA with about 698 students aged 11-16 years-old. It opened in 2000 due to its predecessor school’s closure
and later became an academy with arts, language and sports status. It serves a diverse community in North-East Stratop, and is sponsored by E-ACT, a leading education sponsor, formed as a not-for-profit social enterprise, developing successful academies and schools across England. According to the 2009 Ofsted inspection report:

The proportion of students who are known to be eligible for free school meals is high. At 49.3%, the proportion of students from minority ethnic group is twice the national average. The groups most represented include those of Black or Black British African and Pakistani origin. The proportion which speaks English as an additional language is 38%. Student’s mobility is above average, and the academy has experienced an increase in the number of students who are newly arrived in the country, in particular, those of Romany Slovakian origin.

Over half of all students have been identified as having special educational needs and/or disabilities, although the proportion with a statement to support their specific learning needs is lower than the national average. The school has recently changed leadership as a result of its new academy status.

Birkhead Primary School

Birkhead School, a community school located in Stratop LA that enrols about 400 children aged 3-11 years-old, was first established seven decades ago. Over nine out of ten pupils are from a wide variety of minority ethnic background, and almost all speak EAL. The proportion of pupils entitled to free school meals is well above the average, as is the proportion with special educational needs or disabilities (Ofsted, 2010). Birkhead School is a member of a family of schools and is located in a suburb of inner Stratop. This area is inhabited mainly by migrant workers from Pakistan, the Caribbean and Yemen. More recently, EU migrant workers have also come to settle within the area, making it one of the areas in Stratop with the most diverse populations from different religious backgrounds who wish to maintain their devout observance. The school taps into the community resources by making extensive use of parents who volunteer to work with children in the classroom. They also benefit from the skills of various individuals as well as the parents of pupils who teach arts and crafts, which they share among each
other. The school has pupils prone to high mobility, such as EU pupils, and offers a series of after-school courses for both parents and pupils.

The school partnered with the Pentagon organisation to provide a bespoke playground for the children which could be used in any weather conditions using the power of modern technology. Computers and interactive white boards are used in the classroom. The school has also incorporated virtual learning, such as Sam-learning and the purple-mash virtual-learning environment, which can be accessed from anywhere via the Internet. This is an online subscription service that provides personalised learning for KS 1-3 pupils.

Frontier Secondary School

Frontier School is a community secondary school located in Stratop LA with a population of about 700 pupils aged 11-16 years-old. It is located in a deprived community in Stratop, and is an over-subscribed school within a neighbourhood of diverse population. The vast majority of students speak EAL. Most students live in areas containing significant pockets of deprivation and the proportion of pupils known to be eligible for free school meals is three times the national average. This school mainly enrols children from the community. It has specialist business status, setting it apart from its peer community schools, and is exceptional in sports and is recognised by investors in people as showing its commitment to continuous business improvement. It offers a variety of activities to boost its weaker areas, such as the attendance week initiative to boost attendance, a breakfast club, drama, music, school choir, zoology club, sporting activities, gifted and talented classes, a revision club, a modern learning resource facility providing after-school Internet access, and a photography club.

Frontier School benefitted immensely from three core strands of the Excellence in Cities (EiC) programme, which was launched by the UK’s previous Labour government in March 1999 to raise standards and promote inclusion in inner cities and other urban areas, in an attempt to resolve the educational problems of these inner cities where successive governments have failed. The school prides itself on being racially harmonious. The pupils have also been trained via peer intervention programmes. The
school offers an accredited training centre for the European Computer Driving Licence (ECDL), with a state-of-the-art enterprise centre equipped with wireless laptops, interactive whiteboards, video conferencing facilities, digital cameras, PCs, printing facilities and photocopiers, with professional IT support.

*Ashberg Primary School*

Ashberg Primary School is situated within a deprived community area of Rivervalley LA. It consists of about 400 pupils aged 5-11 years-old. There is a very wide cultural mix of pupils, who speak over 20 different languages at home. The school has admitted a number of refugees and asylum seekers in the past few years, and recently a significant number of children from Eastern Europe, priding itself on the strength of its diversity. The catchment area policy makes it possible for the school to enrol pupils within its area. The proportion of pupils with special educational needs and/or disabilities is similar to that in other schools, but the proportion at an early stage of speaking English is very high. The proportion of pupils eligible for free school meals is also very high, which is an indication of their low socioeconomic background. The school has gained some awards, including: a healthy school award, an arts mark gold, a basic skills quality mark, and investors in people award (Ofsted 2009). It was part of the Cannes Partnership Education Action Zone in the community, a programme that is government-funded through its Excellence in Cities strategy, now discontinued.

This partnership works within four objectives: attainment, achievement, behaviour improvement and networks, to provide curriculum support for all schools and improve all pupils’ attainment, with a specific focus on literacy and numeracy. The school has a tradition of welcoming families new to the country. This has been enhanced by its strategic location in the town centre. It operates different reading clubs in order to promote literacy among the pupils and their families, and shares the same location as a community centre building; this enables them reach out to the community in the process of building community cohesion.
Furthermore, the school liaises extensively with LA consultants and the national curriculum strategy group to improve teaching resources for new arrivals and develop fresh ones; this makes them innovative in this aspect, opening the door for other schools to learn from them. They reach out to the community by involving the parents more in the school activities and the use of multi-agencies. They are involved in distinct network meetings, such as teachers’ network meetings, to share their knowledge about inclusion and teaching materials. The school receives some funding from different sources, such as the ethnic minority achievement grant.

**Westend Secondary School**

Westend Secondary School is located in Rivervalley LA. It is a comprehensive school, founded about five decades ago, and admits approximately 1000 students aged 11-16 years-old. The school acquired technology status to enhance learning and teaching throughout the curriculum. It partners with IT organisations, such as Cisco Systems, benefits from technology development programmes, such as the Cisco Networking Academy Program, and is an accredited test centre for the European Computer Driving License (ECDL). There is a public-private partnership between Cisco Systems, education, business, and government and community organisations around the world, aimed at nurturing IT professionals. It is a member of the Arts Council of England and benefits from the council’s grant. Such grants for the arts are for activities carried out over a set period which engage people in England in arts activities, and help artists and arts organisations in England. The school is also a member of the Specialist Schools and Academies Trust (schools network). This organisation is independent and partners with schools throughout England to raise achievement for all students (aged 3-19 years). In addition, the school is a member of International Networking for Educational Transformation (INET).

This organisation works with schools to transform education through the sharing of best practice and innovation. They offer a range of on-line and in person support, including: workshops, study tours, conferences, on-line forums and publications. In the area of students’ welfare system, the school uses the tutor group system to help to improve the
academic achievement of its pupils. There is provision for extended learning, which covers a wide range of activities such as the homework, course work and other projects. They partner with Sam-learning and My-maths' Limited for virtual learning for students' after-school hours. The after-school provision, particularly in terms of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), is successful in the school.

However, the school has also started to witness the introduction of more recreational afterschool opportunities for student participation, such as the War Hammer club and enthusiastic daily use of the music practice rooms. The school networks with other schools within the community to share best practice. The school has a fitness studio and sports hall. Anti-bullying and anti-racist policies are well-established and enforced in the school.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed the context and demography of the case study schools for both the first and second stages of the study. All the school are located in the north of England, which has changed rapidly since the 2003 EU treaty, resulting in the influx of EU migrants into the UK and has experienced changes in the schools' population. This picture was captured in the data depicting the period 2004-2010. In order to meet the changes and challenges in schools' provisions for migrant pupils and their families, schools and LAs have witnessed various educational policy changes, such as diverse educational initiatives by the previous Labour government and now the new coalition regime.

At the local level, LAs have support in place, such as tackling underperformance in schools, ensuring standards and helping to support vulnerable children. However, in the current situation, the efficiency of LA support is in doubt as Licence et al. (2009, p11) in a LA report note that the current system of support is not a level playing field, and the children (EU migrants) are starting from so far behind, they have to run uphill, faster and longer just to catch up. The structure of the school system captured in the chapter depicts a picture of the nature of the existing school system that EU migrants have to navigate in order to achieve.
However, some of the schools have benefited from the inclusion initiatives of the previous Labour government, such as 'joining forces’ with multi-agencies, Education Action Zones (EAZ), Excellence in the City (EiC), state of the art technology laboratories and learning centre initiatives, which were all geared towards tackling inclusion and deprivation with schools located in deprived areas. These programmes have been discontinued in the present coalition system either due to a lack of funds or due to being deemed an unnecessary waste of funds. The LAs’ role in schools and communities has been redefined repeatedly by each regime, which clearly moves power further away from LAs by further increasing the number of academies and free schools. LAs work with schools to clarify and implement certain government programmes, such as inclusion. An example was cited of the independent research carried out by Stratop LA on the EU Roma group to enable them to advise schools about the practical steps for enhancing inclusion. Questions remain about EU migrants' inclusion in the future, if schools have to make their own decisions without consulting the LAs. Clearly, schools will take decisions that serve their purpose as they pursue an increasing standards policy.

A common feature of the case study schools is that they are all state-funded and located in deprived communities. As mentioned earlier, deprivation covers a wide range of issues, such as unemployment, inadequate housing, and a lack of education. These areas are where most economic migrants are likely to be located. There is a high number of pupils on school meals and EAL pupils. It is important to emphasise the neighbourhood deprivation effects, such as antisocial behaviour; youth delinquency may be manifest in schools through the pupils living within these communities. For instance, this was noted in Ofsted reports about School B, which led to its eventual closure in 2011, and Birkhead School (Chapter 6).

Overall, the demographics, schools’ structure and the role of the LAs mapped out in this chapter provide an understanding of the contextual challenges that the schools are already experiencing. The next chapter, Chapter 5, which presents the analysis of the first stage of the study provides detailed insights into the schools’ activities and how they work to include EU migrant pupils. It also highlights the choices and dilemmas that schools face.
when seeking to include migrant pupils. The understanding of these issues helps to shape the second stage of this study. Table 4.4 below summarises the characteristics of the schools at a glance:

Table 4.4 Summary of descriptive characteristics of the schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School A</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>School C</th>
<th>Birkhead school</th>
<th>Ashberg school</th>
<th>Frontier school</th>
<th>Westend school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Stratop</td>
<td>Stratop</td>
<td>Stratop</td>
<td>River valley</td>
<td>Stratop</td>
<td>River valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of school</td>
<td>Primary Community</td>
<td>secondary same</td>
<td>Secondary same</td>
<td>Secondary same</td>
<td>Secondary same</td>
<td>Secondary same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School status</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Media arts</td>
<td>Language and Sports</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Business and Enterprise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No on roll</td>
<td>493 (ages 5-11)</td>
<td>400 (ages 5-11)</td>
<td>400 (ages 5-11)</td>
<td>700 (ages 11-16)</td>
<td>1000 (ages 11-16)</td>
<td>same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed gender, diverse culture</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance</td>
<td>Pupils prone to high mobility</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>Sam Learning, purple mash</td>
<td>Computer equipped classrooms</td>
<td>Virtual learning (Sam learning)</td>
<td>Virtual learning (Sam learning, EALIP)</td>
<td>State of the art enterprise centre equipped with Wireless Laptops, Computer equipped classrooms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist area</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Media arts</td>
<td>Arts, language and sports</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Business studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partners</td>
<td>Multi-agencies</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>Multi-agencies</td>
<td>Local Excellence in Cities clusters (EIC). Multi-agencies</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>LA strategy consultants committee, Multi-agencies</td>
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<td>Local Excellence in Cities clusters (EIC). Multi-agencies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cisco systems, Arts council of Eng, Intel Netw for Educl Transform (INET), specialist schls and</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 5 - Data presentation and analysis of the first stage of study

5.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the data analysis for the first stage of the data collected. The themes that emerged from the data after careful coding addressed objectives 1 and 2, and research questions 1-3. The main concerns for the researcher were to identify the core issues of the study as a result of focusing on open-ended interviews. The themes that emerged comprise demographics/deprived community, identity, leadership, classroom inclusion issues, quality of social relationships, policy issues, and agencies. These are discussed in the various sections within this chapter. The aim of this stage is to identify all of the relevant concepts to enable progressive focusing. This is followed by a summary and the research questions for the second stage of the study.

5.2 Preliminary results and discussion

Demographics/deprived community

Demographics data for the north of England indicate an increased population of non-British whites settling in the area (Table 4.1). Some of these areas have been described as deprived areas. Thomas et al. (2009) argue that the crises in the steel industry which flourished in major parts of the north of England and the restructuring that followed led to mass redundancies, and unemployment reached record levels in the 1980s, with an estimated two-thirds of the local registered unemployed in the cities being former steelworkers. Stratop, located within this area, is greatly affected and by this situation, and effectively showed evidence of deprivation:

This particular community is disadvantaged economically; if we look at the national index of deprivation, we're probably down at the fifth lowest level (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).
The school recognises this disadvantage and the impact it may have on its pupils. They also acknowledge that diversity has its own advantage, especially the rich cultural and linguistic aspects of it:

*However, we know that our community has got a rich cultural, linguistic skills diversity that they value (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).*

Within the schools, migrant pupils are not the only group requiring attention in education; for instance, local pupils from working-class families also need connecting with education as a result of their socioeconomic background. Katy Boulevard, the head teacher, acknowledged the presence of such pupils in her school (School B):

*We’ve a small group of white working class boys who come here. Their time is spent often thinking a lot that they don’t actually enjoy learning or reading, their experiences probably wouldn’t have been very positive (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).*

The attitudes of some of the pupils from working-class families suggest a lack of connection with education and other activities in school, resulting in a lack of motivation to learn. However, this might be linked to environmental factors and family circumstances, as pointed out by Donna Karen, head teacher, school C:

*You have to understand about the local working class white population that has been really sort of disaffected for some years now. This area was built in the 1930’s. At one point, it was a thriving industrial city, with lots of opportunities for employment. It isn’t so much now. Things’ve changed. We’re talking about families on the estate here who have a couple of years of unemployment who do not believe that education is the way to opportunity anymore because they have some setbacks. Perhaps society lets them down.*

A similar study by Loyd-Nesling (2006), researching the reasons for underachievement among pupils in a large comprehensive school located around a colliery, found evidence suggesting that truancy and disaffection were linked to problems within the community. They noted that some parents had a negative rather than a positive attitude influence towards school to ensure attendance. It was also linked to unemployment for pupils and their families and school management.
However, Bright (2011) countered this notion of disaffection in his auto ethnographic study of children living around a colliery, pointing out that the low achievement of pupils in British society has often been blamed on the low aspirations of working class children. He adds that often this stereotype is broken by resistant aspirations. There are suggestions of the stereotyping of pupils in schools as a result of their socio-economic background. Teachers who stereotype pupils in this way suggest a deficit model of approach to educational values and the behaviour of these pupils. Dunne and Gazeley (2008, p451), as mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, argue that, although seldom explicitly acknowledged, teachers' tacit recognition of pupils' social class was a key factor in their constructions of pupil underachievement.

Similarly, there is an angle to EU migrant pupils' inclusion; for instance, a set of migrants from the EU are treated in the school as a separate group. According to Goldston (2002), in Europe today, negative myths about Gypsies and the Roma penetrate childhood stories, family legends and the fabric of everyday life. This stereotype no doubt affects the attitudes of the teachers and native pupils in this group in school, as Katy Boulevard, head teacher, School C notes:

*Roma, the gypsies, they come here for economic reasons. They have their children in school and do not actually have the motivation to come every day. They do see themselves as a separate group; they cannot cope at all.*

All three schools (A, B and C) in this stage of the study have in different ways encouraged their pupils to achieve. In some cases, cultural values override the intentions of the schools. For instance, in School A, Julia Roberz, the head teacher, maintains that people from abroad have a high motivation to learn. They value education and believe that it is a way of integrating into society. On the other hand, Dona Karen, the head teacher of School C, notes that the stay on rate in his school is as high as 96 per cent but that the indigenous children prefer to earn money now, suggesting that the environment has defined the values of the white working class pupils through disaffection. However, Julia Roberz and Dona Karen share a similar notion about migrant pupils' motivation to learn:
One thing people from abroad bring with them is that they have the motivation to learn (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

I can tell that our high-performing students come from the different minority groups (Dona Karen, head teacher, school C).

Identity

Proficiency in the original language is of primary importance for schools. The head teachers prefer their pupils to retain their original language and learn a second language. They believe that it is an asset for pupils because it is a skill to be proficient in more than one language, which may build confidence and help to preserve their identity. The head teachers believe that the identity of migrant pupils should not be overlooked but the positives built upon. In school A, for instance, as far as Julia Roberz is concerned, there is a pride in keeping one's culture and language. Within classroom blocks, there are pictures and works of art depicting different cultures pertaining to the pupils. This serves to make the pupils feel welcomed and take pride in their cultural heritage:

When they lose their identity, their confidence goes. I am who I am because I have kept my language. I am an Indian; I have kept all of that, my food; all of those things I am intensely proud of. That pride has come true with whatever else I got from the set standard (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

Cultural values possessed by individuals define their identity, and also their way of life. Some teachers find the issues relating to migrant pupils and their families culturally paradoxical when they encounter them. For instance, Katy Boulevard, head teacher of school B, expressed surprise at the extended families of some migrant families in contrast to nuclear families, which is the norm in the UK:

I was speaking to a mother the other day, and she said sorry that her husband is back in Somalia with his other children; she has five children here. It is such a different context than the one that I come from (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).

When some migrant pupils find themselves in this circumstance, they may be at the risk of cultural myopia of the teachers who will interpret their situation through their own
lenses and schemas. Heath (1995, p114) notes that white culture represents the norm against which comparisons are made in our society and that minority people have been traditionally defined based on what they are not (i.e., non-white) rather than on what they are. This deficit thinking has permeated the misconceptions of minority pupils and teachers.

5.3 How schools respond

The Education and Inspections Act of 2006 places responsibility on all schools to build on best practice, so that all pupils understand and appreciate others from different backgrounds with a sense of shared values, fulfilling their potential and feeling part of a community, at a local, national and international level. The study schools admitted that all new arrivals at the school go through the same process of induction. Language ability and intellectual ability especially determine the pathway of progression of migrant pupils. There is a wide continuum of language and intellectual abilities among new arrivals. For instance, there are new arrival pupils who have never been to school before, while others have been to school but were taught in their own language and a different curriculum. In recognition of this situation, Julia Roberz sees the use of the first language of the pupil as vital to classroom inclusion. She recruits teachers who have ability in such languages but admits that, given the wide variety of languages spoken by the children, it can be difficult to find a teacher who speaks each one. She believes that constant contact between schools and families is very important and goes into the community to engage with the families of pupils:

*We go out of our way to help them because this thing about the development of a child is a seamless path-way. It continues whether they are in school or on holiday yea, whether it’s a term time or holiday time; it continues the development of the child. I went to Pakistan at the invitation of the Pakistani community (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).*

Julia Roberz’s approach suggests a holistic perception of inclusion, which seeks to connect the school, family and community to benefit the child. She believes that some interventions she has made at the school point towards achieving that. For instance, she
got rid of teachers who could not cope with the demands of diversity. This intervention seeks to work in many ways to eliminate any racial inclination towards migrant parents and so establish the much-needed trust relationship between the school and the community and, most importantly, the parents’ involvement in the school either as volunteers, advisors or participants in the courses designed for parents:

So I got rid of teachers who opposed the parents coming into the school and would not respect the black parents, and it was non-negotiable. They work here and have to respect and have to be mindful of culture (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

School B organised migrant pupils differently, by dividing language learners into groups: the lower, middle and upper groups. All-new arrivals are put in the middle group, depending upon their performance. They will be moved either to the lower or upper group when their level of English language is ascertained. Although they are put into the mainstream classroom, they spend two to three hours every day in the separate groups learning English:

What we tend to do, because we do set by ability, we tend to put most children in the middle group at the beginning and then, after half a term, we decide whether that pupil should go into a lower or higher group, so we try to be as flexible as possible (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).

Katy Boulevard made particular reference to the EU group known as the Roma. In order to include Roma pupils, the school introduced what is known as a ‘special project’ for them. This project is a package of primary school curriculum delivered by a department set up especially for them. The aim is to give these groups of students the basic primary education that they lack. Despite these efforts, the head teacher said that the programme failed:

We also have Eastern European children as lots of schools have now and their level of English, I mean the Roma children; some of them don’t speak any English and hardly go to school. They don’t actually have the motivation to come every day, and they do see themselves as a separate group, so we started this kind of primary school timetable for them to take one person a day. It has been
successful, to some extent, but we still have the problem of getting them to come regularly. It is much better than trying to just kind of pigeonhole them into the classes because they couldn't cope at all. They can't cope (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).

At school C, all new arrivals are allowed to join the main stream, and a department is created specially to cater for their language needs. The school takes pride in celebrating diversity. It was observed that the EU migrants have a dedicated Slovakian staff member in the inclusion department who manages their language and other academic needs as well as liaising with their families.

While some schools understood the need for supplementary schools for their diverse pupils, others left it solely to the decision of the families in the community who are aware of it. Supplementary schools offer a wide range of out-of-school-hours educational provision for children and young people of shared ethnic, cultural or linguistic heritage, provided by volunteers in the community (Archer and Francis 2006; Ives and Wyvill 2008). Maylor et al. (2010) note two reasons why these schools exist: the desire to maintain language, cultural identity and faith; and to cater for what minority ethnic parents considered to the problems with the mainstream education system, such as inherent racism and disillusionment with academic progress. School A not only recognised their importance but also make extensive use of them by advising parents to make enquiries and allow their children to attend. In schools B and C, it is left to the families to make the decision. Julia Roberz notes that:

_The Indian, Chinese, Africans have done extremely well; the Pakistanis, Yemenis have not done well. The Bangladeshis' have got together and started reaching out for after school support to help them; their children are beginning to perform. The Somalis have started doing the same thing to help their community, do you do you see what I mean, at the local level (Julia Roberz, head teacher, School A)._

**Leadership**

School leadership in diverse settings involves meeting the needs of all pupils, parents, community, and government. Leading a diverse school involves tailoring support to meet the needs of the pupils. Such support includes curriculum, pastoral, cultural, linguistic
and financial aspects. The individual experience of head teachers, their personality and the attitudes which they bring to the job have a role to play in their approaches to leadership. Julia Roberts and Dona Karen, head teachers of schools A and C respectively, show traces of the radical approach style of leadership as they tackle issues of the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in their schools. They reach out to the community by involving the parents in school activities and vice versa for mutual existence. Katy Boulevard, head teacher of School B’s, approach suggests democratic leadership by involving staff from all levels in planning and implementing the school’s policies and practices. For instance, Julia Roberz notes that:

_The major aspect of leadership management is to get things done, so they do not leave the leadership team where it’s going to be having barriers to the learners. We work out how we can minimise those barriers or negate them totally, so that we leave the students where they have an equal playing field in a very, what I would call, fixed world_ (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

Julia Roberz and Dona Karen, head teachers of schools A and C respectively, also have long term experience of working as a head teacher and deputy head teacher in schools with a high number of diverse pupils spanning more than 15 years. Julia Roberz, in particular, lived in Africa before settling in the UK. She seems to be quite empathic to the plight of EU migrant pupils as she is a migrant herself, having her roots in Kenya and India.

On the other hand, the head teacher of school B has had a few years of contact with diverse communities within the UK before being appointed head of a diverse school. Sinclair and Wilson (2000) make a case for diversity leadership, arguing that a background, early experiences, and variety in terms of physical boundaries may be particularly important in shaping such leadership.

_I tell you, when I came five years ago; this is my fifteenth year as a head teacher, so I have been around for a very long time_ (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

Similarly, other head teachers have different experiences of diversity:
I have been here for four years; I was posted here because I have worked in similar schools with diverse pupils in inner city London (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).

I have been here since 1995, before that I was head of languages in a nearby school. I have worked in this area supporting the small community since 1985 (Dona Karen, head teacher, school C).

These experiences and personality are what they bring to their leadership roles in their drive for inclusion and standards in schools for EU migrant pupils. A highly charismatic head teacher has the capacity to influence, lead and motivate the other teachers in the school, for instance, with regard to inclusion practices, Julia Roberz, head teacher of school A, stated:

*We think the first settling is critical, so we allocate extra money to make it happen. Some of the parents find it difficult to access certain services such as health, etc. We help them do that, we write letters for them (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).*

However, meeting the needs of the EU migrant pupils in schools is not without ‘barriers.’ Julia was referring to her efforts to help migrant families by writing letters to social services, health services, etc. on behalf of their children in school as the need arises. This is a kind of going the extra mile to help some of the families due to the language deficiencies of some parents. To break through these barriers, the individual experiences of the head teachers, their personality, and their priorities with regard to valuing diversity and a commitment to the inclusion of migrant pupils have a role to play in their approaches to leadership:

*We remove barriers at the institutional level, because barriers are very much at the institutional level okay. We can minimise those barriers or negate them totally so the diverse children can have an equal playing field in a very what I would call a very fixed world (school) (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).*

It is possible that Julia Roberz is referring to policy barriers or cultural beliefs. Policy barriers refer to the fact that meeting the needs of migrant pupils as well as raising standards puts pressure on head teachers. While schools are working hard to increase
their position on the league tables, including migrants in education is a process that needs commitment. Katy Boulevard, head teacher of School B, makes a point about the government's expectations of the achievements of pupils at her school, which is experiencing high mobility among EU migrant pupils:

*They still use the bench marks of 5A* A-C, including English and maths to judge us. Our problem is the difficulty of getting all the children you can get to get C grades in maths and English (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).*

**Classroom Inclusion Issues**

The head teachers in this study recognise that, as a result of level of the diversity in their schools, having only native English teachers may not serve their needs. This suggests that if they continue to retain all indigenous-white staff, they may not meet the academic needs of the pupils who have English language needs. They spend more on hiring interpreters whenever the need arises. It became necessary that, as the population of pupils’ changes, this is reflected in the staff composition. Diverse staff are required to fulfil the literacy, numeracy and behavioural needs of pupils. They drew staff from a wide range of ethnic minorities. While some serve as the main teaching staff, others serve as TAs. They liaise extensively with the families of the migrant pupils by phone. In school A for instance, Julia Roberz, the head teacher, recruited staff to reflect diversity at the school:

*Sixty per cent of my staff are black. They represent the communities the children come from, so we don’t have anyone who doesn’t speak the language of the children or members of the families of the children who come to school (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).*

In School B, although the staff composition reflects diversity, the school also uses the pastoral system. Pastoral care arrangements and provision are a way in which the schools work to ensure and safeguard the welfare of their pupils. The school demonstrates its concern for the personal and social development of all its pupils through this system. Some schools place a similar responsibility on the form teachers, others on a designated staff member. School B uses a designated staff member who is not a member of the
teaching staff to undertake this position and liaise with the migrant families. Similarly, school C uses staff drawn from a diverse range of cultures, and also has a dedicated inclusion department, mainly to cater for new arrivals and especially the EU pupils and their families in the community.

*Use of Buddies and talking partners*

During classroom teaching and learning sessions, buddies and talking partners are used. Pupils who are proficient in both English and other languages team up with migrant pupils within the same classroom. The buddies sit next to the migrant and work together as the lesson goes on. All schools for the study find this arrangement very useful as it not only serves the aim of helping children to learn the language but also strengthens the quality of the relationship between pupils both within and outside the classroom. School A believes that extending the relationship to individual families is important to learning. Therefore, every classroom teacher is encouraged to develop that personal touch with the families of migrant pupils:

*However, also our school is very much at a personalised level, e.g., when the children go to a new class to a new teacher, the teacher goes out to get to know the children, their parents, and the children's linguistic abilities. You won't find any teacher in the school who did not know the information on the children and their families. All that is about getting to know the children very well (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).*

Although these measures are put in place to ensure that pupils learn in the classroom, Julia Roberz, head teacher of school A, admitted that the languages spoken by the pupils are numerous, and the biggest problem is finding people who speak these languages. The schools increasingly welcomed new migrant pupils but identified issues with some of them. For instance, among the EU group, some migrants need only English as a second language, while others need more than English learning, including emotional and behavioural skills, to cope. It is considered good practice in schools to mainstream the migrants as soon as they arrive at the school, and their level of English has been assessed. The idea behind this is immersion. Teachers believe that, when a child is immersed in a language, they pick it up easily. Julia Roberz and Katy Boulevard remark that:
All our learning in the classroom is focused on language acquisition, about talk frames, speaking and listening, barrier games; everything that encourages the acquiring of English. It's not a deficit model right (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

Generally, we believe in immersion. If they're in the lesson, if they're not English-speaking children, they do pick up English from other kids generally children talking with other children, then so you know they begin to pick it up (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).

There are some differences between the mainstreaming and pull-out programme in the studied schools. School A uses bilingual teachers and EAL specialists to work with pupils in classrooms using the pupils' first language while School B has a special department for EAL overseen by a specialist. The EAL pupils go there for three hours per day then back to their classrooms:

We have the EAL department to work among these groups. The students go to the EAL department for support. They're only supported for a time, and then they go back into their lessons (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).

Teachers sometimes use sheltered subjects (a content curriculum adapted to accommodate students’ limited English language proficiency. Sheltered subjects are second language subject contents taught in the primary language). They do this on the premise that literacy transfers across languages and building literacy on the primary language is a short cut to English literacy. These head teachers depend upon this method to help migrant pupils on EAL programmes. The head teachers of both schools A and B note respectively as follows:

If you know, er, how language works, it's easier to hang another language on to that, okay, we expect you to have your first language, you can hang another language on it (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

Yes, we have a strong EAL department and a particularly gifted person who leads that department. We also have quite multicultural staff, so the Arabic teaching staff teaches maths in Arabic to help the children succeed. We have Urdu speaking staff (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).
The practice of extended schools is evident in the case of the study schools. According to Wilkin et al. (2003), the idea of extended schools is a product of the recent shifts in thinking that has moved away from the programmes whereby agencies, institutions and individuals work in isolation to an inclusive more holistic approach to providing support for the educational, social, emotional and physical needs of the child. Although there is no one correct model of practicing extended schools, the schools under study have extended school outlooks to reach out to their community, but only partial ones. Their practice is focused more on the educational approach referring to more time being spent on family literacy and adult computer classes. Multi-agencies are used both within and outside the school. The extent of this approach depends upon the nature of leadership, community and parental involvement and opportunities for the extended curricular adopted by the schools:

In fact, the main strength is not only being within the school but out of school, into the community. In the community, it is highly successful with many parents and adults within the community coming into school to help their children and also improve their own skills (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

However, schools have an obligation to promote community cohesion under the Education and Inspections Act of 2006, which states that schools have a duty to eliminate unlawful racial discrimination and promote equality of opportunity and good relations between people from different groups.

Quality of social relationships

The study found traces of racial tendencies in social relationships between the social groups existing within schools, students and teachers, students and students, schools and families. Although this is the case, the schools still try not to let it obstruct their efforts to promote inclusion. Equally, there is perceived white flight, as some families within the local community showed some racial tendency towards fellow parents and their children.
due to a perceived fear that the quality of education in the school that their children attend may be diluted as the school enrols more migrants. The inability of these parents to live in close proximity or allow their children to experience close social relationships in schools with children from other ethnic backgrounds has resulted in the withdrawal of these children from the schools. This situation has led to a reduction in the student population of some schools. Katy Boulevard, head teacher of school B, explains her experience with native British parents:

_The local people stopped sending their children to school because in this location in the city more and more British Pakistani people were sending their children here and there was a kind of exodus of the local population that was not recent at least 10-12 years ago that started. So the pupil population declined in numbers and moved on to this one site here_ (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, School B).

While not all of these incidents lead to physical or personal confrontation, there have been reported incidents. For instance, in school A, Julia Roberz understands that racism can take different shapes for diverse pupils in the school, which they may face continuously outside the school community and in the future, so it is important to her that the children are aware of this and prepared for the future:

_In every area, there is institutional racism and institutional barriers for those children and what we do is we give our children skills in terms of literacy and numeracy so that everybody who leaves School A can read and write to a competent level okay. We know that they are disadvantaged; they have got a whole mountain to climb. We know that_ (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

This awareness has also enabled the school authorities to design policies and procedures for reporting such incidents, especially behaviour and attitudes considered to be orchestrated by racist instincts. However, Dona Karen, head teacher of School C, admits that racial incidents are reported. Crucially, we find that the class perceptions of society, in terms of its socio-economic composition, where many migrant families are in the working class category, help to drive racist attitudes towards ethnic minorities. The pressure that society places on people in schools may be why some parents withdraw their children from schools with diverse populations, hence opting for all-white schools.
While structural racism exists, it is modified by the professional ideology to which the schools adhere.

The holistic approach to inclusion requires engagement with families within the community. Schools understand that they need to educate parents in the community to help their children and to make their work easy, especially those parents who take responsibility for their children after school. Including parents have been an issue for these schools. Programmes of activities are organised for parents, and the attendance have also been an issue for parents. School A, for instance, is interested in taking a stand as the focal point for the parents within the community. According to Julia Roberz:

_The parents engage with the needs of the child's learning, the child's development, health, social, whatever, without having these skills. And it's our responsibility to do that at the school okay. Alright, so what we've done is we've gone out of our way to meet the needs within the community, so that not just in terms of the children, but also in terms of the parents. So we have 20 classes during the week for the parents or carers of the children (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A)._ 

School B works within the official frameworks of the schools, and school C moved slightly down to carry the whole community along as a group:

_We've a pastoral system whereby we divide into four houses and attached to each house is a member of staff who's not a teacher but a pastoral mentor, and they work with families. So there're people around all day that people can talk to (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B)._ 

**Policy issues**

Ball (1994) described policies as representations which are encoded in intricate ways (via struggles, compromises, authoritative public interpretations and reinterpretations) and decoded in complex ways (via the actor's interpretations and meanings in relation to their history, experiences, skills, resources and context). The 2002 Education Act aims to bridge the class gap for the advancement of individuals to the long-run benefit to the
society. In addition, the Children's Act 2004 is a response to safeguarding young people. The head teachers recognised this and work hard to help their pupils to achieve in what looks like a 'fixed world' (within the flexibility of the school environment), as Julia Roberz mentioned, head teacher of school A. Similarly, they try to make their students aware of what is happening in the real world (society). Julia Roberz explains that she makes clear to the pupils the task ahead of them in the society because they belong to the minority group, and they do not have the 'white privilege'. McIntosh (1992) described the white privilege as an invisible package of unlearned assets that one can count on cashing in each day, but which the individual was meant to remain oblivious. It is likened to an invisible, weightless knapsack of special provisions, maps, passports, code books, visas, clothes, tools and blank cheques.

We also say to them, yeh, you’re different, and you have to be really strong and capable, so they can be out there fighting for anything that comes to them. We know that they belong to the minority group; they have a whole mountain to climb. We know that (Julia Roberz, head teacher, school A).

The picture portrayed by Julia Roberz suggests that, although inclusion policies and equality have been promoted seem fair, the real world exists out there where the migrant pupils have to negotiate their own boundaries. Katy Boulevard, head teacher of school B, remarks that:

_ I’d like us to reach the national average in GCSE results; we’ve been criticised for under performance. I’d like Sheffield as a city to recognise that they need a school like this that is going to admit people throughout the year._

This indicates that the judgement of schools based on numbers does not represent the true situation as the head teachers have to struggle with the inclusion of migrants within the system.

In addition, support from the government is important to the head teachers, especially with regard to the inclusion of EU migrant pupils. The financial support the schools get is from multi-agencies, such as the family advocates, health and social care, EMTAS, and bilingual specialists. The non-financial aspects of support come in different forms. For
instance, through the work of the LAs within the schools, as explained by Desmond Thyme, the LA consultant:

At the LA level, we offer support training seminars for teachers and TAs for inclusion, NQT (newly qualified teachers) full day training sessions and training on the assessment of EU migrant pupils (Desmond Thyme, Stratop EMTAS, consultant).

Among the EUs, the Polish constitute the highest percentage of new arrivals and there is a high demand for peripatetic educational support, and this goes mainly to the EU citizens (Desmond Thyme, Stratop EMTAS, consultant).

Regarding the financial aspect, the schools try as much as they can to plan with their allocated school budget to accommodate any expense associated with EU migrant pupils. However, there was a particular reference to support for the Roma/Gypsies group in schools. The head teachers expressed dismay at the well-articulated support for the refugee group by the government and in fact no support for another immigrant group, the Roma/Gypsies. The schools struggle to support this group through their school budget but Katy Boulevard stated that they could only stretch themselves so far:

Em obviously we get from the government some additional funding. It's not a huge amount because we also have quite a lot of children with learning disabilities, many on free school meals; if support means ticking the boxes. I wouldn't say we get extra funding from the LA. No, I wouldn't say we get any support, no (Katy Boulevard, head teacher, school B).

There are increasingly varied forms of support needed by the schools, especially in deprived communities, such as the recruitment of TAs to support the migrant pupils. Schools receive support from the government in terms of Dedicated School Grants (DSG). However, Katy Boulevard, school B’s head teacher, thinks that it is not enough considering the amount of help needed by the pupils. This might result in schools’ inability to offer a sound basic education to the children within the community.

Moreover, there have been criticism of the opacity in schools' funding, which generates unfairness (DFS 2010). The new coalition government has, however, proposed a national
formula whereby funding will be determined by published criteria. Sibeta (2010) warns that moving to a transparent system would mean that one in six schools in England would have its budget cut by over 10 per cent, while one in 10 schools would gain by more than 10 per cent. Furthermore, in recent times, while the government is funding free schools, it is cutting its funding for maintained schools. Thus, more schools are cutting back on individualised tuition for pupils who are falling behind in English and maths, career advisers in schools, and art and music teachers are losing their jobs, which is accordingly stifling the efforts of the schools. This in turn will affect support for new migrants’ needing one to one tuition.

5.4 Summary

The analysis at this stage of the study was carried out based on interviews conducted with three head teachers. As noted earlier, the outcome of this stage helps to focus the scope of the study.

The industrial melt down in the community has a historical significance for the community and seem to define their values. It affects the motivation of local pupils despite the fact that the migrants have a great zeal to achieve.

The head teachers differ in their experiences, personality, beliefs and values, hence making their approaches to inclusion different. While one seeks a broader approach to the community, others confine their approach to the school environment which raises questions about the ability of the head teachers to manage inclusion for migrants

Migrants possess a wide spectrum of both language and intellectual ability, resulting in wide differences in classroom organisation for learning, noted especially among the EU migrants. This greatly challenges the teachers' ability to cope with teaching and learning.

Changes resulting in teachers who do not respect difference losing their job, 'special projects' for EU pupils, and the celebration of diversity were noted across the schools.
These are not clearly organised with reference the failure of 'special projects' in the study.

Racism among the families in the community and their relationship with the schools was noted as the parents began to withdraw their children from school as a result of the arrival of an increasing number of migrants.

There is support, both financial such as funding from the government, and non-financial, from the LAs; however, the general belief is that this support is insufficient to solve inclusion issues in schools.

However, prominent areas such as leadership for inclusion, pedagogy (classroom inclusion) and social relationships (between schools and EU migrant pupils/families) are vital areas for further exploration because they serve as rich mines in schools for inclusion practices. In other words, they are feasible areas where inclusion practices and processes can be explored. The research questions were further reviewed for the second stage to accommodate these vital areas as follows:

- How do the school leadership and teachers view their task of inclusion?
- What impact has legislation and school policy had in enhancing inclusivity for EU migrant pupils?

The research objectives to be pursued in order to answer the research questions are to:

- Analyse how schools and their leaders view their task of inclusion.
- Examine the impact of legislation and school policy in enhancing the inclusivity of EU migrant pupils.

Also, the size of the sample was determined to include two LAs, a primary school and a secondary school selected from a family of schools from each LA. This choice was made to allow for comparisons if the need arose. These decisions apply to the next stage of the
data collection and, from this point, more emphasis be placed on EU migrant pupils as the study narrows down to this group.

The next chapter, Chapter 6, discusses the findings of the second stage of the data collection, capturing mainly interview results on leadership issues for inclusion.
Chapter 6 - Leadership for inclusion (data presentation and analysis of the second stage of study)

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter analysed the first stage of the study and the result of the analysis led to the choice of EU migrant pupils which was the focus in Chapters 6 and 7. It also pointed to leadership and classroom teaching and learning as areas relevant to this study for further investigation. These two areas were selected because school leaders help to drive inclusion practices, and classroom inclusion is where mainstream teaching and learning activities are mostly situated. These two areas embody the last two objectives of this study (Objectives 1 and 2). The choices of schools for this stage and participants were explained in Chapter 3.

This chapter introduces the second stage of the research and presents the justification for examining school leadership. The themes that emerged from the data are presented and analysed under the following sections: leadership for inclusion structure, attitude of teachers, experience and ethos, pupil mobility, standards attainment versus inclusion, continuing professional development (CPD) and chapter summary.

6.2 School leadership and rationale

The current government shift from inclusion to an emphasis on a standards-led system, coupled with the increased diversity in schools, has prompted a re-conceptualisation of leadership for inclusion. According to the Prime Minister, David Cameron, in his speech delivered at Norwich-free School on 9th September, 2011:

So for the future of our economy, and our society, we need a first-class education for every child, freedom for schools' works. Having high expectations works, ramping up standards, bringing back the values of a good education, changing the structure of education, allowing new providers in order to start schools, providing more choice, more competition, giving schools greater independence, confronting and educational failure head-on.
This stance constitutes a sharp diversion to an emphasis on raising standards in education, and requires that new private education providers run free schools, give more choice to middle-class families and more schools vie for a top position on the league tables. The processes are stated in (DFE 2010) for school leaders to redirect the efforts of teachers towards more classroom-based instruction to reflect common goals. Hence, Yukl (2006, p1) defines leadership as the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives. This definition suggests that leadership is a process which implies different forms of transactional processes, relationship, interaction, practice, and procedures between leaders and followers. Just as the environment is changing and becoming more complex, the role of schools and their leaders is also changing.

With regards to these policies, schools have to make structural provisions for the inclusion of their EU migrant pupils as well as having to raise standards. Ryan, (2003, p7) notes that:

*Cultural diversity is now a fact of life in many schools, and as a result, the dynamics that administrators face are not consistently the same as they once were in the good old days. Teachers and administrators are not always prepared for the challenges that accompany this diversity. They often know little about the people they regard as different and they also often fail to fully appreciate diversity or the issues that accompany it.*

Loeb (1994, p1) contends that leaders are needed most when things seem to be slipping out of control or when rapid changes render the current organisational arrangements obsolete. If we accept the notion that leadership is important, then it would seem that some form of leadership is required for the increasingly diverse pupil population. In addition, teacher control, conceptualised as school environmental variables, has been emphasised by (Witte and Walsh 1990, p205) and school leadership (Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore (1995, p17) in the school effectiveness literature as a key factor for school effectiveness. This suggests that leadership contributes to the purposes and goals within the school, and influences the system whereby teachers, pupils and parents interact.
Similarly, in highly diverse schools, leadership for inclusion requires an effective commitment to inclusion in order to make it a whole-school issue. According to Kugelmass and Ainscow (2004, p140), leadership for inclusion involves an uncompromising commitment and belief in inclusion, communicated ideals and a spread of commitment across the school and collaborative interaction among staff and pupils. Inclusion demands total commitment from school leaders for sustainability. Therefore, in a system where school leaders are increasingly over-loaded with accountability (such as accountability to rules and regulations, adherence to norms and achieving results in terms of pupil learning), they are attempting to do what is best for children and having to negotiate conflicting government policies regarding both raising standards and inclusion. Considering these circumstances, leaders must organise for the task of inclusivity.

Leadership in this study is being conceptualised outside the context in which it acts. Therefore, this study is concerned with leadership for inclusion. Inclusion, as the name implies, is a day-to-day activity that enables diverse pupils (EU migrant pupils) to engage fully in learning. Hence, to fulfil an objective of this study, this chapter seeks to analyse how school leaders view their task of inclusion. In order to address this objective, work was done to acquire leadership perspectives and thoughts on how inclusion is achieved for EU migrant pupils considering the present policies (inclusion, standards and accountability). The categories emerging from the findings include: changing leadership structure, teacher attitude, experience and ethos, pupil mobility, standards attainment versus inclusion, and continuing professional development (CPD). These are analysed in the subsequent sections.

6.2.1 Changing leadership structure

A common feature of all the schools in the study is that they are all located in a deprived community, as indicated by the free school meals (FSM) shown in Table 6.1 below. FSM entitlement is a widely used proxy indicator for deprivation in Northern Ireland, England, Scotland and Wales (Northern Ireland Assembly 2010). Table 6.1, extracted from Ofsted reports for 2006-2010 of the case study schools, shows at a glance that there is high level of pupils needing support in all four schools:
Table 6.1 Ofsted extracts of characteristics of pupils in all the schools of study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools for the study</th>
<th>Pupils on free school meals</th>
<th>Special needs /disabilities</th>
<th>EAL</th>
<th>Last Ofsted report</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Birkhead School</td>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>Nine out of ten</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frontier School</td>
<td>Three times the national average</td>
<td>Above national average</td>
<td>Majority</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashberg School</td>
<td>Very high</td>
<td>Very high</td>
<td>Very high</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westend School</td>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This sense of deprivation was acknowledged by two school leaders:

*We do have a high level of special needs, school meals, being in a deprived area (Annie Tavares, deputy head, Birkhead School).*

*Because our traditional historical fixed communities in their own right are already coming from an area of severe deprivation and disadvantage so that community would already come into this school requiring a great level of support (Julius Dixon, head teacher, Ashberg School).*

The case study schools already have various issues existing as schools in a deprived community, which are not solved yet and there is an expectation that the schools will provide an inclusive environment that will engender a motivation to learn and social and emotional stability for the pupils, considering their background. The influx of EU migrant pupils, as expected, increased these complexities, hence generating a need for change. According to Shields and Sayani (2005), there have been different calls for change in school leadership amidst diversity, as discussed earlier in Chapter 2. Such changes in school leadership include democratic leadership (Woods 2005), inclusive
leadership (Kugelmass 2004), social justice leadership (Ryan 2006) and shared leadership (Pearce and Conger 2002).

However, in the four schools under study, it was found that attempts have been made to change the leaders and two different forms of leadership were found to exist. For instance, Birkhead School adopts a co-headship model, while Frontier, Ashberg and Westend schools embrace the traditional one head teacher supported by a deputy head model. The 2010 Ofsted inspection report for Birkhead school affirms that the responsibility for the co-leadership position operational in the school is shared 65/35% between the two heads. The National Association of Head Teachers (NAHT, 2010) refers to this as a job-share headship and supports it based upon the fact that it is a flexible way of working for teachers, especially for succession planning and where schools are at risk of underperforming. This study is concerned about how these leadership changes can be aligned with the inclusivity of EU migrant pupils.

At Birkhead School, Annie Tavares, the deputy head teacher, is the inclusion leader. She supports a collaborative approach to inclusion leadership, and appears to be a bridge between the management team and other staff working with her on day to day inclusion. While the complexities of society, such as demand for inclusion, raising standards and accountability, have a bearing on schools and their leaders, there is a need for collaboration, team work and the sharing of ideas among the school staff. However, this depends upon the understanding among staff and the nature of the school environment.

Birkhead School has a wide diversity of pupils whose academic needs must be met. To address this need, there is evidence to suggest that it requires a restructuring of the leadership. In line with their 2001 Ofsted report:

In the summer of 2001, there was a major deterioration in the behaviour of a significant minority of older pupils, and it was recognised that the school had serious difficulties. Low levels of attainment reflect the high proportion of pupils who speak English as an additional language, who is on the special educational needs registers and who join or leave the school during each year. For 2001, they also reflect the poor standards of behaviour, which prevailed during that time. Because of the high levels of movement in and out of the school, it is not
meaningful to try to measure progress over a period of years. (Extracts from Ofsted inspection report, Birkhead School, 2002).

This confirms what has been happening in Birkhead School over the nine-year period for which Annie Tavares has been teaching at the school. Behavioural issues may stem from the deprived environment and be spilling over into the school (Chapter 4). However, the picture depicted in the report above is that bad behaviour was a result of diversity and pupil mobility. Over time, this persisted, indicating that diversity is decoupled from the school structures and hence may result in an uncertain future for the EU migrant pupils within the school. This situation evidences the weakness of control over diversity.

Given the situation at Birkhead School, Weick (1976, p5) argues that loose coupling comes in various forms. In his view, this idea is evoked where a relative lack of coordination exists or in situations where an organisation’s structure is not conterminous with its activity. The leadership structure change may have helped to drive the school forwards to address the major issues experienced by the school such as the behaviour and mobility of its EAL pupils:

_I have been here for nine years. The leadership structure has changed immensely also and when I first came here we had a head teacher and a deputy head teacher. That was basically it. Currently, we have a co-headship that is two heads operating, and we have currently two assistants, of which I am one. And in September, there is going to be four assistant heads (Annie Tavares, deputy head, Birkhead School)._ 

A sense of community is quite important to Annie Tavares, as she thinks that it helps to build trust between teachers and the families of EU migrants in the community, especially when a large number of EU migrant families are present. If the school works to build trust with the migrant families, both parties will benefit as the parents will be willing to come into the school to benefit from the programmes organised for them, and the school will benefit from the cultural expertise of the families.

According to Duignan and Bezzina (2006), there are push and pull factors that can influence schools to consider switching to co-headship. The pull factors include those
beliefs that shared leadership yield desirable results, the need for decision making in diversity matters and having more people make a decision look smarter. Others include commitment and the promotion of a sense of belonging. The push factors include those external influences such as the increasing complexity of the role of school leadership. This includes increased accountability and inclusion, the issue of free schools and, more recently, the conversion to academies. However, the demands of these factors are becoming increasingly ambiguous and do not lend themselves to simple solutions. For instance, Birkhead School’s Ofsted report stated:

_The capacity for sustained improvement is good because of effective leadership and management. Pupils are keen and enthusiastic learners. Behaviour is consistently good. Teaching and learning are good. Staff is highly motivated and passionate about the care, support and guidance that they provide for pupils and families. Birkhead School is an inclusive school and actively promotes equality of opportunity and tackles any discrimination or harassment very well (Extracts from Ofsted report, 2010)._ 

As far as Birkhead School is concerned, the change to taking control of the inclusion needs of their EU migrant pupils have been a long road to progress. The shift in leadership has not come to them as a spontaneous move but as a case of trying to make sense of their context, diverse pupils, inclusion and, recently, the emphasis on raising standards and accountability over time. Although changes are made at the leadership level, other changes include the recruitment of bi-lingual non-native teachers:

_The physical buildings have changed to accommodate changes in the population, and the curriculum has also changed. We have somebody in the higher team senior management, who is responsible for all EU migrants and most of our children come under the EAL category. Recently, there have been big changes because we have a lot of EU migrants from Slovakia; we have got some from Hungary. The school is organising phases so the senior head has the duty to oversee and we assistant heads very much manage the day to day running of each phase. I think shared leadership made a big difference to how the school operates generally because we are immensely focused on EAL issues and inclusion. (Annie Tavares, deputy head)._ 

Annie Tavares is keen to work on any new project for inclusion especially backing the implementation of the PTP (Pre-teaching, Teaching and Post-teaching) approach, which
is still in its early stages. She mentions that the top management team makes the decision on inclusion while she works with the staff on implementation (the top-down management approach).

On the other hand, three schools in this study that adopt the traditional one headship model believe that facing the challenges of increasing EU migrant pupils can be tackled by making sense or seeing things in different ways. This includes re-organising the internal processes of how different departments operate yet maintaining one headship model.

Ashberg School’s head teacher (Julius Dixon) leads inclusion with another appointed member of staff. Julius Dixon embodies the characteristics of a team leader as well as having an outward focus. A self-proclaimed inclusion champion, in his view, inclusion means getting it as right as anyone can get it. He makes tangible efforts to collaborate with the LA management every month in his office over making strategic decisions for the inclusion of EU migrant pupils within his school and believes in a full inclusion programme. He liaises with experts from government agencies to help with the resource development for teaching and learning, especially for EU migrant pupils. Julius has been a head teacher for more than 18 years and has never felt challenged by the present situation of EU migrants in his school. Julius at some point gave permission to have his school studied by the LA to find a meaningful inclusion solution for EU migrant pupils’ inclusion. Julius' activities with the LA have been an on-going sense-making process. Initially, it was an ambiguous situation because of the context (deprivation), language needs, and mobility rate.

He engages in discussions on inclusion, both internal (staff meetings) and external (LA), and comes up with different ways of working to engage these pupils, such as the development of teaching resources and so on. His actions resonate with Weick’s (1995) evidence of sense-making involving action, talk, shared understanding, communication, and articulation with people to make sense of uncertain situations. Furthermore, Julius is very conscious of maintaining a perfect image of an inclusive school within the LA. He did not stop at referring to himself as an inclusion champion, but takes pride in saying
that his school enrolls a high number of EU migrant pupils. At the researcher observed during an LA strategic meeting, he was referred to as an inclusion champion by the LA staff. Hannan and Freeman (1989) describe legitimacy as an asset that sustains the flow of resources from the environment in the organisation. In this case, Julius uses a sort of reminder and contacts with the LA to establish legitimacy for his school.

Both Frontier and Westend schools created a department for inclusion, consisting of an inclusion coordinator, head of languages and a teaching assistant. These form the core inclusion team management in the schools. The practice of leadership in these schools is suggestive of distributed leadership. According to Spillane (2005), from a distributed perspective, leadership can be stretched over leaders in a school, such that followers’ co-produce leadership practices in interaction with the leaders while the head teacher presses the big picture in terms of overall goals and standards. The case for distributed leadership is based on three ideas such as the belief in leadership teams, the need for leadership to be shared at all levels, and the creation of pools of talent for tomorrow’s leaders (NCSL 2004).

While the focus throughout this study centres on the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in schools, the leadership structure of schools reorganising for inclusion could vary depending on the teachers’ belief that will enable them to achieve the goals of inclusion and, at the same time, raise standards for EU migrant pupils. In managing inclusion, coordinators for both Frontier and Westend schools share similar experiences as they were both originally migrants in the country. They both have over ten years of teaching experience in highly diverse schools.

Asiya Abadi, inclusion co-coordinator at Frontier School, describes herself as an inclusion ‘gatekeeper’ and an energetic leader. She believes that, with her long term experience of teaching, she intuitively makes professional judgements about inclusion as the inclusion decisions centre around her. She is committed to working with EU migrant families both on a personal basis and in her capacity as the inclusion leader; she has a very optimistic view of these pupils.
Adeela Saliba, inclusion co-ordinator at Westend School, has a facilitator leader focus. She is very pleasant and easy to work with, but avoids conflict. She is an advocate for EU migrant pupils through the use of community role models. She oversees progress plans, after-school activities, language learning, and individualised education plans (IEP) involving EU migrant pupils; she likes to interact with migrant families one-on-one and organises activities for migrant parents within the community. According to McNara et al. (2009), ethnic minority teachers in the UK have diverse backgrounds, experiences and may be working with pupils and colleagues from very different cultures. This is evidenced in the interviews with both Frontier and Westend schools' inclusion coordinators:

*I was a teacher in my country when my husband, and I came here in the 1980s; I still wanted to be a teacher, so I trained here and ever since I have been teaching, and I was asked to lead inclusion (Asiya Abadi, inclusion coordinator, Frontier School.)*

*We moved to the UK when I was only ten years old, and I know what these children are going through that is why I can relate with them and their families. I have taught at this school for about 10 years and when this opportunity came, I was made the Inclusion Leader (Adeela Saliba, inclusion coordinator, Westend School).*

Whilst the inclusion coordinators at both schools bring with them previous experience of being a migrant to the job, other teachers of different nationalities are enlisted to help out with language and home visits as the need arises. There could be a presumption that ethnic minority teachers are best suited for the job of inclusion leadership as a result of their wealth of experience of immigration. They act as cultural bridges for EU migrant pupils and their families. This may be an easy way out and quick fix for inclusion leadership in schools. However, they are caught in the dilemma of empathising for these families and their professionalism. On the other hand, it could increase their lack of competence in working with EU migrant pupils on the part of native teachers and an unwillingness to appreciate diversity. The Professional Standards for Teachers TDA (2007) stated that teachers could promote higher achievement among educationally
disadvantaged pupils. This requires teachers to demonstrate the capability of working with all pupils, including EU migrant pupils.

In both schools, the issues related to inclusion depend on the inclusion coordinators, as mentioned earlier. All new arrivals, including EU migrant pupils, are put through the inclusion department's assessment centre before they are allocated to an EAL group. Other teachers and group leaders are constantly briefed on the ability of every EU migrant pupil depending upon the information received from their families. This process has been described by the two inclusion coordinators at different schools:

I am responsible for admission of migrant pupils here. So we welcome anybody from other countries for admission, I am the gate keeper. I do the assessment. I interview the parents, sometimes I get the team members to come and support me when the language is not my language. We are lucky we have got speakers of other languages (Asiya Abadi, inclusion coordinator, Frontier School).

I, first of all, make sure that the children we are dealing with are safe and happy at the school, and to make sure that they on the right curriculum. When they first come to us, we have to test to see what their abilities are like, if they have not got any previous academic history. We take it from there basically (Adeela Saliba, inclusion coordinator, Westend School).

These inclusion coordinators serve as inclusion leaders or ‘gatekeepers’ as mentioned above by Asiya Abadi (inclusion coordinator, Frontier School). According to Bilson and Harwin (2003), gate keeping for EU migrant pupils entails considering the best interests of the child, transparent decision making, and monitoring and reviewing the decision-making processes based on the quality of the outcome for the child. This position suggests the use of professional judgement; for instance, in decisions for ability groupings, liaison with EU migrant families within the community, and tackling motivational and emotional issues. The importance of a gate keeper for inclusion is to weave the path of EU migrant pupils’ future rather than ticking inclusion boxes and sometimes making intuitive judgements. They could be perceived at this stage as a guide and career path advisor.
Preconceived notions about EU migrant pupils by teachers as ‘hard to reach children or families’ on the part of the inclusion coordinator could jeopardise the future of these pupils, especially if the inclusion coordinator is strongly skewed towards the native majority speakers. The extent to which inclusion leaders understand the culture and background of the pupils and policies' demands (or are biased) influences their professional judgement.

Birkhead and Ashberg schools have head teachers and inclusion coordinators who form the core inclusion management team, working with teachers and pupils. They work together to develop extra resources and enhance teaching and learning for EU migrant pupils. Annie Tavares, deputy head teacher at Birkhead School, makes a point about trust and organisational support, where teachers are quite happy to come up with requests for finance for teaching resources relevant to EAL learning subjects and these are usually granted. This suggests that they are trusted regarding their decisions about resources, which raises the morale among the teachers in their efforts to promote inclusion. Annie believes that making teachers aware of their financial freedom is important in bringing out creative ideas about the resources available for inclusion. By doing so, teachers think creatively about teaching and learning, knowing that they will have financial backing if the need arises:

“We have a fantastic manager in terms of finances. He gives us the freedom to make our own decisions about resources (Annie Tavares, deputy head, Birkhead School).”

Similarly, team work and collaboration over inclusion are especially encouraged by Julius Dixon, head teacher of Birkhead School. He is actively engaging the LA, as mentioned earlier, about strategic planning, such as staffing and the catchment area for pupil enrolment, to promote inclusion in his school. He not only works with teachers in a team at the school, but also contracts an early year’s expert from the National Strategy office to help with the development of resources for teaching and learning, such as jigsaws, short stories, colouring workbooks, inclusion videos, CD ROMs, and books
considering the learning background of the EU migrant pupils enrolled at the school. These resources are preserved for future use:

I suppose our local authority’s aim is to create in our school a champion school as a centre of excellence that is getting inclusion as right as anyone can get it. In terms of strategy decisions, I have tried today actually to tie lots of things together. We have got a consultant working at the school today who is employed by the National Strategy. She comes in order to help us to develop resources. (Julius Dixon, head teacher, Ashberg School)

As much as Julius Dixon collaborates with the LA for advice on the inclusion of EU migrant pupils, he focuses on how to manage the influx of EU pupils into schools in terms of ensuring school places and home liaison with the families. The day to day inclusion of these pupils still lies within the domain of leaders. However, working with the LA at a strategic level, the LA conversely has not perceived the consequences of inclusion of EU migrant pupils for the reputation of Ashberg School at the national achievement level comparisons.

As far as Julius Dixon is concerned, he actively pursues the well-being of EU migrant pupils within the school, and believes that this should come first, before standards:

Being healthy and enjoying their education because of the nature of our children is much more important.

At the national level, Michael Gove, the current Education Secretary, in his recent speech to the House of Commons Education Committee on 28th July, 2010, simply dismissed efforts of the likes of Julius Dixon regarding the inclusion of these EU migrant pupils by saying:

The point I would like to make is that in a way, they are what every teacher would like to do. I haven’t met many teachers who say; I want my children to be unhealthy. I am going to put my children at risk. I would like them to have a horrendous time and fail at school. Teachers naturally reflect those priorities, but I do not think you need a bureaucratic super structure to police it.
If the inclusion of EU migrant pupils is merely assuming that every teacher in the school knows what to do with these pupils, then the government should not spend time creating inclusion policies in vain. Schools, on the other hand, neither need inclusion leaders nor would there be increasing number of behavioural and language issues. Obviously, Michael Gove is taking an elitist stance on inclusivity. This suggests a confirmation of what Ryan (2003, p7) refers to as ‘the good old days’, mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, an indication of when the school population was more homogeneous. Julius recognises that there is an enormous task ahead of him, the consequences of which include being subject to special measures by Ofsted.

According to Perryman (2007) if a school is not providing an acceptable standard of education, it becomes subject to special measures and subsequently receives termly visits from Her Majesty’s Inspectorate (HMI) to monitor progress. Julius has, however, made clear his concerns:

_In our last Ofsted inspection in November the previous year you would have seen that our provision for welcoming children new to the country was exceptional, that’s the word they used. Care, welfare and guidance were outstanding. The problem is we have got that sort of judgments in there but because of the nature of our intake and the level of attainment when they come into school our standards of attainment are very low, they are inadequate._

### 6.2.2. Teachers' attitudes, experience and ethos

A combination of teachers’ profile and experience could be an asset for teachers as they deal with issues of diversity and inclusion. It could be an experience of having previously taught in a diverse setting as a teacher and a member of a minority population with experience or preconceived notions of diversity and inclusion. Professional standards for teacher education in England emphasise valuing diversity (TDA 2007). It may not always be the case where Initial Teacher Training (ITT) is undertaken in a mono-cultural school. From the researcher's perspective, some teachers do not value diversity, as was the case in the school where the researcher undertook her ITT. That being the case, the researcher encountered a cultural deficit model of perceiving diverse learners during ITT where the
researcher was always asked to sit and observe colleagues who were indigenous English teachers teach rather than being allocated a classroom to teach and be observed.

The point is that the cultural deficit perception does not give an opportunity to other native teachers to explore the potential and personal experiences that the researcher can bring to teaching. If we examine such perceptions in all of the case study schools, for instance, there are indications that inclusion leaders are aware that social, emotional and psychological issues exist. At Birkhead School, Ella Wellman, director of teaching and learning, emphasised culture as a reason for the high mobility of EU migrant pupils in education:

_We have a group of Slovaks in year 2 but then next week they are not there. They disappear. It is not unique to our school; it is because of their culture because they are travellers. It is not just having new arrivals' culture, also having the Gypsy Roma culture, and they are two things mixed together. It's truly difficult._

These are issues about the behaviour of the Slovak, Roma and the Gypsy migrant pupils, attributable to their culture. This suggests a behaviour that she thinks is innate in these individuals and cannot be changed. With that in mind, this could block the exploration of ways to help these children to achieve. Similarly, in Ashberg and Westend schools, social, emotional and psychological stability were emphasised in the efforts of the schools to include EU migrant pupils. Julius Dixon, head teacher at Ashberg School, is more concerned about the welcoming environment where children are emotionally and psychologically stable, which prepares them for learning:

_So the EU migrants, they have very poor literacy skills in their mother tongue. It is much more than that, so in terms of both socialising, meeting their emotional needs and meeting their learning needs, we are very much starting back to the basics, the way you teach a baby to speak, and the way you spot a baby's social and emotional needs. (Julius Dixon, head teacher, Ashberg School)_

Julius generalises about the EU migrant pupils’ poor literacy, social and emotional skills, thereby painting a picture of migrant children whose needs may be difficult to meet while trying to work out what to do with them:
In our school, the ethos, the welcoming environment, the way in which we help them to socialise and to make them emotionally stable is my philosophy, unless you get that stable environment and culture within which the children can learn, they will not learn, so the attainment will not be automatic unless you get all of those basic social issues correct.

In Westend School, it is a more important practice to build language skills and, when this has been achieved, it is easier for the migrant child to navigate the academic and social terrain:

What we are trying to do is help them build on their language skill and also teach them about school life, the education system and answer any questions they might have (Adeela Saliba, inclusion coordinator, Westend School).

Adeela’s perspective does not suggest whether the students can or cannot do these things. Instead, show that decisions were being made about EU migrant pupils based not on the teacher’s views and expectations of people who have never been in education but on the teacher's focus on their deficiencies, which has predisposed her to see the students as limited by their culture.

According to Irvine’s (1990) cultural deficit, this model stems from the fact that teachers’ attitudes towards students significantly shape the expectations they hold regarding student learning, their treatment of students, and what students ultimately learn. This suggests that EU migrant pupils might often fail to do well in school because of their perceived 'cultural deprivation' or lack of exposure to the cultural models of the majority native born pupils.

On the other hand, teachers and school leaders bring their experiences together when interacting with EU migrant pupils, thus creating the desired atmosphere at the school that builds confidence. Positive school climate perceptions are protective factors and may supply high-risk students with a supportive learning environment, yielding healthy development as well as preventing antisocial behaviour (Haynes 1998). However, the extent to which the inclusion leaders exhibit a positive climate sometimes depends on individual orientation. All of the schools under study vary in this aspect. For instance, at
Birkhead School, Annie Tavares, the deputy head, believes that relating to the language and cultures of the pupils re-assures them of their sense of identity:

*We need also to be able to respond to them in their own language. I know I speak Creole and the first day I taught I had some children within the class who were Creoles. I taught in Creole because I know a lot of children are bilingual. I have a boy in class who speaks Creole very well. I made him realise his tools are bilingual and told him that he had something that he should be proud of. He went home and told his family and up until today, he had not stopped talking about it, and he is now a teacher.*

At Frontier School, Asiya Abadi, the inclusion coordinator, goes beyond the needs of the child within the classroom by showing a holistic approach to the inclusion of the migrants, suggestively presenting the inclusion department as a ‘one-stop stop support centre’ that caters not only for academic needs but also other needs of the pupils and their families. For instance, her department recognises the background of the migrant families and the pupils that may need assistance to settle into the community. The one-stop centre makes it easier to contact them personally and to get various bits of information, such as housing, and social care, which might be relevant to the welfare of the pupils and the EU migrants’ families within the community:

*So there are different spectrums where we meet the child’s needs and, all the time, the EU pupils come up with new demands. In some cases, I have been writing letters to housing and some other agencies to tell them this is the situation the child is in. The child’s mother may not have a legal right to stay and, when threatened, we do write to the home office to state the situation the child is in, and that it would not be fair for the child to leave, because the parents need to be here to meet the child’s needs (Asiya Abadi, inclusion coordinator, Frontier School).*

Although this may serve to enhance the trust between the school and the migrant families, they are caught in the dilemma of trying to meet the needs and desires of the EU migrant pupils and their families; and at the same balance their professionalism. Similarly, Noemi Belak, Head of Languages working with Asiya Abadi at Frontier School, reaffirms the need to offer a one-stop centre service to the migrant families:
Yes, but also we identify some issues within the families. We have some EU families coming to us and seeing us as a starting point for solving their own problems, they want to find out how they can deal with financial issues, some health issues, and also they do not know where to go. They know that we can communicate with them. We look after their children very well. They trust us. They would come to us and ask me if we have any idea how to cope with these issues. We offer drop-in sessions for them. We direct them to certain agencies (Noemi Belak, head of languages).

However, Annie Tavares believes that leaders understand that the schools serve to safeguard the future of the society through these children. If schools understand their responsibility towards these pupils, they have to brace themselves for this role in different ways, such as engaging their teachers in professional development and personal reflection to appreciate diversity, as mentioned:

> Obviously, we talk about valuing diversity, and I just think; I have worked in schools mainly in monolingual schools, there is actually no comparison. We are equipping the school for the future, and the future is a multicultural England. The experiences with these children in terms of language and culture just enrich everything we have in our school.

This one-stop support centre structure, found to exist within the schools, is a loosely coupled structure, knowingly allowed to exist in the school to solve some of the inclusion problems schools have with the EU migrant families. The fact that schools cannot isolate the families of EU migrant pupils while including the children is a reason for the existence of this loosely coupled structure, representing a sort of solution to a problem. In this situation, the loosely coupled system serves to manage the EU migrant families, but does not provide an inclusive solution and may not last.

Thomas (2006) notes that child and family characteristics, such as children’s gender, the income level of their household, their parents’ education, family structure, and experiences at home and in the community have been linked to children’s readiness to learn as they start school. At Ashberg School, Julius Dixon, the head teacher, comments about EU migrant families as follows:
One of the reasons why these families are coming to England from Slovakia is that, once the children are registered, they are entitled to child benefits. Not to sound like prejudiced or something like that, next the families are already asking us to send the names to the benefits agency to prove that they are enrolled at the school. Once we do that, the children always disappear. And what we are beginning to identify is, for some reason, between Rivervalley and Glassington (a city in the far north of England), families are going back and forth, we suspect that what is happening is that claims are being made in Rivervalley, and the counter claims made in Glassington but actually some of these families are using the same children to claim that.

Although Julius Dixon made these claims about EU migrant families, they could not be verified, as these claims were not elaborated.

6.3 Pupil mobility

Ofsted (2002) defines pupil mobility as the total movement in and out of schools by pupils other than at the usual times of joining and leaving. Such mobility was found to be a challenge and common to all four schools under study. According to Strand and Demie (2006), a third of mobile pupils arrived from schools outside England, often as refugees, asylum seekers or economic migrants, and these pupils accounted for the majority of the effect ascribed to 'pupil mobility'. However, EU migrant families fall into the category of economic migrants as they are able to come as migrant workers under the restrictions that apply to all EU accession countries. One of the research respondents, Elizabeth Becker, manager of EMTAS at Rivervalley LA, believes that most EU families are economic migrants and described the situation of EU migrants as follows:

*If you haven't got any money, and you are a factory floor worker or on a building site in Dalevalley, and that ends, and you have a brother somewhere else, and he asks you to come over there for a job, obviously that is your priority. Jobs and getting some money is their priority.* (Laughs)

Although economic reasons are an issue for pupil mobility, this respondent may have given this generalisation based upon her experience of managing EU migrant pupils and their needs at the LA level for a few years. Moreover, she is a member of the LA advisory committee looking at the background of EU migrants. She mentioned that she
had just returned from a two week official visit to Slovakia to study the background of the EU migrants to see how their needs could be met by the LA.

However, pupil mobility is a common issue occurring in all of the schools under study. Birkhead and Ashberg schools, for instance, experience significant numbers of pupils moving in-and-out of school, which brings an enormous challenge to the school leadership and the children involved. At Birkhead School, Ella Wellman, Director of Teaching and Learning, indicated that:

*For the EU migrants, we have them but they are not our biggest group at all. But across the school, the issue with EU migrants is that they come into school and then they disappear. That is the issue we have now. So, for example, last year, in year 4, we have about 8 immigrants who put their name down for school and came to school for something like a fortnight. Out of that number, we might have one or two left in the school now. There is a huge mobility.*

Although Ella Wellman rightly indicated that EU migrants are not their biggest group in school, it is evident from her statement that EU migrant pupils will not always constitute a major group, but they are a group with a very high frequency of mobility. Therefore, at any given time, the number in principle on enrolment might be a lot higher than the number physically present. Similarly, Ashberg School experiences the same high frequency, yet they still maintain a sizable student population. According to Julius Dixon:

*The big issue is the speed at which these children are arriving or the volume of children arriving in the last I suppose 15-18 months we have been really admitting lots of children, two years, two and half years ago children from the EU first started to arrive. We have reached a situation where we are actually admitting between 6-10 pupils a week, on some average weeks, it might be two to four and other weeks it might be more than ten. You might think that because we are doing that we are somewhat oversubscribed but, in fact, we are not because there is a massive turnover of children.*

Ella Wellman may have portrayed pupil mobility as a case of EU pupils coming in and then leaving, while the school carries on with the remaining pupils. The effects of the high frequency of mobility can easily be overlooked. However, schools may go on to count the administrative costs on their own part, sweeping the effects upon the pupils
under the carpet as it is not quite visible to everyone. Julius Dixon, the head teacher of Ashberg School, spoke out on these immediate effects on the administration of his school:

So a lot of the children arrive who are from the EU, I would say 60 per cent of them stay and 40 per cent of them move on again very quickly, I mean it is really quick because some of the children were admitted literally for two days, you see them for two days, and they will not come again when obviously we have invested time and resources in assessing their early learning and social and emotional needs, for the moment, they come to stay with us. The biggest issue I suppose facing school like ours is the draining of resources. Because our traditional historical fixed communities in their own right are already coming from an area of severe deprivation and disadvantage so that community would earlier come into this school requiring a great level of support (Julius Dixon, head teacher, Ashberg School).

The concerns over pupil mobility show Ella Wellman and Julius Dixon reflecting more of their positions on school funding management rather than concerns for the pupils affected by high mobility. Mennell (2005) confirms that schools with mobile children face extra demands, which translate into additional costs for extra administrative, teaching and other support. As much as the schools are counting the effects on administration, the duty of inclusion demands that the human effects aspect is also important. Julius Dixon expanded on this point:

It not only creates difficulties for us in terms of administration because accepting those children you have to go through the admission process of having interviews, filling in forms. It results in us having to deal with that again. So these children who are coming into a variety of levels create tremendous pressure on the class teachers to meet the needs of those children and the children who have been here all the way through school is increasingly difficult (Julius Dixon, head teacher, Ashberg School).

Julius Dixon only mentioned in passing that there are psychological effects for the other pupils at the school as a result of migration, on which he did not elaborate. I presume he put it that way because he was unsure to what extent this happens. However, Mennell (2007) argues that the high mobility of pupils disrupts the entire learning environment within a school, affecting everyone within that environment. The education of children
who have not moved school but who attend a school where mobility is high is partially compromised by the disruption caused by mobility as there is a need to help new pupils 'catch up'. From the researcher's observation, schools count more of their losses in terms of administrative costs. This might be the case because there is no funding provision by the LA or central government for pupil mobility. According to Wales (2007), no additional funding is targeted at the schools, so the education authorities bear the brunt of the constant pupil movement.

Julius Dixon presented his position on the difficulties of high mobility during the strategy meeting with the LA held in his school, which I observed. Julius Dixon’s action is more about creating awareness to get the LA fully involved in the plight of head teachers in this instance.

Ashberg School also finds it difficult to plan for long term pupil progress and resources; for instance, planning ahead and ensuring that sufficient teaching resources are available before pupils arrive. As far as they are concerned, there is great uncertainty about the intake of new pupils and the extent of resource planning for teaching and learning. Anna McCulloch, inclusion coordinator, observed this as follows:

Because we do not practically know how many children we will get, until they in fact turn up on the door step. If we have got a stable population, you will be able to plan the groups and things; for instance, we do not know whether they have English learning difficulties, we don’t know whether they have been to school, you are trying to cater for them all the time. You could have a policy, but all the time a child might be leaving, and it’s difficult to work out what the strategy is going to be because you are not sure who you are going to get, and we have got a big lack of resources because most of our money goes on getting staff.

At Westend School, Felicita Czamecka, an EAL Teacher, expressed similar views and explains that both teachers and pupils are uncomfortable when such mobility occurs. The time lapse between when they move and return to the school once again indicates that they have not learnt much, and the teacher has to start all over once again to help them to catch up with the missed work:
Yes, some of the pupils moved back to Slovakia and came back again to England. They forget what they have learnt. It is extremely hard work for us, and the pupils are involved because it affects their learning rate.

Thus, pupil mobility has effects on both schools and the EU migrant pupils involved. In addition, the design of the national curriculum is such that mobile pupils may be disadvantaged. According to Alexander et al. (2009), the national curriculum seeks to achieve much-needed continuity from primary to secondary education by devising a single framework for the age-range 5-16 years old, divided into four key stages (Chapter 4). This suggests that the national curriculum tilts towards enhancing continuity in education rather than brief stays. Hinz, Kapp and Snapp (2003) drew connections between pupil mobility, school attendance and academic progress, noting that highly mobile pupils need support for school attendance as they are at greater risk of falling behind. The Ofsted reports for all of the schools (2006, 2009, 2010a, 2010b) show that the attendance at Frontier and Westend schools is good and continuously improving, while pupil attendance at Birkhead School and Ashberg School is low as a result of high mobility. Table 6.2 below shows Ofsted’s comments on the case study schools’ pupil attendance:
Table 6.2 Extracts from Ofsted report on the case study schools pupil attendance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Ofsted Comments</th>
<th>Last report</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Birkhead School</td>
<td>Attendance remains well below average and is exacerbated because of extremely high mobility</td>
<td>2010a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frontier School</td>
<td>Attendance is good</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashberg School</td>
<td>Attendance is low as a result of a significant number of Gypsy, Roma and travellers whose attendance is irregular</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westend School</td>
<td>Attendance is above average and constantly improving, the number of students who are persistently absent is reducing.</td>
<td>2010b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although concerns have been voiced by the respondents in the case study schools regarding the high rate of pupil mobility, they all tilt towards fears of standards falling below the national target and the consequences that their schools might face as a result of this. A fear of these consequences draws schools further away from inclusion efforts, instead laying focus on solving the immediate issues of test scores and league table positions. According to Strand and Demie (2006), head teacher concerns are particularly focused on the adverse impact that mobile pupils may have on school performance (league tables), pupil formula funding, school target setting, and the interpretation of benchmarking data and ‘value-added’ analyses of school performance. Mennell (2007) also notes that value added indicators measure the improvement between key stages for these children but what they do not recognise is that an individual child may have been
absent for six or twelve months. Therefore, in order to raise standards and achieve inclusion, schools still have to work out solutions for reducing pupil mobility.

Schools are not deterred from enrolling EU migrant pupils despite the high mobility rate. They try to tailor their pupil induction in such a way that EU migrant pupils and their families may understand the value of education to consider the impact of disruption on the child’s education as they move. Migrants are briefed in whatever language they can understand on where and when to get what in the school. These take place during the initial stages of enrolment. For instance, at Birkhead School, Ella Wellman explained how induction is tailored to suit the needs of the pupils:

*We actually thought at the time that it was going to be a real struggle, but we went through that process. We have a Slovakian teaching assistant to integrate EU migrants; she took them into class and stayed with them in the class. She took them into dinner; she sat with them at dinner time, using their home language all the time to get them used to being in school. And, for a fortnight, they are quite happy in their classes.*

Similarly, Asiya Abadi, at Frontier school, shared her insight into the induction process:

*We take a step back and talk with the child in their first language and get as much information as possible when the child and the family arrives, just to make sure that what could be the barriers if there are any apart from language will be eliminated.*

At the parental level, it involves race relations and community cohesion. The school must seek to build a friendly, trusting climate for EU migrant parents and to incorporate them in the activities within the school:

*We make sure the parents come, and they feel welcomed as well. They know about our school. We find out what their language is and make sure we have somebody to help (Adeela Saliba, inclusion coordinator, Westend School).*

*The parents and the child will come as well as a translator. We find out all the information on the family of the child so that we can hopefully make it easy for them to join in the class. We do not often get children who are fairly upset. They usually come in and are rather eager to learn (Anna McCulloch, inclusion coordinator, Ashberg School).*

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6.4 Standards attainment versus inclusion

As stated earlier, most schools are now converting to academies and others are being coerced to become one. By emphasising academies and free schools, the policy makers see a situation where schools will have greater flexibility to chart and monitor their own future to achieve competitiveness and world-class education. However, considering the increasing nature of diversity and environmental contexts of schools in England, this stance by the coalition government had been met with fierce criticism.

Christine Blower, general secretary of the National Union of Teachers (NUT), in her speech at Save Downhill School in London, in January, 2012, described the current Secretary for Education as 'ruthless, radical' and 'obdurate', stating that he had embarked on what was 'clearly an ideological program' to 'dismantle' and 'privatise' state education. This suggests that raising standards by persuading schools to become academies and free schools charts a course for privatising education and excluding EU migrant pupils who are at risk of failing in education.

Furthermore, Michael Gove in his speech at Haberdashers' Aske's Hatcham College, London, in January, 2012, promises a new national curriculum to replace the current one and funding for schools for convert to academies. Haney (2000) argues that such school incentives tied to standards could undermine efforts to create and sustain a more inclusive and integrated student population. As much as the policy makers have demonstrated their support for raising standards in education, and the expectation that all students will achieve at high levels has not been clearly explained in the 2010 Schools White Paper publication.

If schools should go by the rate at which the coalition government is emphasising high standards for all students, there is a question about whether EU migrant pupils, classified as EAL learners, can be expected to make progress at the same rate as native English speakers. In the four case study schools, for instance, there are fragments of the progress tracking of English-language learners in their process of English language learning. The fact that they have to be mainstreamed at all times automatically subsumes their progress.
tracking in English learning. At some point in their learning, the inclusion teachers withdraw the tracking of their progress in English language learning and assume that they can cope on their own in the mainstream classroom. It is unclear how this decision is arrived at as it varies for each pupil but what is known from the schools is that it is generally based on the professional judgement of the inclusion team. This may have some implications for the future progress of EU migrant pupils as they may be left to struggle in silence and end up not achieving the expected targets. This might be an area of accountability that is yet to be addressed at the policy level. It is, however, important to determine the rate of improvement in English language learning and academic performance so that a reasonable benchmark can be determined.

However, the coalition government has promised increased accountability, with DFE (2010) Section 6, and article 6.5, stating that it will make publicly available data about attainment in specific subjects, trends over time, class size, attendance levels, the composition of the pupil body and financial information. This statement is more ambiguous than it might appear on the surface. For instance, it is unclear which specific subjects are intended and the nature of the composition of the pupil body. The following excerpts show how the case study schools perceive progress tracking for EU migrant pupils while learning English as additional language and at the same time being mainstreamed. There is a suggestion that little effort is being made by schools to monitor language learning. This indicates that schools set their sights on the bigger picture of being listed on the league tables, thereby paying more attention to teaching the main curricular subjects in the mainstream. At Birkhead School, for instance, Ella Wellman notes that:

*Even those children from the EU who have not had any education before, a girl who had to go to year 6, she is really developing although she has not had any education before she’s really moving on quite quickly because of what is given to her. We talk a lot here about acceleration progress. We say, right, if we can see the future, we move them on. And it is down to the experience and expertise of the teachers and the TA who work very closely with the children. You know one of the key things is to settle them in, on the first day (Ella Wellman, director. Teaching & Learning, Birkhead School).*
Coincidentally, the phrases ‘migrant pupil with little or no education’, ‘settling in’, ‘accelerated progress’ and ‘teacher’s professional judgement’ raise questions on inclusion and standards attainment for EU migrants in the case schools under study. Schools have been driven to pursue the political goals of the coalition government rather than balance it with the interests of EU migrant pupils.

On the other hand, Frontier School adopts the LA standards set out in the copy of the LA achievement survey booklet specifically for English language learning. This may be a new way that is being tried out by the case study schools, as Noemi Belak, head of languages, is still working on it with her team:

*I just gave training to all the English Learning TAs in my team regarding the Stratop achievement survey assessment. Having this assessment let us know where we are starting and where we are going and what we will be doing. Our team’s role is to use the same scheme to assess the students, inform the teachers and let the teachers know where the students are and how to support them effectively.*

Similarly, Ashberg School is operating within a cluster of schools that agreed to have a tracking process for their pupils. All of the members of this cluster of schools have their own tracking system, which is called the Mapping Attainment Grade (MAG). This monitors progress both termly and yearly:

*It is some sort of tracking system. You have to show the progress they have made. We have to do it to show Ofsted, but we try to adapt it to show progress and time; it goes right up to level five (Anna McCulloch, inclusion coordinator, Ashberg School).*

Westend School’s system seems to show that the assessment of these pupils takes a general form as they are assessed with other mainstream pupils in all subjects irrespective of their progress in English. According to Adeela Saliba, the inclusion coordinator:

*There are other teachers who have to check each year group. If a child requires my input that has an additional language need, we will help by giving further lessons in the inclusion room.*
Teachers experience additional pressures when preparing lessons and producing resources for differentiation in their lessons due to the diverse composition of pupils. The teaching materials and resources in many classrooms may be insufficient or unsuitable for meeting the needs of EU migrant pupils. For instance, basic books and equipment must be provided for new pupils. Additional costs are involved in respect of items such as bilingual dictionaries, translated learning materials, books in other languages, and electronic learning programmes such as EALIP (English as an Additional Language Intensive Programme).

According to Sibieta (2012), the government announced a cash-terms freeze (or real-terms cut) in the existing funding per pupil, on top of which there is a pupil premium worth £430 for every child registered for free school meals as of January 2011. The coalition government believes that the pupil premium, which is additional to the main school funding, is the best way to address the current underlying inequalities in schools in the UK. Such funding evaporates because there is no basic infrastructure for delivering the quality of work demanded. Anna McCulloch shared her thoughts on this:

_We have got a big lack of resources because most of our money goes on staff, and now we need more staff and more resources. We need more things that other schools would not need, designed for the children who have not been to school. We need most resources that most schools would not be able to realise you need it_ (Anna McCulloch, incl. coord.).

Similarly, at Birkhead School, resources are individually developed by teachers and used in various classes and situations. They request funds for the resources that are deemed relevant to their subjects but the finance manager has an inventory of these resources paid for by the school that can be reused to avoid duplication:

_For instance, I am the special needs co-ordinator manager and need to buy additional speech therapy support and every child will benefit from that, and I was given the financial support to do that_ (Annie Tavares, deputy head, Birkhead School).
Similarly, the study shows a popular trend of the extensive use of teaching assistants to promote the inclusion of EU migrant pupils by the case study schools. The more funding the schools get, the more they employ TAs. There seems to be a taken for granted notion that greater funding leads to greater inclusion through employing more teaching assistants. The TAs fill roles ranging from induction support, classroom support, small-group working, and language and communication with families within the community. Cable, Eyres and Hancock (2006) note that TAs are very involved in working with the most vulnerable and ‘difficult to teach’ children, and that they use a range of intermediary techniques and pedagogic strategies to enable these children to participate in classrooms. They work directly with the pupils, sometimes working with individuals or small groups within the classroom in any curriculum area.

In all of the case study schools, teaching assistants are based in the classrooms offering the generic task of promoting classroom rules, dealing with conflicts and keeping the children on task. They work either in a small group with pupils or on a one-on-one basis depending on the identified needs of the child. At Westend School, for instance, the pupils have an individualised timetable from the inclusion department, sharing time for individualised learning with the TA based at the department:

*We decide the subject that the child will be able to cope with in the mainstream so that each student has got a timetable, and we support them in the classroom (Felicita Czarnecka, EAL teacher, Westend School).*

The TAs also work with the pupils in the areas of language development. In this case, the schools use the bilingual TAs extensively both in the classroom and when liaising with the families of the pupils within the community both on a formal and informal basis. On an informal basis, for instance, this includes visits to families within the community through the process of building trust within the school.

At Birkhead School, TAs are used extensively in induction; for instance, in settling the pupils into the school cultural and social life. Ella Wellman believes that settling in for the EU migrant pupils could be an unpleasant experience for the child, especially one who has never been to school before. A bilingual TA is used to work with the pupils over
time inside the classroom, and within the school until they become calm and learn the school's routine:

So it's a big issue for settling in. With that group, what we did was actually for a week we put them with our Slovakian TA, and she integrated them into the school's cultural activities and worked with them in their home language (Ella Wellman, director. Teaching & Learning, Birkhead School).

Some schools have more TAs than others. Annie Taveres, deputy head at Birkhead School, indicates that they have many TAs because they have a lot of funding to sustain that capacity. However, at Ashberg School, Julius Dixon indicated that their funding is channelled mainly towards developing resources for teaching the migrants at different levels. This suggests the influence of the leadership on decisions about funding, so while Annie Taveres supports recruiting more TAs, Julius Dixon supports developing resources. Although both will have a positive impact on the children, Blatchford et al. (2004) argue that there is no evidence that the presence of TAs, or any characteristic of TAs, had a measurable effect on pupil attainment, but TAs have an indirect effect on teaching, e.g. pupils had a more active form of interaction with the teacher and there was more individualised teacher attention. Schools have a reason to continue to use TAs as most teachers are monolingual.

Nonetheless, an over-reliance on TAs by schools and their leaders may lead to reluctance among the classroom teachers to improve their understanding of how to tackle the learning of EU migrant pupils. More recent arguments against the use of TAs have been pointed out by Ainscow et al. (2006, p17) pointing that they are drawn from the surrounding community, and tend to move less frequently than teachers, and hence may carry in the school cultures the default position on inclusion.

In addition, for schools where inclusion has a separate department, inclusion may take longer to become a whole-school issue as the teachers may leave inclusion issues to the inclusion leaders and TA team in such departments. Nevertheless, now that the funding for schools is being cut, most TAs are at risk of losing their job as the schools may not have enough funding to retain them. This will affect standards and, instead of rising, they
will begin to fall for EU migrant pupils as teachers are culturally grounded to cope with the trend diversity.

The financial cost of the inclusion of EU migrants' pupils impacts upon the budget of the schools and stifles the medium-term planning. In the education sector, medium-term plans generally cover a period of three to six years, usually five years (UNESCO 2010). While schools strategic plans cover areas of the curriculum, human resources, management and pastoral issues, the main budget of the schools relies on grants based on pupil numbers. Ofsted (1995) advocates a rational model in which schools engage in strategic and developmental planning whereby resource allocation decisions are directly linked to the educational aims and objectives and are monitored and evaluated in relation to these. This suggests that schools must have adequate knowledge of their environment and be able to predict changes, which may affect them, and must be measurable and linked to the actions taken. The coalition government channelled attention away from inclusion and focusing on raising standards by encouraging many more schools to find the financial means to convert to academies or free schools.

Rational planning by the school leaders is reasonable if schools can foresee what may happen in terms of pupil enrolment, progress and attainment, and level of diversity. With this sort of situation, there is so much uncertainty surrounding pupil mobility, the number of new pupils to expect and the resource planning for teaching and learning because of the disparities in the nature of EU migrant pupils. The issue of budget planning is within the head teacher's role. Of the four schools under study, the only head teacher leading inclusion is Julius Dixon at Ashberg school. He was very vocal about the difficulty of strategic planning in terms of diversity and mobility:

*The school budget is based on pupils' numbers and one of the issues with mobility is that it makes pupils' numbers fluctuate, so it makes three years planning quite difficult (Julius Dixon, head teacher, Ashberg School).*

Similarly, Anna McCulloch, who works closely with Julius Dixon, confirms the situation:
Because we do not practically know how many children we will get, until they actually turn up on the door step. If we had a stable population, you would be able to plan the groups and things. For instance, we don't know whether they have English learning difficulty, we don't know whether they have been to school, you are trying to cater for them all the time. You could have a policy, but all the time a child might be leaving, and it's difficult to work out what the strategy is going to be because you are not sure who you are going to get, and we have got a big lack of resources because most of our money goes on getting staff (Anna McCulloch, inclusion. coordinator).

Additionally, schools also feel the effects of standards on inclusion in the league tables and Ofsted inspection reports. Table 6.3 below shows the performance of the four schools under study both at the League (ranking in the national comparison) level and latest Ofsted inspection results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>League Tables 2010</th>
<th>Pupils achieving level 4 or above in English (national average 81%)</th>
<th>Key stage 2 (2010)</th>
<th>Pupils achieving level 4 or above in Maths (national average 79%)</th>
<th>Key stage 2 (2010)</th>
<th>Pupils achieving level 4 or above in Science (national average 88%)</th>
<th>SAT 2009</th>
<th>% of pupils achieving 5 or more GCSEs at grade C or higher, including maths and English GCSE 2010</th>
<th>Ofsted judgement</th>
<th>Ofsted overall inspection year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Birkhead primary School</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashberg primary School</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frontier Secondary School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Outstanding</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westend Secondary School</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At the time of this qualitative data collection in 2010, Westend School and Birkhead School were preparing for the Ofsted inspection for 2010, while Frontier school was organising its inclusion practices and seemed to be relaxed about their previous Ofsted result. At Ashberg School, Julius Dixon is uneasy about his school’s Ofsted standing. He expressed concern about the nature of his pupils and the way in which they were ranked in the league tables and Ofsted rating. For example, both tables have nothing to say about his efforts towards inclusion, the nature of his pupils (highly diverse), especially some EU pupils who have never had any form of schooling in their home country, and the background location within the school in a deprived community:

*What we are finding is that children from the EU and particularly Slovakia and, specifically, the gypsy Roma traveller community, lots of those children have never been in a school or any education system at all. These children need more than translation, practically they need socialising, and they require their emotional needs to be met. They need to develop an understanding of what the school really does, the social norms and conformities that are expected and lots of the children do not understand that* (Julius Dixon, head teacher).

While trying to work through their social and emotional needs, he is at the same time trying to ensure that they meet the national target for education to satisfy the Ofsted requirements:

*As the head teacher, we have been asked to demonstrate high standards of attainment, and we have been asked to demonstrate good progress for all children and as a welcoming school for children from any country of origin, you are expected to accept them and provide for their learning and social and emotional needs no matter where the children come from* (Julius Dixon, head teacher).

Julius Dixon, however, thinks that such a target will be achieved for these pupils but in the longer term. As far as he is concerned, the criteria for the Ofsted judgment of schools are insufficient for the amount of effort the school’s teachers make. It does not capture the fact that the school has more EU migrant pupils who need extra time and attention to learn. Instead, they are judged on facts and quantitative figures for the national examinations. This still reinforces the fact that schools are left in a position of pursuing
the goals of the government and, as much as the goals are in the interest of society by raising standards, the migrant children’s attainment and interest are yet to be represented:

The annoying and frustrating expectation of me and my school by the Central Government and from the local authority is that we that we will reach the same standard as the average school...we got outstanding in the way we care for children and inadequate in terms of the standards they come out with and the two balance up, we are a satisfactory school which to me does not paint an accurate picture of the level of work the teachers put in. These people work harder than ‘satisfactory’. People achieve much more than ‘acceptable’ seems to suggest. People do. It does not present an accurate picture of the environment or the package we give children (Julius Dixon, head teacher).

6.5 Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

While training is important to schools for the study of Continuing Professional Development (CPD), the within school and external expertise categories of training were found to be common to all of the schools. Within school, the training consists of the coaching/mentoring of TAs, lesson observation, weekly meetings, assembly briefings, and staff meeting updates. On the other hand, the external expertise categories consist of conferences, LA network meetings, and training by multi-agencies.

The major difference lies in how these are practised within each school as they are tailored towards the needs of individual schools. In the within school training category, it is common for all of the schools’ inclusion leaders to provide training for the TAs. This training consists of mainly diversity issues arising from the job, such as classroom working with the diverse pupils and their teachers, and briefings on engaging pupils in the classroom:

I have done some training with the TAs so they will be doing the pre-teaching and post-teaching (Ella Wellman, director. Teaching & Learning, Birkhead School).

I pass information about pupils to teachers, apart from that I would have discussions with them as well and the way we deliberate this information; it is in a way that the teachers from different departments contribute ideas (Asiya Abadi, inclusion coordinator, Frontier School).
Our training depends on the purpose, twice, three times, several times in a month or none but it depends as things come up. We have training organised by the school and at times we have assemblies as well as staff meetings where we are informed of what is going on (Felicita Czarnecka, EAL teacher, Westend School).

Furthermore, Day (1993) notes that any attempt to improve children’s learning depends on some form of teacher growth. In the case of EU migrant pupils, for schools to raise attainment for these categories of pupils depends on teachers’ growth in terms of an adequate understanding of the cultural background of their pupils, specific knowledge about languages, dispelling any biases regarding pupils and an ability to use this knowledge to organise pedagogy to stimulate learning. The organisation of the within school category of training in the schools under study seems to take the shape of something that the inclusion leaders put together to get on with a normal day’s work or rather ‘a quick fix’ event which may or may not need a follow up. There are demerits associated with this type of training as follows: it may not give room for evaluating the progress achieved in the practice of inclusion in this area; there is no provision for staff to reflect on practices; and schools may not know when a benchmark for best practice has been achieved.

However, Julius Dixon, head teacher of Ashberg School, made a striking point, confirming the dangers that will continue to linger in the future in terms of diversity in schools if the attitude of the staff and organisation of the CPD do not improve:

Inclusion staff offers in-house training. It is very difficult to keep up to date on training new and existing staff in a constantly shifting field of thought. I have not found anyone yet who can say to me this is how you are capable of coping with this influx of migrant children, how you are competent to raise standards given the diversity you have got. I do not think we have actually got the answer (Julius Dixon, head teacher, Ashberg School).

On the other hand, the nature of the expertise category of CPD for teachers is not without question. This is external training for teachers. For instance, Annie Tavares, deputy head teacher at Birkhead School and Noemi Belak, head of languages at Frontier school admitted attending a one-day conference organised by the Ethnic Minority and Travellers Achievement Service (EMTAS) in the past. As a teacher, I have also had the opportunity
to attend this conference, which brings together all of the experts on diversity education based in selected tertiary institutions to deliver talks to teachers and head teachers and Q&A sessions about the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in schools. However, Thomas Minton, the senior manager of EMTAS confirmed that, recently, this conference has been discontinued to make way for their staff to go to schools to deliver training in the areas that the schools need with regard to EU migrant pupils:

_We are bringing in some specialists to do some work around creating some learning about the specific things that are needed to support the EU migrants as opposed to the general British minorities' education._

Similarly, John Parker confirmed that consultants are being dispatched to schools for training:

_Q&Asessions about the inclusion of EU migrant pupils. However, Thomas  

Minton, the senior manager of EMTAS confirmed that, recently, this conference has been discontinued to make way for their staff to go to schools to deliver training in the areas that the schools need with regard to EU migrant pupils:

_We are bringing in some specialists to do some work around creating some learning about the specific things that are needed to support the EU migrants as opposed to the general British minorities' education._

Similarly, John Parker confirmed that consultants are being dispatched to schools for training:

_**Our consultants are allocated to certain schools, and we support them by giving staff and the schools training advice. Alongside this, we've got the new arrivals' excellence programme that comes from the DFE. So consultants would train them in schools, so there is a video and there are lots of resources to go over that (John Parker, Stratop, EMTAS consultant).**_

There is a teachers' network meeting organised by the LA which offers the teachers working within the LA an opportunity to share ideas and good practices on the issues of new arrivals in the schools. A case in point during my observation of the network meeting is a presentation on different school systems in Europe to enlighten the teachers on what may be important to the families of their pupils depending on the education system in their pupils' home country. This meeting is held monthly; although Ashberg and Westend schools send representatives, they are not regularly represented.

Ashberg School contracts an external trainer to come into the school to train staff on development and the use of teaching resources for enhancing the teaching of the increasingly diverse pupils at the school. Service leaders from the national strategy and the LA offer this training. The teachers are trained on the new programmes for use in teaching such as the EALIP program, and LOVE writing. These are programmes developed by external entrepreneurs for schools:
I have already talked about the lady from the national strategy consultant in school today. She has provided training for their service leader, and the staff does offer it. It must be very difficult to keep up to date actually on training new and existing staff in a constantly shifting field of thought really. I have not found anyone yet nationally who can say to me this is how you are able to cope with this influx of children (Anna McCulloch, inclusion coordinator).

At Frontier School, the external training or conferences are left to individual staff to decide on their own. Staff who wish to attend as a matter of relevance to their job find out about these and press for sponsorship for them. However, where such external training happens, the experience gained will be shared at the staff departmental meeting:

I have been sent to conferences, EAL-EMAS training. I used to work for them in the past. I found this training and ask to be sent there because that can benefit us and the school and the way we work. If one member of our team is sent for training in our department, we share the experience, to some extent. Everybody knows some part of the information of course, but not everything that was said in the training, but we share what was learnt (Noemi Belak, head of languages, Frontier School).

However, there seem to be little commitment from both teachers and their leaders to CPD. According to Bolam (2000), CPD activities are aimed primarily at adding to the teachers' professional knowledge, improving their specialist skills and helping them to clarify their professional values so that they can educate their students more effectively. Naomi Belak, head of languages at Frontier School, agreed that it is quite important that they collaborate with one another to find a way to ease the challenges posed by EU migrant pupils' learning:

Yes, a family of schools in this area. I am a new head of department; I have plans to bring together all the family of schools in this area. My view is that a big proportion of our EAL students come from our primary schools and why don't we start teaching them in a similar way. So that the transfer is smoother and we can give feedback to each other about the students' progress and optimistically we will start working as a partnership and hope we will work closer in future (Noemi Belak, head of languages).
6.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed leadership for inclusion in the four case study schools with a focus on the data outcomes such as leadership structure, teacher attitude fostering an inclusive climate, pupil mobility, and standards versus inclusion and continuing professional development. The results were analysed in terms of what they mean for the research question and objectives mentioned in Chapters 1 and 3. It was found that:

The schools in the study are located in a deprived community and Figures show that most migrant pupils are on FSM (free school meals) which is an indication of the family’s socio-economic status (SES). Dune and Gazeley (2008) pointed to the fact that teachers tackle under-achievement in schools for such categories of pupils sometimes through tacit knowledge (silent knowledge that emerges only when a person is doing something). There are some manifestations of the use of tacit knowledge in the decisions made by the teachers regarding the academic progression of EU migrant pupils.

With the call for different forms of leadership in schools due to the complexities of the position and changes in pupil composition, as mentioned earlier, the results of the findings show that the leadership found to exist in the schools was shared or distributed leadership. Where there is a traditional one head teacher in charge, it is shown that such leaders are inclined to attend to more strategic aspects of their job than day to day inclusion. While inclusion requires day to day attention, it becomes important to distribute leadership and make provision for inclusion leadership’s obvious position. As mentioned in the literature (Chapter 2), Spillane (2006) noted that distributed leadership is the ease to which it can become all things to all people. This means that it is not fixed, hence allowing schools to tailor it in their own way.

The schools in the study engaged migrant teachers to serve as inclusion leaders. Although they bring with them individual experiences of migration and act as cultural bridges, they are caught in the dilemma between empathy and professionalism. There are two angles to this. It may be 'a quick fix solution' to leadership for inclusion or it could be a gap in the
literature regarding what impacts they make in terms of bridging the culture gap. So far, this area has not been reported in the literature of inclusion.

Personality, experience, beliefs and values are vital to the position of leadership for inclusion. As seen from the case study, leadership for inclusion sometimes requires on the spot decision making, and the application of previous experiences and knowledge to situations. Some situations lend themselves to either professional judgement or intuitive judgement as reported by the participants, especially regarding the placement and progression of the EU migrant pupils. These are issues that feed into the nature of sense-making by the teachers and their leaders. Sense-making lends itself to scanning and getting cues from the environment.

The results also indicate that teachers may be stereotyping pupils from the EU, especially the Roma group, based on the references and remarks they make about them; for instance, the use of phrases like 'it is because of their culture', 'they are travellers', etc. This could direct attention away from meeting their needs but instead their deficiencies are put to the fore.

The study also found that teachers deserve some trust and financial freedom in order to be efficient in working to promote inclusion. Although it was not mentioned in the literature that these are vital, the data show that the teachers were happy to be creative in planning classroom activities, knowing that they will be allowed the financial freedom to acquire the materials they need.

It has been pointed out in the literature that standards are a major force shaping the direction of inclusion (Ainscow et al 2004, 2006). The findings show that schools in deprived areas, such as the case study schools, are experiencing additional pressure in terms of lesson preparation to meet the official minimum standards. There is an extensive use of TAs and, in fact, the use of intuitive judgement in progress placements for students.
However, flaws were noted in the areas of progress tracking of EAL students, which supports Wardman's (2012) findings that the provision of EAL support in UK is variable due to the funding, particularly since EAL is not a national curriculum subject.

Two forms of CPD were identified in this study; this includes internal and external expertise categories. The results of the within school categories show a picture of 'quick fix' training and may not allow room for follow up in the future. Although teachers are updated as inclusion issues crop up, these updates may not be organised and lacking in scope. More importantly, there is no tracking of the issues compiled or records for future training reference which aids reflection and future practice changes. While the external expertise categories, in some cases, are left to the teachers to find such training out and indicate an interest, the general attitude towards training is low. However, CPD is important to teacher growth and pupil achievement.

These summarised points will be combined with the results in Chapter 7 to provide a rounded view of the outcomes of the study in Chapter 8 of the thesis. The next chapter, Chapter 7, will discuss the second objective and research question, which centres on classroom teaching and learning.
7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the challenges involved as schools re-organize classroom inclusion practices for EU migrant pupils. As a teacher, it is easy to assume that we practise inclusion; however, the processes of classroom inclusion determine how far teachers are committed to making changes to include EU migrant pupils. At least a number of teachers can still identify with the ‘elitist’ comments of Michael Gove (the Education Secretary), which may make them neglect our duties as teachers. This chapter discusses the second objective and research question of the second stage of the study. The chapter starts with the rationale for classroom teaching and learning, followed by sections covering the findings from classroom practice across the four case study schools, which include: issues of mainstreaming and pull-out programmes and classroom ability groupings for the inclusion of EU migrant pupils.

Remarks: Mainstreaming, pull-out, inclusion only

This section clarifies the use of the terms employed in different sections of the analysis in this chapter. 'Mainstreaming' is used as an umbrella term for including all children in the main school classroom system. 'Pull-out' refers to the times when migrant pupils are taken away from the main classroom (hours/days per week) to receive instruction in a resource room. 'Inclusion only' refers to receiving instruction in the general classroom only. 'Combined service' refers to both receiving instruction in a resource room and in the general classroom at different times.

7.2 The Classroom teaching and learning/rationale

In his speech at Old Ford Primary School, Bow, East London, in January 2012, Michael Gove, the current Education Secretary, proposed open classroom visits where parents would be allowed to come in and see how their children are being taught by their
teachers. Such visits, he believes, will ensure that teachers ensure that they deliver the best to all children:

*Children themselves know they are being cheated. Ultimately, we owe it to our children. We have got to think of what’s in the children’s interests first. The single most important thing in a child’s performance is quality of the teacher.* (Michael Gove Jan., 2012)

This proposal, however, supports Accountability section 6 DFE (2010, p66), which stated that, in future, parents, governors and the public will have access to much information about every school and the teaching quality.

The present coalition government, at the surface level, is determined to break down all barriers, such as making the quality of teaching open to all, both professionals and non-professionals, to decide how well teachers are handling the children in the classrooms. For instance, the mention of the words ‘cheating’ and ‘quality in relation to teachers indicates that there are questions over whether the activities of teachers are suitable from the perspective of the other stakeholders (parents, professionals and non-professionals) in education.

The legitimacy of the teachers' professionalism is threatened and there is a need to reconsider classroom transactions/exchanges within the increasingly changing pupil composition. This justifies Meyer and Rowan's (1991, p50) claim from the institutional theory perspective that organisations that lack acceptable legitimised accounts of their activities are more vulnerable to claims that they are negligent, irrational and unnecessary. Schools try to justify their position by reorganising activities in the classrooms and embedding best practices from the field environment such as professional bodies, National Strategy and other education regulatory bodies to achieve the desired end.

In addition, the present coalition government makes a case for world-class education and the future economic growth of the country by vigorously pursuing an increase in standards in education (DFE 2010, p3). The ripple effect of this ideology has again
channelled attention towards classroom re-organisation for teaching and learning. Up to this point, schools have worked to contain the inclusion of EU migrant pupils. Increases in standards will tend to increase the pressure on the teachers and pupils in the classroom. It conflicts with Sergiovanni (2001), who argues that this will put teachers and head teachers in a precarious position, motivated by stakeholders’ expectations to produce positive outcomes without regard to process, bureaucratic factors or taking the right approach. It is important to note that accountability of this form tends to be transformative such that, while teachers are being put in the eye of the storm as the policy makers expects immediate results; there remain questions about the nature of the teacher training being provided and the resources available.

Theorists of the institutional tradition (such as Meyer and Rowan 1983, p72) point out that schools avoid this kind of control for two reasons: the close supervision of instructional activity and output can uncover inconsistencies and inefficiencies. While schools depend on their existence for resources and support from society, they prefer to make local changes to the content and effectiveness of their instructional practices invisible to allow any prescribed institutionalised rules to become adaptable to local circumstances. In other words, schools are embedded in a complex environment where political and social interests, parent groups and individual interests play out. Schools, therefore, want to shield themselves (their classroom practices) from the pressures of inclusion, standards, accountability and parents’ interests to maintain internal consistency and yet gain societal acceptance of their existence.

In the case study schools, inclusion and standards place increasing demands on both teachers and pupils. Inclusion, for instance, takes place within and outside the classroom and is suggestive of an on-going process. At the classroom level, inclusion is dependent on the exchange between teachers and pupils. Holt-Reynolds (2000) sees the role of teachers in the classroom as actively engaging students’ participation and using that participation as a context to impart learning. In the process, teachers reflect on practices, recognise individual differences, and re-organise the classroom.
On the other hand, each child in the classroom exhibits a different culture, language, background and experience. However, external pressure coming from the institutional environment, such as inclusion and the raising of standards, demand that teachers respond to each pupil in various ways to enhance inclusivity and equality. Such ways include mainstreaming and classroom grouping.

The nature of classroom transactions/exchanges in the previously mono-cultural classrooms in the UK may no longer be relevant to the present situation of the increasing change in pupil composition as the classroom is becoming more complex. Ladson-Billings (2011) describes classrooms as complex organisms, where the students bring with them richly-textured biographies that go beyond their racial and ethnic categorisations, and their teachers bring their own sets of complexities. Such complexities include the teacher's experiences and attitudes. Amidst all of these complexities, schools are expected to find a balance between the policy implementations of inclusion and raising standards for all pupils. While inclusion and standards are everyday processes for both teachers and pupils, teachers try to make sense of the situation through experiences and environmental cues.

Powell and Colyvas' (2008, p292) version of a micro analysis of the institutional theory perspective states that the sense-making approach pays direct attention to organisational actions and the efforts of individuals as they engage in routines of regular operation. Hence, communication, networking and collaboration among teachers, pupils and their families in the community and other stakeholders collectively increase the experience and knowledge about handling the situation.

Within the classroom, the teacher completely controls what is implemented once the classroom door has closed. Given the diverse background of pupils, teachers employ their individual experience, different pedagogical strategies for teaching and even cues from the environment, such as notions of best practices. As teachers navigate the terrain of sense-making in classrooms in the process of achieving inclusion and standards, they learn what works and what does not. What works as they reorganise may become a bench
mark for them, and may be copied by other teachers as they share good practices; hence, within the classroom, the sensemaking of teachers triggers institutional practices.

Explaining this ‘bottom up’ approach of institutionalisation, Hodgson (2007, p236) notes that new or altered routines may be institutionalised, made part of individual habits and collective expectations and integrated with other established social system routines; hence, routines can be learnt and communicated from one social system to another. In the same way, teachers come together to share ideas and experiences as I observed during the Rivervalley LA network meeting for teachers. For instance, the EAL teacher representative from Northern Park School, who has been working on accuracy in language learning using action research carried out in her classroom, shared practices that worked for them with other teachers.

In addition, compliance with the Children's Act of 2004 still provides the legal underpinning for care and support for all children. Broad educational policies like the current issue of raising standards without examining the underlying framework, and the present situation of inclusive practices in classrooms that directly impacts on whether and how these policies can be carried out by schools, make implementation increasingly difficult.

Amidst the challenges of inclusion and standards policies, the classroom reorganisation practices found to exist in the case study schools include: mainstreaming and pull-out programmes and ability groupings. However, variants of these practices were found to exist within the case study schools, and these will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

7.3 Mainstreaming and pull-out programmes

Mainstreaming in education is a regular practice in many schools. As recommended in the primary and secondary national strategies DFES (2007, p4), every child in our schools has an entitlement to fulfil her/his potential through access to the National Curriculum. This is best achieved within a whole-school context whereby pupils are
educated with their peers. Mainstreaming took centre stage in the late 19702 as a way of ending the segregation of students based on disability (Warnock Report 1978). In the report, it was used as a term to refer to a child with special needs who attends a regular classroom with pupils of the same age. This suggests that the child is not isolated in any way from her peers. As a result of the different discrimination laws over time, such as the Race Relations Act (1976), and the Disability Act (2005), McKie and Riddell (2006) note that the UK government announced its intention to move towards a mainstreaming approach.

Mainstreaming, however, has expanded to include every pupil in education, irrespective of their background. It is believed that this will eliminate discrimination and promote equality in education. Bourne (2007) noted that the aim of mainstream practices is to make each school and each teacher responsible for meeting the needs of their own specific, changing pupil composition and at the same time setting up networks to share ideas of ‘what works for which pupils when’.

Although this is the case, there is evidence that many teachers do not feel prepared to support the learning of the diverse children they find in their classrooms (Daniel and Friedman 2005). There may not be a model of classroom reorganisation to be strictly adopted by any school but there exists a notion of good practice in teaching and learning. For instance, according to the researcher’s observation of the network meeting, teachers come together to share good practices especially on how to handle EU migrant pupils as they collaborate with other. Schools experiencing similar situations can seek ideas on practices that work in order to enhance their own styles and classroom techniques.

In real terms, schools operate in many ways, such as different environments, inclusion leaders with their own philosophies and ideologies, and resources (funding) based on allocation; environmental factors, such as a deprived community and the pupils’ backgrounds are distinct, as expanded on previously in Chapter 6. Classroom observations indicate that all of the case study schools mainstream EU migrant pupils.
There are variants to mainstreaming such as ‘pull-out’ programmes that have to be managed by teachers. Pull-out programmes are EAL programmes that are designed to remove pupils from the mainstream classrooms for a portion of the day in order to give them specialised instruction in English (McKeon 1987). This is done to enable them cope with the language use and access the English curriculum. In reality, a pull-out programme is not only restricted to EU migrant pupils and other learners of English. There are other reasons that may require the application of a pull-out programme, such as enhancement for pupils with mild disability (Marston 1996). This study is concerned with pull-out programmes for EU migrant pupils in the case study schools.

Interviews and observations were conducted to show the varied philosophies and practices of classroom organisation for inclusion. At Ashberg School, Julius Dixon notes that:

_We have been asked to demonstrate high standards of attainment, and we have been asked to demonstrate good progress for all children. They have the same right as the other child, the right to access the national curriculum, the right to safeguard them and the right to treat them with respect, and that is what society will expect any school to do._

This is suggestive of a philosophy of inclusion driven more by political motives. In such a situation, the efforts towards ensuring inclusion and standards for EU migrant pupils may be geared towards ensuring that all of the necessary formalities of inclusion (mainstreaming, use of TAs, resources provided) are fulfilled and may be merely ticking the inclusion boxes. Julius Dixon as the head teacher understands that these are what EU migrant pupils need in order to succeed but might be working under policy pressures considering the other dispositions, such as resources and funding. Therefore, being in such a position necessitates a search to find a balance by tailoring the provisions to serve their purpose as well as meet the basic requirements of the policies.

As a teacher, I recall having an EU migrant pupil in my class who spoke Spanish. Watching him come to school daily, socialise with the other children, behave well, sit quietly in his corner in the classroom and listen to lessons as they were delivered was
enough to tick all of the inclusion boxes. The subjectivity of the teachers drives their efforts towards inclusion and standards. Annie Tavares at Birkhead School believes that teachers must make inclusion happen because these children have come to live here. She understands that there is a ‘need’, and efforts to fulfil these needs are very important to her:

*We need to teach children English language because this is their country, and we need to equip them for the future. We also need to be able to respond to them in their own language (Annie Tavares, dep. head, Birkhead School)*.

There are variants of pull-out programmes found to exist in the four case study schools. These are as follows: (a) the child is assigned to a regular classroom but receives individualised assistance in some academic subjects from the teaching assistant, designated person or the inclusion co-ordinator within the classroom; (b) the child is assigned to a regular classroom but receives individualised instruction from the inclusion department for a few hours a week; and (c) the child is placed in the regular classroom, and support is given to the teacher by the inclusion leader to design an appropriate curriculum and programmes for the child.

The variants of pull-out programmes found in the schools are examined through the Marston (1996) model of mainstreaming. Marston (1996, p123) outlines three models of mainstreaming, namely: inclusion only; combined services; and pull-out only. The inclusion only model indicates a full inclusion model whereby the pupil receives all instructions in an Individualised Education Plan (IEP) in the general-education setting where the resource teachers and regular teachers collaborate to provide this instruction in the general classroom. The combined service is an arrangement whereby the student receives instruction for an IEP area both in a pull-out resource room and in general classroom with the resource teacher and the classroom teacher working together. The pull-out only is where the pupil receives an education service in the IEP area from the resource teacher in the resource room only. From the variants within the findings for the case study outlined above, the first two models, inclusion only and combined services, apply to this case study and will be referred to in the subsequent analysis.
At Birkhead School, considering the background of their EU pupils and the environment in which they operate (a deprived community), Birkhead teachers understand that the traditional classroom teaching methods (flow of information from teacher to pupil) have not met the learning needs of all of their pupils and there is a need to re-organise classroom practices. Over time, they have worked to improve pupils’ achievement. For instance, their Ofsted report (2002, p7) shows that:

*The provision for pupils with EAL is wide ranging but not consistently used effectively to support learning.*

This is a suggestion of an uncertain future for achievement for the EU migrant pupils and for the school if no change is made to the way in which the curriculum is delivered and also a need for teachers to make sense of the increasingly changing pupil composition. Similarly, if pupils’ outcomes remain unchanged, Birkhead School might face Ofsted sanctions, which will affect their market reputation. As the pressure on inclusion and standards mounts, the school has shifted its attention to how the curriculum topics are chosen and taught. Their Ofsted report (2007, p6) shows that attention at Birkhead School shifted towards more pupil involvement:

*The curriculum appeals to pupils when it is taught through topics, often supported by visitors and visits, for example, to the local cemetery, a farm, a shopping centre, places of worship, the library and theatres (Extracts, Ofsted report 2007, p6).*

As they continued to modify their methods of teaching and learning, their 2008 Ofsted inspection report indicated that:

*The school has recently reviewed its approach to curriculum planning to promote a theme and topic-based approach, with clear links between subjects. This has been welcomed by staff and pupils alike, and in this sense has contributed to improvements in teaching and learning (Ofsted monitoring report 2008, p2).*

Theme- and topic-based teaching is an approach in which distinctive areas of the curriculum are integrated instead of being separated into different subjects. It is considered that teaching that is integrated around a theme suits the way children naturally
learn, such that new vocabulary items can be learnt easily, with the theme providing a meaningful context for understanding (Cameron 2001). Annie Tavares, the deputy head teacher notes that:

*We have a very creative curriculum, the topics we choose are child-friendly, and we bring a lot of the children into the themes we create.*

Recently, the director of teaching and learning, Ella Wellman, set up an integrated approach to teaching and learning because they thought that the EU migrant pupils needed more organised reinforcement for each lesson. Ella Wellman mentioned that it was a method she formulated with her group of TAs and was still testing because it is not something they have done before. She notes that:

*Our school is different from other schools because we admit more EU pupils. We have to do something different. I have done some training with all TAs. So they will be doing pre-teaching and post-teaching.*

They also expect that this approach will help pupils while in the mainstream classroom to take control of their own learning. This is supposed to be a customised approach to suit the needs of their EU migrant pupils and other children can benefit from it also:

*Yes, pre-teaching, teaching and post-teaching on the same topic. If they were doing fractions, they learn in pre-teaching the vocabulary of the lesson before the teacher actually teaches. So they understand the vocabulary like numerator, denominator. Because they know what the language means, they can actually manipulate the figures, and the numbers work. They go in for teaching; post-teaching assesses what they have learnt from the main teaching, and so you have three choices really, that is what we are pushing at now. We meet with the TAs every Friday (Ella Wellman, dir. T&L, Birkhead School).*

In a similar study on improving schools, Ainscow *et al.* (2006, p79) mention that, in one of their study schools, a practice of inclusion towards improving test scores is to hold revision sessions before and after school. It is unclear how those schools organise these revision sessions.

However, Birkhead’s style is unique as it closes the gap for EU migrant pupils. As each
topic is treated, it is emphasised in the pre and post lessons happening successively. Instead of pulling out EU migrant pupils from the classroom during lesson periods, they are pre-taught new vocabulary by the TAs for the main lesson on the next day's topics. The pupils are present in the classroom at all times for the main lesson and then post teaching comes afterwards during after-school catch up activities.

This triad approach to instruction is mainly about information processing. At the Friday, meetings, the TAs and Ella Wellman discuss the pupils' activities and compare notes on any problematic areas encountered. The image here is one of people trying to make use of the resources they have, applying them to teaching and learning in a different way, and expecting an outcome that will determine their next set of actions.

Weick (1995, p113) argues that, in such a situation, sense-making is about beliefs and actions. People keep checking one another, knowing that the sense they have created is transient and can collapse at any moment. Birkhead School also re-organised the teachers to work in curricular teams, such as the subject teachers group led by senior teachers, to meet every three weeks to discuss issues relating to their subjects and to disseminate information. Ofsted (2010, p8) notes that:

*Teachers work in curricular teams with a clear focus. These arrangements are proving to be effective in improving the quality of teaching and learning.*

Over the years, Birkhead School has tried different ways of re-organising their classroom teaching and learning, considering the external pressures of standards, inclusion, and accountability. Institutional theorists such as Meyer and Rowan (2006, p5) explain that ritualistic roles such as rules and norms help to sustain appearances for educational organisations that eventually help to generate legitimacy. They theorise that organisations tend to avoid massive dysfunction by 'decoupling' their external image systems from their backstage operating processes. This decoupling process, in turn, relies on both societal and organisational actors functioning in an atmosphere of trust and confidence and not taking the institutionalised structures too seriously. Birkhead schools' account illustrates efforts by the teachers to influence or change their classroom practices, taking cues from
the institutional environment (larger systems of belief, culture) and their own experiences. Although the situation is uncertain initially, they seem to be making some progress as time goes on. This situation questions the authenticity of the decoupling argument of Rowan and Meyer. Coburn (2004, p1) argues that recent theoretical advances in institutional theory have begun to raise questions about decoupling, suggesting that pressures from the institutional environment penetrate schools and classrooms in more substantial ways. For instance, the methods they have tried over time include: a creative curriculum; theme and topic based approaches; and pre-teaching, teaching and post-teaching (PTP) approaches.

Creative curriculum, themes and topics based approaches were proposed by some external sources, such as National Strategy. National Strategy portrayed the notion that a creative curriculum enhances learning. Schools are encouraged to take ownership of their curriculum (DFES 2003, p9). They also challenged schools to be creative and innovative about how they teach:

*Children are engaged by learning that develops and stretches them and excites their imagination. They enjoy the richness of their learning, not just learning different things, but learning in many different ways: out-of-doors, through play, in small groups, through art, music and sport, from each other, from adults other than teachers, before school, after school, with their parents and grandparents, formally and informally, by listening, by watching, and by doing. They develop socially and emotionally. They take pride in their learning and want to do well.*

This method in turn challenges the classroom teacher to exhibit pedagogical professional knowledge. Moreover, learning out-doors, for instance, visits to farms, museum, etc. enhance memory and understanding. This form of teaching and learning may vary as schools depend on their teachers and environmental facilities. On the other hand, Payton and Williamson (2009) maintain that the reform of the National Curriculum in 2008 to give schools more local responsibility and flexibility in curricular planning, organisation and management ushered in different approaches to teaching and learning, such as topic and theme based learning.
For Birkhead School, at various times when these practices of teaching and learning were advocated, they tried to reflect these changes in their own practices, as discussed above. The situation as mentioned above at Birkhead School portrays teachers actively seeking a solution for the future of their EU migrant pupils. Messages from the environment have helped to shape the beliefs and practices at Birkhead School. Birkhead School has struggled for a while with low performance, as shown in their Ofsted reports (2002, 2007, and 2008).

In order to justify their legitimacy and existence to the authorities (their source of funding) and the regulating body (Ofsted) as well as society, they have tried to incorporate these societal 'myths' or generally-held beliefs about these practices, as portrayed by National Strategy, expecting that it work for them in their quest to achieve inclusion and raise standards for EU migrant pupils without necessarily evaluating their own practices.

Similarly, their recent triad method PTP approach seems to build on the efficiency and delivery of their theme, and the topic based approach. This approach might be a way of overcoming the downsides of pull-out programmes for EU migrant pupils. However, pull-out programmes have been criticised on the grounds that pupils pulled out for EAL help are forced to miss instruction time in their mainstream classes (Duke and Mabbot 2001). This depends on the nature of the pull-out model as categorised by Marston (1996, p123): inclusion only or a combined service.

Birkhead School’s practices suggest inclusion only where pupils receive all instruction in the general education classroom setting, with a regular education teacher collaborating with the resource teacher. The application of PTP model design seems to indicate that TAs may or may not be present at all times with the EU migrant pupils in the main classroom; hence the pre-teaching aspect is incorporated to give pupils an idea of what to expect in each lesson. This model gives EU migrant pupils the confidence to sit in the classroom and take control of their own learning without having to relay overly on the TAs sitting next to them and telling them what to do.
On the other hand, it will test the ability of the classroom teacher in managing the achievement of different diverse pupils under their care rather than relying on teaching assistants at all times to do it for them. If Birkhead School at some point soon evaluates the progress of the EU migrant pupils who have benefited from this practice, and it proves positive, this will serve as a benchmark for future practice for them. They will also reduce their reliance on a high number of TAs, as well as use it to evaluate teachers’ awareness and responses to cultural differences in their own classrooms. In this case, the inclusion only model works if the classroom teachers, TAs and subject leaders involved are committed, collaborate with one another, and use an effective monitoring system to monitor the progress of EU migrant pupils in order to continue to improve the practice. In sharp contrast to the image of decoupling by Meyer and Rowan, as mentioned above, environmental influences did reach within the classroom to influence classroom routines, re-organisation and teachers' world views.

Frontier School, on the other hand, re-organised its classroom teaching and learning to adopt partnership teaching. Bourne and McPake (1991) note that partnership teaching is when a subject teacher and EAL specialist or groups of teachers work together to plan and develop lessons to suit all students’ language needs and abilities, irrespective of whether they are bilingual or not. This method of teaching benefits language learners as the importance of language in learning is emphasised across the curriculum and thus bilingual teachers work alongside classroom teachers to ensure that pupils learn. Although this is what seemed to be the case at Frontier School initially, their Ofsted report (2002, p18) confirms that:

_The newly introduced system of partnership teaching provides well targeted language support in the classroom across all years, and at its best is very effective. However, mainstream teaching is less successful for new arrivals who have very limited knowledge of English, especially in large classes where pupils require individual help and there is no support available._

This has been the case over time for the school; recently, the pupil composition, resources (funding), and education policies have changed. According to the researcher’s classroom observation at the school, EU migrant pupils are placed in the classrooms with other
children and with minimal support from a 'roving' inclusion team (the members of the inclusion team moves from one classroom to another during teaching to look after EU migrant pupils who may need extra help). This team also makes up for any extra help EU migrant pupils need after lessons in their Post-teaching session. In some cases, the Post-session teaching is completed hurriedly with a few EU migrant pupils during break periods which last for only thirty minutes. There is also a thirty-minute session immediately after the school day when the teachers are ready to go home, as the researcher observed.

We have post-teaching rather than pre-teaching because when we go to support different classes, we try to include the students in all possible lessons that they might access with some support, language support. One of us is available to stay for half an hour after school to do homework with them (Noemi Belak, head of languages, Frontier School).

The general practice seems to be inclusion only but there may be less structured support for the EU migrant pupils in the classroom. The available support builds on spot-checks in the lessons taught in the classroom. This applies to particular lessons that the inclusion team may have the opportunity to check. Other lessons may be overlooked if the inclusion team is needed for other administrative work. This makes it harder for the EU migrant pupils to own their learning. For every EU migrant pupil, the tendency is that such a post-teaching session will be more of a re-enactment of what the teacher has taught, giving little or no opportunity for the evaluation of progress at the level of how much the pupil understands in the classroom. It might also prove difficult to track the rate of improvement of the pupil apart from the classroom curricular evaluation. There is a tendency that classroom teachers may rely on TAs and inclusion coordinators to work out the pupils’ path to progress.

In strengthening the effects of the environment on the teachers, institutional theorists such as Meyer and Rowan (1991) supported by Coburn (2004) argues that, at times, teachers respond to pressures from the environment with symbolic responses that are decoupled from the instructional core. Decoupling occurs when constraints in the
organisational environment make it infeasible to uphold the formal structures if practical ends are to be achieved.

The case of classroom reorganisation at Frontier School indicates that the practice of mainstreaming migrants and less structured inclusion only support exist. This is enough to justify that Frontier School is conforming to the standard practices of mainstreaming, yet fewer results in terms of pupils’ achievement may be achieved.

Similarly, at Westend School, the inclusion team prefers to assign the child to a regular classroom but he/she receives individualised assistance in some academic subjects from TAs based in the inclusion room. Teachers cater for the needs of the EU migrant pupils in the inclusion room through the use of Individualised Education Plans (IEPs). This means that EU migrant pupils will be scheduled for help in the inclusion room at different times within the week. This could be an hour meeting in the inclusion room three or four times a week.

We would not put them straight into the classroom, unless they have been to school before to make sure that their English is at a good level, and we know where they are, we do it steadily so they go to the international centre perhaps two days in a week and in the EAL room, three days in a week and there will always be someone (a TA) there with them. (Adeela Saliba, incl. coord., Westend School)

According to Evans (2007), an IEP should be a working document. Its design should allow for regular updates and comments (scribbled notes) by TAs, teachers and parents. The IEPs generated at the inclusion department at Westend School are mainly drawn up by the inclusion team for the EU migrant pupils and other EAL learners. Targets for the pupils are based on formative assessment and the professional judgment of the team. This may suggest inadequate opportunities exist for the participation of the EU migrant parents of the pupils in setting the IEP targets, considering their language barrier and limited knowledge of the English school system:

We try to adjust their timetables to meet the individual needs. We observe them, get formative assessments, meet and decide the subjects the child will be able to
cope with in the classroom, so each student has got a timetable and support (Felicita Czamecka, EAL teacher, Westend School).

Questions remain as to how positive outcomes can be measured for each child with such inconsistency in practice over time, or are the so-called IEPs prepared to show compliance during Ofsted inspection but not reasonably used to meet individual needs?

The practice at Westend School suggests the combined services model where the pupil receives instruction for an IEP area both in a pull-out resource room and in general education. This model has been criticised, as mentioned earlier. As many of the pupils miss instruction during the time they were pulled out of the classroom, if the IEPs are well planned to accommodate the periods of missed instruction, then the combined services model could be relied on for the much-needed achievement for EU migrant pupils. In addition, the combined services model is beneficial in a different way because the researcher’s observation of the inclusion room at Westend School shows a situation whereby a EU migrant pupil came to school two hours late, reported to the inclusion room TA and started challenging every pupil in the room. After a few questions by Felicita Czannecka (EAL/inclusion teacher), he admitted to being disturbed by a recent family issue of domestic violence. However, in the main classroom setting, such a distraction might be to the detriment of other already established pupils, which would have been better handled in the inclusion resource room. Nevertheless, both models work depending on which framework is put in place in terms of monitoring processes. Furthermore, the practice and collaboration between teachers involved the pupil and families.

In contrast, Ashberg School’s practice inclusion adopts only approaches whereby pupils receive all instructions in IEP in the general classroom with the assistance of teachers and TAs. Over time, Ashberg School, like other schools in this study, has experienced its own challenges related to inclusion and standards. Their previous Ofsted reports from 2002 to 2011 show evidences of the school’s struggles to make sense of their pupil’s diversity and external influences from their organisational field. They laid emphasis on core subjects such as English, maths and science to the detriment of other subjects as their
initial response in the area of teaching and learning to inclusion and raising standards of the increasing diverse pupils. Their Ofsted report (2002, p8) states that:

Emphasis is on English, maths and science as the school is seeking to drive standards. Curriculum is not broad and not enough attention is given within lessons to encourage children to develop their creative skills.

There is also evidence of topic and theme based curriculum practice within Ashberg School. Similar to Birkhead School, the organisation of teaching and learning at Ashberg School have been influenced by the National Strategy idea topic and the theme based curriculum. Their Ofsted (2006, p4) indicates that:

There are activity days, topics and themes with cross curricular links enhance the development of literacy skills as well as pupils understanding of important social issues such as bullying.

There were also indications of the reorganisation of classroom learning as a result of the changes they have made similar to the processes of effective schools. Sammons (2007, p4) defines effective schools as those in which students progress further than might be expected from consideration of their intake, an effective schools thus add extra value to its students’ outcomes, in comparison with other schools serving similar intakes. There were considerable changes made to enhance pupil progress, such as: changes in staff composition; the scrutiny of lesson plans; direct monitoring of lessons; and also a slogan for teachers and pupils ‘every lesson is a language lesson’ to enhance the speaking, reading and writing English skills of EU migrant pupils. Their Ofsted (2009, p4) report indicated that their monitoring and evaluation are insufficient, pupil improvement was not taking place, and teachers do not make full use of the available resources such as TAs and Information and Communications Technology (ICT). So far, there are indications of the fragmentation of the best practices such as the topic and theme based approach and processes of effective schools but none seems to have been followed up fully.

The picture being portrayed conforms to Meyer and Rowan's (1977, p341) view of the ‘loose coupling’ of the institutional theorists. They argued that schools must somehow
reconcile incompatibilities between institutional pressures and technical pressures. They noted that organisations responded to this contradiction by buffering, building gaps between, loosely coupling, or decoupling the formal structures from actual work activities in order to maintain 'ceremonial conformity'.

When there are strong but diverse pressures from within the environment, the school finds itself faced with conflicting demands. In recalling, (head teacher) Julius Dixon’s attitude/ ideas about inclusion as mentioned above, the school adopts different classroom re-organisation practices to look like its peers without really affecting the state of the pupils’ level achievement or standards, yet still ticking all of the inclusion boxes.

On the other hand, Ashberg School wants to make ‘every lesson a language lesson’, the researcher's experience of teaching a subject in a school other than English as a subject is that teaching does not always take sufficient account of the need to develop everyday fluency in English as a pre-requisite for learning. In agreement, DeJong and Harper (2005, p104), in their analysis of preparing mainstream teachers for language learners, note that, while many good teachers understand the role of oral communication for learning and organise their classroom to enable students to name, organise, and process information while learning to read and write, they may overlook the fact that EAL pupils often need more explicit scaffolding, particularly when performing academic tasks. It is unlikely that some classroom teachers teaching other subjects may help to make every lesson a language lesson a reality for EU migrant pupils.

However, during the researcher's lesson observation at Ashberg School, TAs use a designated corner within the classroom while the lesson is going on to support EU migrant pupils in the mainstream:

>The pupils were made up of different cultural origins and sat in a mixed group of four. At the left corner of the front row, there is a computer with a pupil (Marvis) sitting and facing the computer. A teaching assistant sat next to her both facing the computer while Mrs William the class teacher stood next to the white board facing the class. In a cubicle next to the classroom sat two pupils with another teaching assistant. The lesson for the day started at 9am. The lesson for the day is
'consecutive numbers', says Mrs Williams (Notes taken from classroom observation, Ashberg School).

Their inclusion only approach requires the extensive use of TAs. A large number of EU migrant pupils learning English are scattered across different classes and require a proportional number of TAs to work with them in all lessons. This depends on the resources (funding) available to the school.

The case of Ashberg School is unique such that initially their approaches to classroom practices seem to be loosely coupled as mentioned above, but over time, as pressure to increase standards mounts, as well as an increase in diversity, the school decided to look inwards for ideas and solutions. They are currently addressing this issue through the extensive use of TAs and ICT provision. According to Julius Dixon, the head teacher:

*We have the class teacher and a teaching assistant in each class. We also have the support of specialist support teachers who work in the school. We do have the full-time equivalent of two teachers who are floating. They do not have class responsibility because they are supporting and delivering packages to support the basic language needs of new arrivals.*

On the other hand, the use of ICT in education has been associated with raising standards in teaching and learning. Schools were urged to embrace ICT in all aspects of teaching and learning. According to Ofsted (2011), the Education Reform Act of 1988 made ICT compulsory for all pupils from age 5 to 16 in all maintained schools in England. Ashberg School, therefore, tried to incorporate an electronic interactive learning programme in its EAL teaching by introducing EALIP (English as an Additional Language Intensive Program). This is a commercialised program purchased by the school.

EALIP is a well-structured, intensive language program, consisting of three different levels aimed at new to English-language learners with the support of a classroom assistant and designed to teach basic listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. According to Julius Dixon, head teacher:
We use something called EALIP (English as an additional language intensive program) basically it is a language development program which starts with naming basic nouns, everyday object and soon goes into adding adjectives.

Additionally, Anna McCulloch, the inclusion coordinator (Ashberg School) notes that:

You want to know what EALIP is like; it's just a language programme that someone developed, that we adopt. It was introduced to us by the lady from the national strategy. It is not perfect, but we adapt some of it for use. It is restrictive; it assumes that the child will have learnt reading and writing in their own language. It relies on hence working with the child, and the child will be able to read what that says. So this is why it does not work with the beginners. It is supposed to be something there already for the TAs to use. So that is why we have to adapt some of it for beginners.

Levy (2002, p75) notes that commercialised programs are often remote from the users; background information, such as the age, sex, cultural background, other foreign language knowledge, computer knowledge and so on, of those users for whom the programs are intended is not specified and can only be guessed. This may justify Anna McCulloch’s stance on the lower reliance on the use of commercialised programs for EU migrant pupils at Ashberg School. The school has developed its own pedagogical program to enhance language learning for the migrants. They called the program 'LOVE writing'; it is meant to develop writing skills and is tailored for different stages of learning. According to Julius Dixon, the head teacher:

We also introduced something called love writing, throughout the school and love writing is a whole package and breaks down into smaller steps and packages to be delivered in each year group. There is a package for each year group, which is age appropriate to that year group.

He also mentioned that this programme had helped to improve the reading and writing ability of the EU migrant pupils while learning English language. So far, the activities of teaching for the benefit of these EU migrant pupils indicate a search for solutions. While ICT is intended to facilitate learning for EU migrant pupils, there is little indication at Ashberg School that it is extensively used considering Anna McCulloch’s view that 'it is restrictive'. While Julius Dixon the head teacher spoke with reverence about the EALIP
program and further explained that they had introduced a new programme called LOVE writing, which works for them (love writing is a practice of giving their pupils children’s books to read after school, writing about what they have learnt and sharing it with the class every other day).

Anna McCulloch, the inclusion coordinator explained the restrictive nature of the EALIP program. Both the myth (the notion that ICT is associated with standards), and the legitimacy of the school were kept intact by the simple process of using the EALIP computer program enough to convince authorities such as Ofsted of their efforts to raise standards and inclusion while they work out their own internal ways to raise standards by introducing their own programme. Schools react to issues of inclusion and improving standards in different ways; collaboration among schools especially those experiencing similar circumstance is very important to share ideas and solutions to issues of common interest. If schools are not proactive about collaboration, the exchange of ideas and solutions may take so long to happen that little progress is achieved by the EU migrant pupils.

In addition, there are some exceptional cases involving emotional and behavioural issues in schools emanating from EU migrant pupils, where they are sent to a ‘nurture unit’. Seth-Smith et al. (2010) note that nurture groups are teacher-led interventions which seek to address the difficulties of children exhibiting a range of emotional and behavioural problems by establishing more adaptive relationships with adults and peers. Nurture units at the case study schools is a way of guiding older EU migrant pupils who have not been to school before to gain access to the initial social capital much needed to function effectively in the dominant society.

Both Birkhead and Ashberg schools maintain a ‘nurture unit’ in place of a pull-out programme. The nurture units are run by a qualified teacher and a teaching assistant. At all times, they are overseeing small groups consisting of 8-10 pupils. These teachers act as role models and the aim is to provide the much needed intervention as a result of the nature of diversity, emotional and social behaviour perceived to exist among the EU migrant pupils in the school. Annie Tavares, deputy head of Birkhead School, notes that:
So you might have a child in Year five come to school for the first time who doesn’t know about school and we take that child to the nurture unit to get those initial experiences. They go in not as reception children but children needing those early years experiences which they have not had and to have a child in the classroom for a whole day who have not been to school before and who does not know what learning is all about is absolutely cruel. We do this hopefully with some of these arrangements underground to enable them to cope in the classroom and we work with them within the classroom situation.

From the institutionalist perspective, Gamoran and Dreeben (1986) explain that such groups can be considered an institutionalised category whose social definition transcends the individual classroom. Their background for instance (as mentioned above by Annie Tavares ‘a child who doesn’t know about school’) call into question their family’s socio economic status. Also, the teacher’s perception of such individuals may suggest a deficit view, and such deficit views could indirectly translate into practice. For instance, according to comments made by Ella Wellman, director teaching and learning:

Yes, generally they are the Roma group. When you look at the culture in Slovakia, they are discriminated against. That is not a very nice experience. They are not allowed to go to school even if they want to go. So that is an issue.

Similarly, Julius Dixon, head teacher at Ashberg School notes that:

The social norms and conformities that are expected, lots of the children did not understand that. I am not talking about three and a half or four year olds, I am talking about children in every year group, including years five and six children who we have to take through into early years and foundation stages who have never been to school at all.

As much as schools practice mainstreaming/nurture units, issues of background (socio economic status), and deficit perception by the teachers and issues of cultural identity could have a role to play in determining what happens within the nurture units. In both cases, there is a suggestion that those early years’ experiences are vital in moulding the social and emotional behaviour in the child for the longer term. In order to manage this behaviour in a positive way and get the pupils functioning properly in the mainstream, the schools resort to nurture units.
Studies on intervention using nurture groups indicate that the intervention works for young people (Cooper, Arnold and Boyd 2001; Colwell and O'Connor 2002). However, in recalling poor behavioural standards by minority pupils at Birkhead School as indicated in their Ofsted inspection report of 2002, p5, resorting to the use of nurture units may be a positive way forward for mainstreaming for the school. Hence, Ofsted (2008) commended the school as follows:

_The work of staff in the school's 'Nurture Unit' is of particular note, and is a major factor in supporting the achievement of pupils in the unit. The success of this work has led to firm plans for the school to extend this initiative in order to meet the very specific needs of some older pupils (Ofsted monitoring of grade 3 school 2008, p2)._ 

While Birkhead and Ashberg schools are first cycle schools that use a holistic approach through nurture units to address behavioural and emotional needs, Frontier and Westend Schools, second cycle schools, laid emphasis on specific support by the teachers and skills training to help to change the pupils' attitude. Pupils are invited to meet with prominent role models in the society to be inspired, and skills such as ICT and basic literacy, are taught to help the pupils to improve their attitudes.

### 7.4 Classroom (ability) groupings for inclusion

Classroom re-organisation for learning in schools has been influenced over time either by changes in educational policies or research developments in education. Historically, Boaler, William and Brown (2000) note that classroom reorganisation within the past six decades has shown a movement from streaming, a process by which students are segregated by ‘ability’ and taught in the same class for all subjects, to mixed ability teaching that is consistent with the more general public concern for educational equality that was pervasive at the time and back to the practices of ability grouping. These changes happened because of the political influences and concerns about the future of education.
However, Ball (1994) explains that the creation of an educational marketplace means that schools are concerned about their image, and hence, streaming and setting (the system of grouping pupils according to their abilities in specific subjects) appeared to favour schools as they pay attention to creating favourable images to society. Ball’s argument suggests that schools are not doing what suits the purpose of education and benefits pupils but instead are subject to prescriptive practices that suit the regulators. Gamoran (2002) argues that streaming and setting involve two problems: first, when educators divide students by achievement levels, they tend to segregate them by race, ethnicity, and social class; and second, the achievement levels of students in different classes are unequal to begin with, and so may become increasingly unequal over time. Gamoran’s work suggests that inequality already exists in society; if the test scores are stratified along this line, there will be more majority race and privileged classes at the top end of the continuum and the minority at the lower end. This reinforces Bourdieus’s concept of education as an agent of cultural reproduction.

Educational researchers such as Kutnick et al. (2005) have noted that grouping enhances learning and has the potential to raise standards. Moreover, setting has been suggested as a way forward in various government reports (Ofsted 1998). However, Ireson and Hallam (1999, p343) argue that, as much as of the emphasis is on standards, a return to a national system of selection and structured grouping is unlikely to raise standards. With the changes in education over time, both with the policies and the present background of new EU migrant pupils, schools are working out ways to re-organise ability groupings to include pupils as well as raise standards. Also, within the classroom context, physical and social factors exist to help to shape learning. Such factors include the sitting arrangement, number of pupils, instructional materials and implicit rules guiding interaction. These factors influence both pupils and teachers.

Considering the individual circumstances of EU migrant pupils (such as their background, language and culture), the classroom situation and policy dictates of inclusion and standards, teachers try to make sense of the situation by assigning pupils to different smaller groups that may depict how best they can make learning happen. It is
acknowledged that other forms of grouping may exist in schools, such as streaming, setting, etc. Ireson and Hallam (1999, p344) note that the categorisation of schools as adopting one form of grouping is difficult when different types of grouping operate in the same school simultaneously. The classroom ability groupings considered in these case study schools are grouping strategies towards classroom re-organisation for inclusion and raising standards such as ‘within class grouping’ and ‘between class groupings’.

Within class grouping can operate in various ways. Usually, it is classroom teachers’ practice to divide students of similar abilities into small groups while between class groupings is a school’s practice of separating students into different classes, courses, or course sequence curricular tracks, based on their achievement (WIHR 2002, p1). It is a common feature of all of the case study schools to use ability grouping in placing EU migrant pupils in the classroom.

At Ashberg School, Julius Dixon the head teacher is particularly concerned about the grouping of EU migrant pupils due to their wide spectrum of ability. He notes that:

> Obviously, for EU pupils who are in year six and year five class perhaps and planning and delivering a curriculum from pre-national curriculum levels. We are talking of early year’s foundation stage sort of levels right up to national curriculum level five, so a very wide ability spectrum. So how do we address that?

Julius Dixon’s point is that they are presented with pupils with a wide range of skills and abilities. In order to be effective, the teachers must learn how to address the needs of each migrant pupil. Some pupils will be below level, some at level, and others above level in different subjects. It is imperative that the teachers identify each child’s strengths and weaknesses so that they can adapt their teaching style and modify the lessons to best serve their unique needs. This can be a difficult feat for a classroom teacher, especially with large classes. However, Anna McCulloch, inclusion coordinator, explains that:

> We have groups of children who started in a programme and then a new child comes, and if another one comes they join in. They are not progressing enough so we are going to have two groups around school, where the newcomers will go
Play teams, jigsaws and construction are cooperative learning groups. As the names imply, pupils work together to help each other in cooperative learning. According to Sapon-Shevin (2010), of the many structured systems of cooperative learning, one method, called Jigsaw, involves dividing the material to be learnt into five or six parts and assigning students to heterogeneous five or six-member teams.

During the researcher’s classroom observation of year five pupils, desks and tables were gathered in groups of four so that the pupils could easily work together. Each group had a leader. The location and distribution of the instructional materials were often managed by groups rather than individually. The pupils do more of the team work and each of them learns from each other’s ideas and explanations when each group reports back to the whole class.

Although this strategy allows EU migrant pupils to take control of their learning, it requires resources in terms of advanced planning, organisation, time and the extensive use of teaching assistants. Where financial resources towards enhancing learning for this category of pupils are being withdrawn by the present coalition government such as EMAG funding, schools have difficulty continuing to implement such strategy.

Moreover, Julius Dixon, the head teacher, had already mentioned the additional pressures on producing resources for lesson differentiation due to the complexities in the composition of EU migrant pupils (standards vs. inclusion, Chapter 6). At this point, institutional theorists such as Meyer and Rowan (1983, p90) posit that actions by the schools are sacred rituals that give meaning to the whole enterprise both internally and externally. Interactions in school systems therefore are characterised by both the assumption of good faith and the actualities of decoupling. Although Ashberg School continues to work out ways of teaching and learning under these conditions (lack of resources, a wide spectrum of abilities etc.), there still exists the taken for granted belief that schools are achieving inclusion. Anna McCulloch shared her thoughts on this:
TAs will find out what these EU migrant pupils need and can take the children out of the classroom sometimes. There are certain things you can do in the classroom. Any creative work with the support which all the children can access is very difficult to carry out in the classroom. Yes it is difficult; we are all making it up. There is no model to copy, the situations are different, we have always had a high number of EAL but we have not had these number EU migrant children who have not been to school before.

As much as schools try to work out groupings for EU migrant pupils whilst working towards inclusion and standards, they are being challenged about the ideal way to meet their needs. In some cases, the teachers have to set up activities but work within their own limits in terms of the financial and human resources available to them.

Similarly, at Birkhead School, there are no set criteria for within-class ability groupings for all pupils, including EU migrants. The within-class ability groupings practised are flexible and occur in the classrooms depending on the lesson or what the class teacher wants to achieve during the classroom activity. The scenario during the researcher's classroom observation at Birkhead School depicts whole class grouping at the beginning and end of each lesson. The whole class group is mixed ability. The researcher's impression is that the class teacher has been able to engage all pupils as a result of the effects of the PTP approach, discussed earlier (Section 7.1 above):

There appeared to be no such thing as "individual work". Interestingly enough, the EU migrants seemed to have fully bought into this style of group-learning and participated in the many exchanges that occurred as the lesson progressed. One difference between this Hungarian female and her Asian classmates was observed; she did not let them correct her – only the teacher was allowed to do this. For their part, the pupils corrected each other with glee and appeared to enjoy the feedback their classmates provided. Through speaking with the teacher, I learnt that aside from the English pupils in the class, most of the children did not know any English at the beginning of the school year (Extracts classroom observation, Birkhead School).

With their personal experience of teaching, teachers use whole class grouping to present knowledge, set learning objectives, recap the previous lesson, draw out existing
knowledge and introduce new materials followed by examples. The new materials learnt will also be recAPPED at the end of the lessons. Such a classroom scenario at Birkhead School benefits the teachers as they feel they have complete control of the classroom and the class teacher organises group work as the need arises during lessons. Diversity among pupils has also created the heterogeneous groups necessary for classroom learning and activity. Underpinning Birkhead School, whole class grouping is their PTP approach and the use of nurture units (Section 7.1). Hence, with these background practices in place, the classroom is conducive for teachers to practise whole class grouping.

On the other hand, the ability grouping found to exist in Frontier School is a system of separating EAL pupils into different groups based on performance. Each year group has six groups of English learners, where group one is the highest ability and group six is the lowest ability. A new EU migrant is assigned initially to the lowest continuum of groups and progresses to the top group. Felicita Czarnecka, the head of languages notes that:

*There are six groups across every year group, group one is the highest ability group, and group six is the lowest ability group. As they progress with the language and they access the curriculum, they also go up in the National Curriculum levels they are moved also in these groups up.*

Although the existing group is attainment oriented, all of the groups access the same curriculum with some modifications. Hence, Felicita Czarnecka notes:

*For example, in communications, we were doing it a little bit modified, a little bit simplified and at a slower pace. So my scheme of work is a bit more stretched in time than the main stream scheme of work.*

The researcher’s experience of separating groups in that way intensifies the inferiority complex among students. Having worked with a similar group as a teacher, pupils often see themselves as a group who have no aspirations, like their counterparts. Recalling an incident of encouraging or trying to encourage a student, she referred to herself as a never do well. Sometimes others perceive them that way. Hence, ability grouping may have an effect on the pupils' perception of themselves and the attitude of others (pupils and teachers) towards them. In support, Pallas *et al.* (1994, p28) suggest that, from the
standpoint of ability groups as institutionalized educational categories, students in high ability groups learn more because they are more motivated to learn than the students in lower-ability groups, in light of the future high-status placements and rewards they anticipate. Hence, the ability groupings in Frontier School may not be flexible enough and suggest the reproduction of the notion of education rather than solving the immediate needs of inclusion and standards.

In contrast, at Westend School, there is flexibility in grouping pupils working within the classroom, depending on the nature of work by each individual teacher, which seems to suggest within class grouping. Every EU migrant pupil is treated as an individual with their own individual learning differences. They adopt individualised instruction through their use of an individualised education plan (IEP):

*We cannot have mixed levels like we always have; it’s an individualised thing, setting individual targets, different targets for different students (Connie Sharp, TA, Westend School).*

Individualised or personalised learning, according to Sebba *et al.* (2007), entails deep learning facilitated by teaching assistants or learning mentors. Given the background of the EU migrant pupils, it is a big challenge for teachers to adopt individualised learning in terms of taking the time to cater for all such pupils individually. The targets could be set but meeting the targets is a challenge to the teachers' time. There might be administrative distractions on the part of the teachers. In some cases, the IEPs may serve as symbolic evidence of inclusion to Ofsted inspectors.

It is, however, important to note that no matter what grouping is used for pupils, they are not a homogenous group and should not be treated as such. These pupils, therefore, still need that individual attention especially the EU migrant pupils who are at risk of being overshadowed in the groups.

The analysis of the ability groupings in the case study schools show that different practices exist in the schools. Although this is the case, ability grouping is a common practice in schools to organise teaching and learning.
(2002), this configuration is so normal and so well-established in our schools that it is unusual to ask about its rationale or to question its appropriateness. Different methods of grouping may have an impact on the pupils, and schools as institutional organisations are guided by their choices according to the choices and benefits embedded in the environment. In other words, the decisions that the schools make regarding groupings emanate from the ideas and rational actions or cues that they pick up from their environment.

Institutional theorists such as Meyer and Rowan (1977, p352) propose that organisations that incorporate societal legitimated rationalised elements into their formal structures maximise their legitimacy and increase their resources and survival capabilities. Hence, schools at all times navigate the web of environmental pressures as their survival depends on their ability to do so.

Additionally, another form of grouping existing at both Frontier and Westend schools is known as the special programme group. These schools are secondary schools. The special programme groups are created to teach EU migrant pupils vocational skills to enhance their employability as some of them may not be sufficiently prepared to sit the final GCSE examinations. For instance, Felicita Czarnecka, head of languages at Frontier school, explains that:

*We have a special programme for ICT for small groups of students. Because we know that they might be unable to do GSCEs, some students who joined in year nine and year ten probably will not be able to do GCSEs in ICT but may be able to access another kind of qualification. We just have another kind of lower level but with their language they still can achieve this.*

Similarly, Asiya Abadi, inclusion coordinator at Westend School, confirms that:

*We target mainly those literacy based subjects, maths, English and science first and then we check the term time from the exam point of view where we can get more outcomes, positive outcomes like art, e-learning and if it is coming quite late and we cannot establish their literacy level for the child to achieve in English then the child can do art GCSE, can do GCSE in his own first language, communication level one or level two ICT or an ECDL course here. If they pass, they are given the next chance. So flexible courses are available to them so we*
actually work out plans for each individual to gain something and to gain the potential within the time they are with us.

The timing of the arrival of EU migrant pupils to the school during term time could be a challenge for the schools and the pupil in terms of catching up with final examinations. These are considered challenges to the schools. Hence, Connie sharp, a TA at Westend School, notes that:

_We are piloting different things when we are thinking of different things we have to do with these children. We are piloting what we call the ASDAN qualification which is a programme that all our year 10 and 11 will be doing. It is very sort of functional. It is a portfolio based thing. We found out about the Edexcel ESOL for schools qualifications, which was probably the most beneficial. We have tried different things which have not worked and so we are sticking with the Edexcel qualification now in what we do in school for the EAL pupils. (Connie Sharp, TA)_

ASDAN (Award Scheme Development and Accreditation Network) is a pioneering curriculum development organisation and awarding body, offering programmes and qualifications that explicitly grow skills for learning, skills for employment and skills for life. While the first cycle schools (Birkhead and Ashberg) are concentrating on seeking and developing resources for the EU migrant pupils to learn English language to enable them to adjust to teaching and learning in the classroom, the second cycle schools (Frontier and Westend) are seeking flexible courses (vocational) to enable EU migrant pupils to make the transition to jobs after compulsory education.

Nash (1990) notes that a school system that is controlled by the socially and culturally dominant classes, it is supposed, will perceive students who possess the habitus of the dominant classes as evidence of a ‘readiness’ for school knowledge. On the other hand, they perceive students who possess the habitus of the dominated classes as evidence of a deficit in the child or the home, such as cultural deprivation, rather than as an indication of a deficiency on the part of the school to develop pedagogic practices that are responsive to the mental formation and behavioural dispositions that such children bring to school.

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Organising flexible-skill programmes for EU migrant pupils in schools, although intended to be beneficial for their future work life, may suggest a deficit approach to the inclusion of migrants in education. Where this is the case, EU migrant pupils may have little or no opportunities to advance in education. It is also an easy option for teachers as they can channel pupils at risk to such programmes rather than working out strategies to help them to master the core curriculum subjects which add to the league tables.

7.5 Summary

Similar to the previous Chapters 5 and 6, the analysis of this chapter reveals the following insights:

Over the years, schools have been trying out different best practices, such as theme and topic based curriculums, creative curriculums, partnership teaching, cooperative learning, etc. These pedagogical strategies are seen as best practices (Birkhead School). Also, these are noted in Adesope et al. (2011). These best practices are prepared by agencies or external experts and either commercialised or promoted through educational organisations. So far, no study in the literature has mentioned the best approaches for the inclusion of EU migrant pupils. The findings of this study indicate novel practices such as:

The teaching, pre-teaching and post-teaching (PTP) approach emanating from schools that have been tried and observations carried out during the study that seems to work for the school. This has been tailored to suit the instruction for the migrant pupils. The study found some advantages that could be associated with this when used in practice:

- Can be effective when TAs do not sit with pupils in the classroom
- Gives pupils the confidence to sit in the classroom and take control of their learning
- Minimises or eliminates pull-out programmes
- Enhances the ability of teachers to take effective control of a diverse classroom
LOVE writing is an effective method for reading learning for EU migrants. Love writing is a practice involving giving pupils children's book to read after school and allowing the pupils to write what they have learnt from the books and sharing these with the class every other day.

There are other inconsistences within practices (Westend School), such as the use of IEP where the school practice combines the service model of inclusion. IEPs were designed by teachers with or without parents as part of the meeting. Targets for EU migrant pupils are not always based on formative assessment but also on individual teachers' professional judgement which raises the question of how positive outcomes can be measured given the inconsistency in practice.

In the primary schools in this study (Birkhead and Ashberg), nurture groups are created to enhance inclusion in the area of behavioural issues. As a result of the fact that some EU pupils 'who have never been to school' are sent there to acquire the cultural capital needed to function in the school, it may create a deficit notion in these pupils by the teachers which may affect the attitude of the other pupils towards them. Skills' training is popular among the secondary schools of the study (Frontier School and Westend School) to serve the needs of EU migrant pupils who may be unable to achieve academically due to constraints in terms of time, their economic and financial disposition and behavioural issues.

The study also considered classroom grouping and between class grouping, as a result of the wide range of skills and abilities among the EU migrants who include pupils who have never been to school before their arrival in the UK system, leading to this call for resources in terms of materials and funding which are reportedly insufficient in schools.

It was also found that the PTP approach enhanced the whole classroom grouping, as observed by the researcher. However the nature of performance grouping found in other
schools indicates an institutional category whereby higher performers are grouped differently from low performers, which may affect motivation.

The results also show that the skill learning groups used as ability groupings in the secondary schools have no designated curriculum for teaching and assessment but, rather, the schools try to find a way to make sense of what to deliver. The implication is that there may be inconsistencies as schools are subjected to a position of endlessly searching for best practices that may or may not suit the group. For instance, Westend School admitted to having tried all sorts of curriculums over time, including ASDAN, as mentioned above.

In general, this research study has illuminated the challenges, inconsistencies and fruitful practices that the schools have faced with regard to the inclusion of EU migrants. These results, together with those analysed previously in Chapter 6 will be brought together in the next chapter, Chapter 8, in order to link them with the research objectives and questions.
Chapter 8 - Critical discussion of research findings

8.1 Introduction

This chapter integrates the key themes identified in the literature review in Chapter 2 and the results of the empirical study presented in Chapters 5-7. The key arguments of this discussion focus on: (a) the processes for including EU migrant pupils; (b) the challenges faced by teachers and their leaders in schools; and (c) suggestions about fruitful methods to promote the inclusion of migrant pupils. It debates the effects of the present practices of inclusion and standards on EU migrant pupils and schools. The chapter is structured into three sections. The first section is linked to objective 1 and research question 1. Similarly, the second section is linked to objective 2 and research question 2 of the second stage study. The third section shows, in Figure 8.1, the remodelling of the conceptual framework of the study, the integration of the understanding and contributions of the key arguments from the literature and data analysis in this study and, finally, the chapter summary

8.2 How do school leaders and teachers view their task of inclusion?

Reports of emotional and behavioural disorder and low levels of attainment as a result of the increase in diversity were noted in Birkhead School (Ofsted 2002). Ashberg School’s head teacher mentioned similar emotional and behavioural issues among EU migrant pupils. There are also instances of related issues exhibited by pupils at Westend School during my observation, as mentioned earlier in Chapter 7. The situation in schools indicates that they were inadequately prepared for pupil diversity in terms of leadership and material resources. The findings indicated that the leadership structures were changing to accommodate the increasingly complex situation. The following sections discuss in detail issues related to school leaders and their inclusion task.
**Approach to inclusion (broad and narrow)**

As noted in the study, some schools redefined the leadership position by adopting either the traditional single headship model with distributive characteristics (several departmental heads) or co-leadership. The moves to re-organise leadership to accommodate inclusion can be meaningfully explained in terms of sense-making to tackle the increasing complexity in schools in terms of the inclusion of migrant pupils brought about by the shifting emphasis of the government’s education policy (inclusion and raising standards).

While school leaders are more inclined to attend to strategic aspects of their job than day to day inclusion, distributive leadership or co-leadership gives an opportunity for leadership for inclusion. Hence, all of the schools have a designated staff member who is an inclusion leader or co-ordinator. The teachers believe that the strategy of distributive leadership will facilitate achievement for EU migrant pupils. Although this was the case, their understanding and commitment to inclusion was vital to their position.

The tilt towards distributed leadership can be attributed to a need to meet the joint demands of inclusion and standards. This finding corroborates the ideas of Spillane (2006) who suggested that the distributed perspective on leadership is grounded in activity rather than in position or role.

While some head teachers see inclusion from a broader perspective, others perceive it from a narrow angle. This may be attributed to the ongoing debate whereby inclusion is a vague, problematic concept which supports a similar claim by Gallannaugh and Dyson (2003). In the broad perspectives, it was seen from the functional and personality view. The functional view perceives it as a 'seamless pathway' while the personality view is of an 'inclusion champion'. A common understanding for both perspectives is that inclusion is rooted within both the schools and the community. This means that both sides must work together before inclusion can be achieved for migrant EU migrant pupils.

Ainscow *et al.* (2006) note that effective inclusion is a commitment to inclusive values, such as equity, participation, community, compassion, respect for diversity, sustainability
and entitlement. The head teacher of school A (Julia Roberz) in the study demonstrated this commitment by establishing relationships with the families in the community and visiting their native country. Julius Dixon, head teacher at Ashberg School, claims to be an inclusion 'champion' and continually liaises with the LA about strategic inclusion decisions. He also presents his intentions at the strategic level for recognition and to be used as an inclusion model school.

From the institutional perspectives, Hallet (2010) notes that legitimacy is a means of gaining resources through the actions of the head teacher by doing what the LA expects on policy. Julius may be seeking legitimacy for his continued quest to become an inclusion champion because his school has a high number of EU migrant pupils and is struggling to ensure high standards for everyone (Chapter 6, league tables extract). He wants inclusion recognition because legitimacy is perceived as a means to an end. As Suchman (1995, p574) indicated, organisations wishing to perpetuate themselves must, as a necessity, be concerned with ensuring that the public discerns them to be acting in a 'proper, or appropriate' manner.

On the other hand, some head teachers took a narrow view of inclusion and work within the limits of the school environment. For instance, Kathy Boulevard, head teacher of school A (first stage study), referenced the use of pastoral staff to answer any questions that the migrant parents in the community may have and is not keen to go beyond that. Although head teachers and teachers may show some signs of commitment, the essence of restructuring the leadership for inclusion in schools is to engage a leadership for inclusion with the unique role of helping the pupils, staff, and parents to think and act more inclusively and guide the EU migrant pupils to achieve like other pupils. Hence, effective inclusion may be determined by the level of participation, as the constant interaction of teachers with pupils gives a practical picture of day-to-day inclusion. This is also Gillborn's view (1995) that, if inclusion is to be successfully promoted in schools, then it must become firmly entrenched in the day-to-day activities.
**Loose coupling and policy perspectives**

Although the coalition government shifted emphasis from inclusion to standards; as mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, Ainscow *et al.* (2006) in their study point to the fact that standards were a major force in shaping the direction of schools. The schools in the study seem insufficiently prepared to cope with the societal expectations about standards. While emphasis has shifted from inclusion to raising standards, the schools in the study are still grappling with the inclusion of the increasing number of migrant pupils. The teachers' classroom interactions with pupils are remotely determined by what happens in the league tables. Teaching and learning activities are determined by the best practices suggested by the National curriculum strategy and Ofsted, with little or no input from the teachers and their leaders. Also, the schools' position amongst its peers on the league tables is quantitatively determined (Section 6.4). This suggests signs of disconnection between policy and practice. This study, however, shows that a lack of involvement by the school leaders and teachers in policy decisions indicates a disconnection between policy and practice.

**Schools and loosely coupled structures**

It was found that, while the pupils' composition was changing, there were also gradual changes to staff composition. Some head teachers fired staff based on their unacceptable attitude towards migrant pupils and their parents, while others decided to incorporate diverse staff into their fold in the form of diverse teaching staff and TAs to manage inclusion. These staff members play a vital role as language interpreters and cultural bridges for the schools. There is some evidence to suggest that schools appointed ethnic minority teachers to lead inclusion. Out of the 7 case study schools for both first and second stages of the study, 4 inclusion leaders are minorities. These minority inclusion leaders see their position as a way to identify with the EU migrant pupils because of their similar experiences as migrants to the UK and, in all cases; they initiated a ‘one-stop support centre’ in their school. This loose structure exists to manage EU migrant families.
According to Bennett (1995), diverse culturally responsive teachers are comfortable with their students' diverse styles. They are also inter-culturally competent, meaning that they are aware of the diversity within the ethnic, language, and cultural groups; they know that culture is an ever-evolving phenomenon; and are mindful of the dangers of stereotyping. These teachers, in their own right, may have experienced discrimination at some point in their profession. Bush, Glover and Sood (2007) concluded, from their research on ethnic minority leaders in England, that it remains clear that the majority of all of these (British Minority Ethnic) BME leaders have experienced racism and discrimination. This agrees with the views of the minority inclusion leaders in the case study schools, who defined their role as bridging the gap in culture between the migrant families and the school, and settling-in EU migrant pupils while considering their individual needs and fostering an inclusive culture among the rest of the staff. They try to meet the needs of the EU migrant pupils and balance professionalism.

Research on the perceptions of teaching professionalism by ethnic minority teachers carried out by Cunningham and Hargreaves (2007) affirms that the ethnic minority teachers felt that they had a pivotal role to play in the academic and social development of minority ethnic pupils and also in the cultural awareness of white pupils and teaching colleagues. Similarly, Carrington and Skelton (2010) agree with this point that ethnic minority teachers provide the required role models in schools for those groups that are likely to experience educational failure and disaffection. Bricheno and Thornton (2008) rejected this claim in their research on UK pupils, noting that there was no indication that children see their teachers as role models; instead, celebrities are role models for pupils not teachers (Irvine 1989).

Having ethnic minority teachers as role models may not be enough reason for delegating them as inclusion leaders; however, the inclusion leader at Westend School, Adeela Saliba, confirmed that she takes EU migrant pupils to external LA functions to meet accomplished men and women from a similar background in society to serve as their role models. On the other hand, the idea of making minority teachers inclusion leaders sits
well with Weick's identity frame of sense-making, emphasising that individuals see things depending on whom they are (Weick 1995, p18).

Assessing the loose structure further, the inclusion the response for EU migrant pupils in all of the case study schools and the relationship with EU migrant pupils and their families with the ‘special project’ and ‘one-stop support centre’ approaches (Chapters 5 and 6) were patchy. The ‘special project’ approach failed outright while ‘a one-stop centre’ is not a formal structure within the school, but loose standing and, at the same time, closing that gap in schools’ efforts to reach out to the EU migrant families within the community. Inclusion leaders attempt to build a relationship and trust, although it remains unclear how far they succeed in meeting the needs of the EU migrant pupils and their families. These structures were organised by the schools and lacked long-term goals and sustainability. According to Weick (1976), loose coupling in an organisation simultaneously prevents standardisation and serves the function of adjusting easily to the local conditions. These structures were temporary solutions that fail in the absence of the inclusion leaders who instituted them.

*Teachers' experiences, beliefs and values*

The current study found that the teachers' experiences, beliefs and values are vital to the position of leading for inclusion. Leading for inclusion sometimes requires on the spot decision making, the application of previous experience and knowledge of policies and practices. The results indicate that the teachers use professional and sometimes intuitive judgement as the need arises; for instance, in the academic placement and progression of EU migrant pupils. This implies a weakness in the assessment system in schools for migrants and points to subjectivity in the judgement about the migrant pupils' academic future.

The findings also indicate that there is interplay between cultural deficit and cultural difference in the attitude of the teachers towards the inclusion of EU migrant pupils within the case study schools. Cultural deficit is the notion that students from minority ethnic groups regularly fail in school because of the culture in which they are raised.
rather than the culture within the school, while cultural difference assumes that ethnic minority students often fail because they have different values than those of the school rather than because they are culturally deficient (Banks 1994).

The head teachers and inclusion coordinators from the case study schools mentioned the mobile nature of the pupils, together with their poor literacy, and social and emotional skills as major challenges for inclusion. The EU, especially the Roma group, was specifically mentioned in all of the schools as a group that possess these qualities. Ella Wellman, director of teaching and learning at Birkhead School, attributed mobility to their culture, while Julius Dixon, head teacher at Ashberg School, attributed the poor literacy skills to their mother tongue. The inclusion coordinators at Frontier and Westend schools attributed these issues to the socio-economic status of the families of the pupils. This compares to the findings of Bhopal (2011) that teachers' own prejudice and stereotyping of the EU Roma group were apparent, as the teachers expressed their views on them, often, which focused on their behaviour despite positive practices and impacts of policies.

This finding also supports Constant et al.'s (2009) findings about the negative and discriminatory attitude towards migrants, noting that schools in the UK are not exempt from displaying such an attitude in peer, teacher or institutional relationships. In many cases, the school leaders' perspectives are too narrow, failing to reject 'deficit thinking' about ethnic minority students in favour of positive 'capacity building' strategies (Walker, 2004:18). This form of thinking, however, influences teachers' expectation of pupils. Ainscow (2005:13) indicated that teaching and learning are likely to be ineffective if handled by teachers who still harbour such a mentality.

While cultural dissonance was expressed when referring to the Roma group, words like 'bright' were applied to other EU migrants (Devine, Kenny and MacNeela 2002). It can be inferred that not all EU migrant pupils at school are the same or have similar needs. While some have behavioural or emotional issues, others do not have such problems; hence, the case study schools' teachers may be generalising issues about EU migrant pupils. In the light of this, perceiving EU migrants from this perspective has far-reaching
effects for both the schools and the pupils, such as low academic expectations, and may even impact upon the relationship between the schools and the migrant families within the community. In support of this, researchers have found that the way teachers perceive their linguistically diverse learners directly affects the way that teachers teach those students as well as the students' attitudes about themselves (Flores 2001; Pajares 1992). However, the implication of the deficient perspectives of the EU migrant pupils by the teachers is that these pupils are seen as pupils who need to imbibe the right culture within society; hence, when some policies and practices fail to work for these pupils, schools are blindsided, attributing failure to the pupils, their background and their families rather than the system's weakness.

Similarly, findings on pupil mobility have indicated that teachers mention a high frequency of mobility among EU migrant pupils. The Ofsted reports, shown in Table 6.3, confirm the low level of attendance among EAL pupils. The report indicated that attendance levels at Birkhead and Ashberg schools are low as a result of pupil mobility; however, Frontier and Westend Schools are improving. The school leaders and teachers at these schools emphasised the administrative inconvenience for the schools as effects of pupil mobility within the school. Julius Dixon, head teacher at Ashberg School, mentioned issues such as; the time lost on interviewing the migrants and repetition of the admission processes; the cost of management paperwork; the development of further teaching resources; the loss of a pupil premium from the government; and difficulties in working out strategies for teaching and learning within the classroom. Frontier and Westend schools' inclusion coordinators expressed similar views. These views agree with Strand and Demie's (2007, p329) resource implications of mobility.

Other effects upon the EU migrant pupils which may be social impacts, as mentioned by Julius Dixon, head teacher at Ashberg School, include the effects of the loss of social relationships already established with other pupils, a lack of continuity in the same system, and a time lapse in education. Machin, Telhaj and Wilson (2006) agree with this view on pupils' mobility, noting that they are more socially disadvantaged than non-mobile pupils.
Financial support management

The findings indicate that the pattern of funding for schools is changing and affecting the spending on the numbers of TAs employed to assist EU migrant pupil's inclusion. The case study schools make the point that funding determines the numbers of TAs needed for inclusion and, the higher the number, the better. Recently, coalition government has changed the funding allocation to schools. While the school funding per pupil is flat (the same for every pupil), the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant (EMAG) has been withdrawn (Jarrett and Bolton 2012, p12). However, a flat-rate pupil premium has been introduced instead (Chapter 6). Hence, funds may be channelled away from inclusion. The point being raised here is that an English pupil from a deprived background in school has a better opportunity than a migrant pupil in a similar situation, and hence acts as a reminder of class inequality within the society.

While the EMAG in the old system was particularly earmarked for the minority pupils, the new premium system does not specify the allocation criteria for pupils and, instead, the head teachers are encouraged to use it for the improvement of poorer pupils within the schools, and this makes it easier for the head teachers to channel these funds away from their intended use. Unless the funding is ring-fenced and spending monitored as its predecessor EMAG, head teachers will continue to use their own discretion to reallocate it. Schools could devote the funding to other areas of priority and this defeat the aim of funding for inclusion and raising standards. In support, Gillborn (2005) shares a similar view in his analysis of education policy in England that:

'Although race inequity may not be a planned and deliberate goal of education policy, neither is it accidental. The patterning of racial advantage and inequity is structured in domination, and its continuation represents a form of tacit intentionality on the part of white power holders and policy-makers. It is in this sense that education policy reforms are an act of white supremacy'.

In a similar study by Cowther, Dyson and Milward (1998) on the cost and outcomes for pupils with Moderate Learning Difficulties (MLD) by identifying the resources deployed and calculating their cost, including a survey of the literature on the outcomes of these
pupils found that there is much less literature, which relates outcomes to costs. Currently, schools are being accused by Ofsted chief inspector Michael Wilshaw of diverting the funds to other projects, such as the infrastructure (BBC Sept., 2012). While much attention is focused on making provision to meet the needs, less attention is focused on the efficiency, equitability and effectiveness of the resourcing pattern.

**Continuous Professional development (CPD)**

Evidence from the case study indicated that all of the study schools engage in within school training for the TAs and staff briefing for other staff on issues of diversity teaching and learning. There are no indications that external training or conference attendance is mandatory for teachers. For instance, Noemi Belak, head of languages at Frontier School, confirmed that attending external training is left to the teachers to find suitable ones and put in a formal request. Also, Thomas Minton (Senior Manager at LA minority service) explained that a diversity conference organised by the LA for teachers has been discontinued to make way for schools' individual training requests. Although there is evidence of within school training, it may be likened to a closed system activity or recycling of their existing knowledge and practices.

The cost of CPDs may have a bearing on schools' budget and make it imperative to emphasise more on internal CPDs. A similar view is shared by Bubb and Earley (2006) in examining how schools in England ensure ongoing CPD for teachers, using a survey of CPD co-coordinators. Their report indicated that schools differ in their approaches in requests for CPD by teachers, such as individual requests, line manager requests or the use of staff committees, and also the cost of CPD competes with other management matters such as school improvement.

However, Elmore and Burney (1997) favour the idea of making professional development the central focus of the management and core strategy for school improvement. Students' learning will be enhanced by educators seeking to continue to develop professionally. It could be argued that other reasons could be a lack of funds (as
discussed in the funding section above) and the recent reduction in the influence of LAs on schools.

In effect, standards cannot be left alone to be determined by scores and league tables as a result of the quality of the educational experience the EU migrant pupils receive. Instead, teachers' professionalism and knowledge of multiculturalism need to be enhanced. This could be done as a system of professional accountability whereby teachers have to take seriously their own professional growth. School leaders and teachers could also draw on local university support for training and development in areas where the school is doing less well, such as teaching practices and strategies.

If this is done, it will provide a foundation for professional expertise that can ensure success for other organisational policies and practices, such as an analysis of student achievement results, better evaluations of students' achievements, the tracking of the progress of pupils' English learning ability and aligning expectations and assessments with high standards for teachers.

8.3 To what extent does the legislation and school policy enhance inclusivity for EU migrant pupils?

The schools also responded to issues of inclusion and standards among the EU migrant pupils through behaviour intervention programmes and pedagogical strategies. Nurture groups and social-skills training are emotional and behaviour intervention practices used to address such concerns among the EU migrant pupils in the schools. Nurture groups were mainly used by the primary schools (Birkhead and Ashberg). These have proven successful for them, as confirmed in their Ofsted reports (2008). In line with research conducted by Colwell and O'Connor (2003), the practices of nurturing while comparing normal classrooms and nurture groups confirm that the communications of normal classroom teachers were found to be less likely to create an environment that is conducive to fostering positive self-esteem.
In the case study schools, the interviewees reported effective communication between the nurture groups' leaders and the mainstream staff. In the secondary schools (Frontier and Westend), social-skill training was used as they are believed that this can address emotional and behavioural issues. Nevertheless Adeela Saliba, inclusion coordinator at Westend School, hinted that social-skills training is organised as the need arises.

The view contested is that social-skills training is provided when needed by the schools and so the progress tracking may lack continuity. Forness and Kavale (1999) and Quinn et al. (1999) have argued that social-skills training sometimes lacks sufficient empirical support, and those secondary students with emotional and behavioural difficulties are unlikely to respond favourably to even the most well-conceptualised, well-planned, and well-delivered programmes. In support, Tierney and Dowd (2000) note that, while the social-skills group can be effective in providing support for young people, schools need continued support to develop the confidence to run them successfully.

**Pedagogical strategies**

Adeela Saliba, Westend School’s inclusion leader, explained that these practices were applied at the initial stages of language learning, and that they are being very careful about how they work out the pull-out time because they do not want to be seen to be failing to abide by the mainstreaming principles. The effectiveness of any strategy lies in the quality of its implementation. Both practices require collaboration between teachers and TAs, plus changes to the classroom teaching strategies and attitudes of the teachers towards EU migrant pupils.

The difference in practice among the schools is that, at Birkhead School, their PTP approach facilitates the work of the TAs. While Ashberg School uses TAs within classroom work with pupils during lessons, Westend School uses roving TAs, meaning that a pupil needing assistance during lessons may or may not get one. Some researchers, such as Begoray (2001) who studied effective pull-out programmes for struggling pupils in reading, found that pull-out programmes are productive but that certain criteria must be
met, such as teaching in small groups, the provision of enough materials to support the teachers and supporting the teachers' belief in their pupils' ability to learn.

However, given that the scenario of mainstreaming and pull-out programmes exists in schools, there are suggestions that the schools may lack resources, such as sufficient TAs, and so resort to using 'roving TAs'. Moreover, there may be fewer provisions made for variations in teaching strategies within the classrooms, while at the same time demonstrating compliance to mainstreaming to the detriment of the pupils it is meant to serve. In light of this, Scott and Meyer (1991, p123) suggest that 'individual organizations must conform to elaborate rules and institutional scripts if they are to receive support and legitimacy'. Hence, the taken-for-granted attitude towards mainstreaming shown by the teachers and the belief, as far as the schools are concerned, that every EU migrant must be seen as being mainstreamed.

In addition, the practices in the schools show that it revolves around the continual incorporation of best practices emanating from the external agencies, such as the DFES National Strategies, over time to tackle inclusion and standards. Such practices include a topic and theme-based approaches, creative curriculum, and core subject emphasis - English, Maths and Science (Chapter 7). Some critics, such as Coffield and Edward (2009), think that the intensely complex processes of learning and transfer are considered a simple matter of delivering packets of 'good practice' to professionals, who apparently digest them without difficulty and then pass them on to colleagues who absorb them with similar ease.

Schools' historical documents show that, over time, all of the schools in the case study have adopted one or more best practices and abandoned them for another. In DFES research on the transfer of good practices, Fielding et al. (2004, p58) criticised the assumption that good practices can easily be identified and transferred, and further mentioned that the concept of common de-contextualised practice may be nothing more than a delusion. The point being suggested here is that the touted best practices may not work in the schools as a result of their context, the teachers and pupil diversity. Their adaptation challenges the professionalism of teachers in preparing for classroom teaching.
and learning. Nevertheless, schools scan inwards and work out practices for EU migrant pupils to enhance their learning. Birkhead and Ashberg schools developed their own practices, such as the PTP approach and LOVE writing, alongside the best practices. While the PTP approach serves as a cushion to all subjects for EU migrants, LOVE writing enhances fast literacy learning.

As much as these practices are being adapted by teachers, there seems to be no evaluation procedure over time in place to gauge the successes of these approaches. In such a situation, it is easy for the case study schools to abandon these approaches and continually seek new external best practices that do not work. There are also suggestions that can achieve change by communication through the formation of categories in sense-making, which helps them to connect with the external environment. Powell and Colyvas (2008, p24) claim that sense-making can be connected through the use of metaphors to offer meaning to daily activities, often by locating the past in present beliefs, values and everyday tasks.

This may explain the reason for the actions at Ashberg School to incorporate the metaphor 'make every lesson a language lesson', imitating industry's Total Quality Management (TQM) slogan of 'quality is everybody's business' (Townsend and Gerbhardt 2000). However, this adoption failed probably because the school did not fully adapt to underpinning the training needed before using such a slogan and following it up with quality management. It is important to note that, in all of case study schools, the teachers are active players, deciding how, when and why the practices can be adapted. Teachers bracket the flow of cues and the implementation of these strategies challenges their status and their professionalism. This also explains the underlying idea in Ashberg School for not adapting ICT fully into their teaching of EU migrants (Chapter 6), as they were probably not very well prepared to do so.

The case study findings on language learning indicate that concerns to mainstream EU migrant pupils tend to take priority over the monitoring and progress tracking of their performance. It is important to note that mainstreaming is a big issue for inclusion. Schools strive to show at the surface level that every EU migrant pupil is absorbed into
the mainstream. Whatever happens after that is controlled by the teachers. This is enough for the external authorities to understand that no migrant child is left out of the mainstream. It is a way for schools seek to show that they abide by formal expectations. Suchman (1995, p574) notes that legitimacy is a generalised perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially-constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions (Chapter 2). Binkerhoff (2005) extends this further by adding that organisations that adhere to societal expectations (regarding the mission, actions, structure, performance, and so on), and build an on-going reputation for their appropriateness and correctness, are viewed as trustworthy and reliable, which contributes to their being accorded legitimacy. These expectations can be explicit or formal, established by governments and legal frameworks, or informal and implicit, emerging from deep, widely-diffused shared meanings within societies.

What seems to take place in the case study schools is that, while every child has to be mainstreamed, teachers are concerned with accelerating their progress by settling them into the mainstream classroom once they start picking up English language. This is an issue for concern because this is mainly based on professional judgement and, in some cases, without reference to any concrete qualitative or quantitative performance data evidence. A case in point is Asiya Abadi’s admittance that mistakes in professional judgement do happen while placing a child in the appropriate classroom.

While Birkhead and Ashberg schools leave the progress tracking in language learning of the EU migrant pupils to be subsumed into the classroom tests and assessment, Frontier and Ashberg schools are compelled to track the language progress through cluster schools’ Mapping Attainment Grade (MAG). Hence, the legitimacy of the schools’ procedures lies in their conformity to procedures in contrast to their commitment to inclusion.

One of the arguments put forward by the coalition government is that accountability is critical for student performance (DFE, 2010, p6). Accountability takes the form of collecting and sharing data, providing feedback and making decisions based upon the
evidence received (PISA 2012). However, the processes of accountability that track incremental progress at this initial level for EU migrant pupils adds up to the GCSE and for decision making regarding their learning, but this tends to be overlooked. Unless the incremental progress for EU migrant pupils is monitored effectively, it creates a wide gap between day-to-day accountability that sums up to accountability on the league tables. Moreover, schools will lack qualitative and quantitative evidence for decision-making regarding the way forward for the processes of meeting the national target for these pupils. It also means that some professional judgements made regarding the progress of EU migrant pupils may sometimes continue to lack credibility.

The classroom ability grouping of EU migrants in schools was found to be of concern among the school leaders and teachers as a result of the wide spectrum of ability and mobility of EU migrants. The methods of grouping that were found to exist are within-class grouping and setting. Setting is a system of grouping pupils according to their abilities in specific subjects, i.e., they may be grouped differently in different areas within the curriculum, while within-class grouping involves small groups of pupils engaged in differentiated work.

The grouping practices in Birkhead, Ashberg and Westend schools were mainly within-class mixed ability groupings. Frontier School practises setting. The point of ability grouping in the case study schools is that the schools were looking for ways to fit the EU migrant pupils into the existing system of grouping in their schools. For instance, Ashberg School maintains two groups: one contains EU migrant pupils who arrive at intervals and the other regular pupils, as mentioned in Chapter 7. Language, mobility, and the emotional and behavioural issues associated with the EU migrants were the main underpinning issues in the quest for adequate grouping practices within the schools.

However, Birkhead School uses the PTP approach to serve as a cushion effect or a base to keep within-class mixed groupings. Anna McCulloch, the inclusion leader of Ashberg School confirms that maintaining two groups is a way of managing the effect of pupil mobility on the existing pupil group. Westend School practises within-class mixed
groupings but use a pull-out programme as a cushion effect for possible classroom disruption.

In Frontier School, setting helps to bring the low-achievers among the EU migrant pupils together in the lowest group, who are meant to be given extra attention by the inclusion leaders. This is also Kutnick et al.'s (2005a, p4) view that pupils from some minority ethnic groups and pupils with SEN are over-represented in the lower sets. In comparison, research by Kutnick et al. (2005b), in examining grouping in secondary schools and possible links between pedagogy and learning using the mapping method and interviews, found that, in within-class grouping, pupils showed little relationship to the learning task assigned but were organisationally related to the sequence of a lesson (opening, applied work, close). The purpose of classroom groupings is to enhance learning. It may not be of benefit for most EU migrant pupils to be grouped in the least achieving group as a result of language if they have the potential to achieve, considering the case of Ashberg School above. Previous research studies have failed to examine or, rather, have isolated the effects of language, emotional and behavioural issues in determining the within-class grouping practices/formation in diverse settings. This issue could strengthen the risk of failure for the EU migrants. In support, Webb, Baxter and Thompson (1997) argue that less is known about how the teachers group students, given the large variation in student composition between and within schools. Nor is it known when, why, or if the teachers’ grouping practices deviate from the recommended practices. Hence, it may be worth investigating further beyond the scope of this research.

8.4 Remodeling of the conceptual framework

The previous chapter, Chapter 2, of this study presented the conceptual framework which gave insights into major issues in the literature on the inclusion of EU migrants in education. This has guided the data analyses in Chapters 5-7. This section presents an integrative framework for this study as shown below:
The body of knowledge in this work spans two divides: the macro and micro environments of the research, as shown in Figure 8.1 above. Within the macro environment, there are three elements: government, intervention agencies and the schools. In the micro environment, the model looks at the cognitive and internal practices of teachers and school leaders, as well as changes and adjustments in the practices involved in dealing with the problems of inclusion across policy epochs. This micro environment consists of the behaviour of teachers (retention, selection and enactment).

A part of the problematisation of the research process lies in understanding the cross-cutting nature of coupling across these macro and micro domains. Within the government
education policies, where the model looks at inclusion, standards and accountability, the coupling issues involve ideas about shifting emphasis from inclusion to raising standards, perpetuating the beliefs and attitudes of the teachers and the non-clarity of the policy directions on accountability. More importantly, the shift in emphasis from inclusion to raising standards possibly implies that teachers and head teachers in managing inclusion may not get it right as a result of the difficulties of managing that transition. Loose coupling itself originally consists of elements of the incoherence of the policy, and the inability of the policy enactment to be cohesive across macro and micro domains.

Similarly, within the intervention agencies, loose coupling relates to this same incoherence amongst the intentions of the National Curriculum strategy (best practices and what works for schools), inspection, and league tables, which put pressure on the schools to achieve. The incoherence amongst these aspects, coupled with that already existing within the policy settings, is reinforced negatively by similar incoherence in the way that the teachers and head teachers manage these policies, which as a whole are linked to difficulties with sense-making (retention, selection and enactment) in the micro environment.

The contribution of this research to knowledge, therefore, theoretically consists of reinforcing the loose coupling elements to education problems by developing pathways for the coupling process with respect to inclusive education problems. These pathways should help schools integratively to manage the inclusive policies, articulate best practices from the original behaviour that teachers and head teachers manifest as they relate to school policies, and enable them to be in a stronger position given the result of the research to take account of the increasing emphasis on standards. It will also enable them to plan inclusion within the intervention agencies in such a way that Ofsted's emphasis on raising standards will not marginalise issues of inclusion for EU migrant pupils.

Within the school, this contribution to knowledge will enable the teachers to articulate how best leadership for inclusion can be improved vis-a-vis the different steps usually taken to achieve inclusion for migrants through retention, selection and enactment.
This is the first time that this integrated look at the inclusion problem across the shifting policy epochs is attempted within the UK.

8.5 Summary

Leadership change was important in bringing about changes to the uncertain situation of the EU migrant pupils in schools as a result of language, emotional and behavioural issues, causing a fall in the standards of their education.

The distributed and the single traditional leadership which were found to exist did create opportunities for leadership for inclusion. Leadership for inclusion, however, demands a commitment to inclusion values, as shared by Ainscow et al. (2006). All of the inclusion leaders exhibited the quality of commitment, especially the daily practices of inclusion. The head teacher found that alternating inclusion and school leadership deals more with the strategic issues of inclusion, then creates a gap in the practices of inclusion, as inclusion requires ‘quick hands-on decisions’ and the constant tracking of the EU migrant pupils. The ethnic minority teachers who were found to be leading inclusion are caught up in the dilemma of their own practices and professionalism.

Furthermore, differences still exist with regard to how teachers perceive EU migrant pupils. There is a common deficit in the discernment among the teachers, and the EU Roma group pupils were seen negatively. This could have stemmed from their historical past and could inhibit the inclusion efforts for these pupils. The perception of schools as a loosely coupled system, as identified by Weick (1982), may have contributed to the fragments of holistic inclusion practices found to exist within the schools. Inclusion leaders, however, tried to implement ‘a one-stop support centre’ for EU migrant pupils and families, but this was small-scale and fragile. This fragility depends on how the inclusion leaders manage it and the individual intentions of the families, as reported by Ashberg School’s leader (Julius Dixon), who linked it to the mobility of the EU migrant families and social services benefits in a negative way.
Pupil mobility among the EU migrant pupils was reported to be high in the schools, as confirmed by the teachers in the case study schools. However, the school leaders and teachers believe that inclusion and standards efforts will be best solved by funding and the recruitment of TAs to work among EU migrant pupils.

The current funding situation is not in favour of the schools as grants for Ethnic Minority Achievements have been discontinued, leaving them to work to a tight budget, based on a Dedicated School Grant (DSG) allocation per pupil and a pupil premium. A case in point regarding the premiums indicates that the school leaders and government disagree about the adequate utilisation of these, as the former have their own priorities over pupil priorities.

Schools made changes to their curricular and classroom practices as a response to inclusion and standards. EU migrant pupils in the primary schools with emotional and behavioural issues were placed in nurture groups while the secondary schools utilise skills training. Nurture groups seem to be successful, as reported in their Ofsted inspection records but questions still remain on the success of skills training in the areas of continuity and progress tracking. Issues related to mainstreaming and pull-out programmes were high as the schools worked carefully to use the inclusion only approach.

Although stifled by a lack of funding, as a way out, some schools worked out a way to help EU migrant pupils, such as by adopting the PTP approach and LOVE writing to facilitate their learning. On the other hand, the combined services approach conflicts with the schools' quest to put the pupils back into the mainstream as soon as they start grasping enough English language to manage on their own. Hence, the practice of either inclusion only or combined services depends upon the quality of the provision. While there are lapses in progress tracking and monitoring, as concerns about mainstreaming was a priority for schools, there were also questions about ability grouping practices as schools work to fit pupils into the existing grouping practices. This has brought up all manner of concerns about issues related to language, emotions and behaviour, and how these affects the criteria for grouping in schools.
Schools depend more on internal CPD than external training. Internal CPD among teachers portrays schools as a closed system. Given the complexity within the school system, there is a need to collaborate and network to come up with new ideas. The implementation of inclusion and ensuring standards in schools raises a lot of questions about how well the teachers and school leaders understand standards. If the teachers do understand standards, they will be a lot more innovative in their teaching to enable the migrant students to learn better. It will also help them to think outside the box to promote pupils’ well-being.

Insofar as inclusion and standards seem incompatible, standards cannot be de-emphasised to implement inclusion. If standards are less emphasised to implement inclusion, then EU migrant pupils will still suffer, as the teachers will relax their efforts, knowing that they will not be pressed to meet targets.

Finally, the framework ties together the findings of the study and the theory underpinning this study to outline its significant contributions to knowledge, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 9 discusses the implications from the findings for theory and practice as well as the study limitations.
Chapter 9 - Implications, recommendations, limitations and conclusion

9.1 Introduction

The main purposes of this exploratory qualitative study are to: (a) explore the processes for including EU migrant pupils; (b) assess the challenges and opportunities faced by teachers and their leaders in schools; and (c) suggest fruitful ways for the inclusion of migrant pupils. Overall, the study started with two objectives and three research questions for the first stage, which informed the second stage of the study (Sections 1.5 and 1.6). While the issue of diversity, inclusion policies, standards and accountability have been major issues for schools, the study has sought to examine schools' responses to inclusion, particularly that of EU migrant pupils, through leadership and the implementation of educational policies within the schools.

This chapter, however, brings together in the first section all of the main findings of the study in relation to its two key research questions, as mentioned above. The second section discusses the contributions to knowledge, while sections three and four present recommendations for policy and future research respectively, and section five concludes with the limitations to the study and, finally, my research journey.

9.2 Summary of the research outcomes related to the areas of enquiry

In order to answer the research questions and meet the objectives as referred to in Sections 1.5 and 1.6 of this study, we considered the increasing changing pupil composition in schools as an aftermath of the UK relaxing immigration controls on EU nationals in 2004. Other issues include the changing school leadership structure, the effects of inclusion and the pursuit of standards and accountability in relation to schools and EU migrant pupils. This was realised in the first stage of the study carried out in three schools, and the second stage carried out in four schools located within two LA in the north of England. Three theoretical concepts of institutional theory, such as loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making, were combined to explain the empirical findings.
The outcome of the analysis led to the answers to the questions, as already detailed in Chapter 8. These are summarised in this section as follows:

9.2.1 How do school leaders and teachers view their task of inclusion?

The schools in the study seemed inadequately prepared for the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in terms of material and human resources. However there were organisational and structural changes in the schools which meant a shift or navigation in an attempt to solve the uncertainties surrounding the inclusion of EU migrant pupils.

This interpretation of the findings revealed that the changing leadership is leading to schools adapting the traditional single headship with distributed leadership characteristics or co-headship, thereby making provision for leadership for inclusion.

There were broad and narrow views of inclusion among the head teachers. The head teachers and teachers with a broad view encourage community participation and are driven by the functional and personality motives of the school leaders, whereas those who held a more narrow view seem to go with the flow of the practices within the school environment. This finding strongly supports Riehl (2000), who identified the tasks of leading for inclusion, such as fostering new meanings about diversity; promoting inclusive practices and cultures; and developing relationships between schools and communities.

This research revealed the use of tacit knowledge or intuitive judgement in academic decisions (progression) for EU migrant pupils at times rather than formal quantitative or qualitative assessment of the school data, which may or may not exist. This issue feeds into the idea of sense-making among the teachers and their leaders on how they make decisions on the pupils’ progress.

The results indicate that teachers may be stereotyping these migrant pupils, especially the Roma group, based on their references and remarks, such as ‘it is because of their culture’ and ‘they are travellers’, which could direct attention to emphasising their deficiencies.

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The results revealed that ethnic minority teachers act as inclusion leaders in some schools. Although they are meant to bridge the culture gap for schools, they are caught up in the dilemma of their own practices and professionalism. It is still unclear how much impact they have on migrant pupils as a result of holding this position.

There were fragments of structures such as 'special projects' and 'one stop support centres' that have failed over time or disappeared when the teacher who initiated them leaves his/her post. This implies that these structures serve temporarily to tick the inclusion boxes. These practices reveal buffering (practices that seems to facilitate inclusion) which paves the way for loose coupling.

Funding for inclusion and raising standards have continued to be issues for schools and their leaders. While these funds (EMAG funds) are being withdrawn, head teachers and teachers find it hard to plan for the long term. On the other hand, policy makers seem not to take cognisance of the difficulties surrounding the inclusion of migrants where insufficient funding exists (for instance, Michael Gove’s speech; see page 143), which still shows that policies and practices are unconnected.

The study also showed that the schools depend more on internal CPD than external training. Internal CPD among the teachers portrays schools as a closed system. As a closed system, it means that schools recycle knowledge which may not be progressive. This again is an ingredient of buffering (loose coupling); seeming to be continual training yet no new knowledge is taking place.

9.2.2 To what extent does legislation and the school policy enhance inclusivity for EU migrant pupils?

There were novel inclusion approaches to teaching and learning for EU migrant pupils which have been tailored to suit the needs of migrant pupils and could be applied to all pupils, irrespective of their ethnicity. These are the PTP approaches and LOVE writing, discussed in the previous chapter. These approaches tend to reinforce best practices that seem not to work.
The findings on language learning indicate that the overriding concern to mainstream EU migrant pupils tends to take priority over the monitoring and progress tracking of their performance. Again, schools want to be seen to be adhering to mainstreaming (an ingredient of inclusion) yet do not pay attention to the intricate reality of inclusion.

The classroom ability grouping of EU migrants in schools was found to be of concern among the school leaders and teachers as a result of the wide spectrum of ability and mobility of EU migrants. The concern of schools is to fit pupils into the existing system rather than to change the existing system to suit the needs of the pupils.

It was also found that the skills learning groups, serving as the ability group, has no designated curriculum for teaching and assessment. Rather, it is a way of offering what may be suitable for migrants who may not achieve the maximum acceptable league table standards.

Taken together, the above factors indicate that there is a disconnection between policy and practice, leaving schools struggling to find solutions.

9.3 Contribution to the theory

The findings from this study have addressed the issues of inclusion, standards and accountability as they affect schools and EU migrant pupils. They have also opened up areas for concern (Chapter 6 and 7) regarding issues of inclusion, such as the changing leadership structure and leadership for inclusion, mainstreaming, pull-out programmes and classroom reorganisation (groupings) for teaching and learning.

In the study, the loose coupling concept of institutional theory was used to enhance our understanding of schools as organisations that need to be managed differently as a result of the policy changes and increasing migrant pupils’ population occurring within the school system. Schools were desperately organising themselves as the case studies suggest, and were unclear about their practices, yet want their actions to be perceived as relevant. As mentioned in Chapter 2, Meyer and Rowan (1991, p57) note that attempts to control and coordinate activities in institutionalised organisations lead to conflict and a
loss of legitimacy, as elements of the structure are decoupled from activities and from each other. This means that actions aligning organisations like schools and the societal values embedded in the policies frequently conflict with the technical core of schools, leading to differences in internal practices such that schools try to protect their technical core (loose coupling).

In the literature, several studies have attended to the inclusion of migrants in education, but few have dealt with the inclusion of EU migrants and none has focused on the inclusion of EU migrants in education using institutional theory’s loose coupling, legitimacy and sense-making concepts to illuminate the inclusion processes being implemented in schools.

This study has shown evidence of the novel changes in education as a result of globalisation (migration) and the marketisation of education. Hence, the evidence coming from the continual changes in the educational leadership structure, best practices, mainstreaming, pull-out programmes and schools innovative practices, borne out of sense-making of their situation (such as the PTP approaches, LOVE writing, a novel way of reading and writing approach) to meet the challenging, diverse population, is an indication that schools are responsive to their external environment.

In addition, the evidence obtained from the schools in this study shows that they engage in buffering their technical core (classroom teaching and learning) because there were signs of persistent uncertainty (the increasing influx of migrants), and seek change through enactment and learning. They also explore changes through engagement with different best-practices over time. While it may be safe to say that schools seek legitimacy or societal approval, the head teachers and teachers understand that there may not be a one size fits all situation in education, and hence the move towards embracing these new educational policies and practices.

Although schools have recoupled to embrace solutions for teaching and learning for the benefit of their increasing EU migrant population, the loosely coupled structures help to conceal their failure to provide adequate inclusion for EU migrant pupils.
Evidence from this study supports Davies, Quirke and Aurini’s (2006) research on market influences in the growth of K-12 private education in the United States, which identifies the marketisation of education, where accountability requires schools to show their quality to the parents and systematically report their outcomes through test score rankings, ratings or curricula, and schools are recoupled through accountability. Loose coupling theory has been popular in the institutional theory domain; Meyer and Rowan (2006) argue that the new social development had produced novel institutional practices with which institutional theory and research in education have yet to catch up.

Taken together, the findings of this study suggest that some of these changes claimed by Meyer and Rowan are represented by evidence from this study, as stated above, but that elements of loose coupling require reinforcing by solving the inclusive education problems by developing pathways for the coupling processes such that they help schools to manage the policies and practices (Section 8.4). An example is using the novel practices PTP and LOVE writing approaches to reinforce the best practices that seem not to work for schools.

Also, the model diagram shown in Figure 8.1, brings together the macro and micro issues that form the elements of loose coupling which could be seen in and integratively managed by the schools for the inclusion of EU migrant pupils.

9.4 Contribution to practice

This study also makes a noteworthy contribution to mainstreaming and pull-out programmes. It has examined mainstreaming and pull-out programmes that promote EU migrant pupils' inclusion. Mainstreaming requires the full presence and participation of the EU migrant pupils’ in the classroom and pull-out, although it has variants, requires the pupil to be pulled out of the classroom at some point in their learning and classroom activities for further instructions. Mainstreaming is highly favoured in the English educational system, prompting the popular Warnock Report of 1978; however, particular attention should be paid to the transition process. Teachers’ use of tacit or intuitive judgement to decide the progression for EU migrant pupils may be jeopardising the
future of these pupils. Rather, quantitative and qualitative assessments should be incorporated as a guide for such delicate decisions.

The focus on classroom teaching and learning yielded the result that best practices, when applied in a diverse classroom, can be reinforced by adding more support. The practice of adding additional support is a way of enhancing learning by introducing learning concepts to the EU migrant pupils' after-school hours, allowing them to participate in normal classroom lessons and evaluating their learning once again after-school hours to ensure continuous progress daily.

This study also draws attention to issues related to having ethnic minority teachers as inclusion leaders. It is unclear which criteria (through academic merit or experience) that school leaders use when appointing ethnic minority teachers as inclusion leaders. It would be interesting to understand what their influence and experience contribute to the inclusion of diverse pupils in the education system. This question, however, lies beyond the scope of this research.

In addition, leaders and teachers, especially inclusion leaders, must engage in active CPDs to improve their skills in leading for inclusion. Both internal and external CPDs are important for schools. Schools may want to track CPD attendance by teachers annually or, with the current advancements in technology, link teachers to external CPDs that will be beneficial to their progress now and in the future rather than sticking with the old, recycled knowledge in schools

9.5 Recommendations for policy

One of the key policy aims and objectives, as outlined in the current Schools White Paper DFE (2010) by the coalition government, is to hold schools accountable for the results they achieve. This coalition government views schools conventionally as conformists. This view could be reversed to partnership in progress if teachers and their leaders were involved in the policy-making, thereby incorporating the voices of teachers in making
educational policies to eliminate the disconnection between policy and practice in the reality of the inclusion of migrant pupils.

Evidence from the case study, such as the challenges reported by the schools as a result of the withdrawal of EMAG (Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant), the challenges related to finding the best practices for classroom teaching and learning, and pupil mobility indicate that high-stakes accountability systems discriminate against the poor and the EU migrant pupils; hence, the schools alone cannot be held responsible for the pupil outcomes. Appropriate targeted policies, such as reforming and reorganising the existing system of inclusion in education, will benefit both the pupils and teachers. There is, therefore, a definite need to improve the processes of inclusion for EU migrant pupils in schools in the areas of leadership for inclusion and responses to classroom groupings and increased academic standards will be achieved for them. The perspectives of the leadership towards inclusion and the methods of classroom grouping are clearly possible to change. It will be feasible to change these, given that there has been an emphasis on improving leadership in schools for pupil achievement, and recent calls by the coalition government to improve the standards of teaching in schools/teacher-training standards. Given this, the standards may therefore be enhanced for EU migrant pupils, teachers’ understanding of diversity will be improved, the EU migrant pupils will have the opportunity to progress in later life and there will be a reduction in the school drop-out or exclusion rates in schools. Given this possibility, there are no obvious ethical reasons for failing to seek to improve the inclusion processes in schools.

However, it is unlikely that any such change/improvement will apply to EU migrant pupils alone; it will apply to all pupils who are categorised as minorities in schools throughout the country.

In improving the inclusion processes to raise standards for all pupils in education, including EU migrant pupils is unlikely to be easily achieved through policy tools, such as the withdrawal of EMAG and turning schools into academies overnight with the same set of teachers and ideologies. The improvement of the inclusion processes for EU migrant pupils in schools is best achieved through transparent criteria for classroom
groupings and training for inclusion teachers. Additionally, an integrated qualitative (pupils’ voices) and quantitative assessment of EU migrant pupils' progress at intervals within an academic year need to be incorporated in a section of the schools' inspection report to feed the policy makers.

The inclusion of migrants' pupils is not only about classroom reorganisation; the relationship of the schools with the migrant families within the community needs to be cordial, hence strengthening the importance of community cohesion.

Decisions might need to be made regarding transparent criteria for ability grouping. In a school where different ability groupings are maintained in a subject (a hierarchy of groups from the highest to lowest), the assessment of EU migrant pupils for these groups must comprise both qualitative and quantitative assessment at intervals within a session so that they are monitored to ensure that they are have not been abandoned in the wrong group for a whole session. Otherwise, it may harm their academic progress.

9.6 Recommendations for future research

The research on the inclusion of migrants in education is extensive and multifaceted, even at the local level. However, this particular study has thrown up some questions about the arena of inclusion and diversity. It brings to light other areas of research pertaining to inclusion, diversity and standards/accountability that need further exploration beyond the focus on this research. For instance, the research found that most of the EU migrant parents belong to the 'hard to reach' group (Chapter 3); hence, it was difficult to get their voice for the research study. Their voice is very important for giving insights into the level of the relationship existing between the schools and their families and to understand the satisfaction-level with the feedback to the schools about their inclusion practices. Originally, at the onset of the research, it was planned to include data collection form the parents in the community.

Considering the limited time and lack of data, this has been referred to further research. Further research might need to explore the effects of language, emotional and
behavioural issues in determining the within-class grouping practice formation in diverse settings. The issue here is that pupils may be sent to non-achieving classes as a result of their language, emotional and behavioural issues. If we can isolate these effects, some EU migrant pupils might be better than where we categorise them. If a further study is conducted in this area, it will enhance the transparency of groupings for the EU migrant pupils in schools for teaching and learning.

If the challenges of leadership for inclusion in education need to progress, it is worthwhile developing a better understanding of what schools can gain from the use of ethnic minority teachers as inclusion leaders in schools, considering their own experiences of migration. This is in order to know what difference their personal life experiences make to EU migrant pupils and how this positive experience can be utilised to enhance the inclusion of diverse pupils in schools.

It is believed that this research will serve as a foundation for other researchers to undertake further research on inclusion, diversity, standards and accountability for migrant pupils in education. The context covered in this area will make a positive impact in primary and secondary schools.

9.7 Limitations of the study

This study has focused on major issues in education, such as inclusion, standards and accountability, for EU migrant pupils. Clearly, this represents a challenging task regardless of the more specific interests that the study may have. In this research, this extensive and complex issue for schools has been studied from a rather narrow empirical perspective. The selection of the multiple case study design to be employed over a very short space of time, such as a PhD, naturally brings forth many limitations as far as the generalisations about the results of the study are concerned. The study encountered a number of limitations, which are considered below:
Limitations of the theory

Criticism can also be raised concerning the way in which the theories are applied to this study. I have argued that this research will be underpinned by the institutional theoretical concepts of loose coupling, legitimacy and the enactment frame of sense-making theory. The theoretical base of this study can be described as being fragmented, as it includes such a variety of perspectives. However, the purpose of adopting this kind of strategy in the present study has been to use the broad selection of various perspectives as strength. The use of different perspectives was chosen based on the literature research that was conducted during the study and the conclusion that fairly little research has been conducted on the inclusion of EU migrant pupils in the UK using institutional theory.

Time constraints

Time was also another factor that was beyond the control of the researcher. Studying for a PhD involves a limited time period; hence, the study was limited to the PhD time frame of three years although, if given enough time and opportunity, justice would have been done to all of the areas initially intended to be covered by this study.

Delimitations

The participants in the study are children aged 6-16 years old. Children outside this age group were not considered because they do not fall within the compulsory school age stipulated by the government. The pupils in the study are EU migrants; for instance, pupils who have migrated to the UK with their parents since the EU treaty of 2004. Schools have data on all of the new arrivals within this period. The parents in the community chosen for the study are EU migrants who have children who fall within the compulsory school age in the UK. Second generation EU migrants or migrants from other countries are not considered. The purposive sampling procedure (non-random) would decrease the generalisability of the findings and, as a result, may not be generalisable to all types of organisation (schools).
9.8 My research journey

Having a voice was my primary objective in conducting this research. I have always wanted to find a way to express myself about what is happening around me. I gained admission to Sheffield Business School in January, 2008, based on my proposal, with the initial title of 'Creating Learning Communities in a Multicultural Context'. I enrolled on research courses and acquired brand new knowledge, as I learnt how to use NVivo and SPSS software for data analysis. Armed with this knowledge, I launched into the field of research to collect data, which formed the first stage of my research.

However, this stage re-defined the scope of my research, and the title of the study was changed to the present title. The data collection process did not go as smoothly as I expected because my research population comprises vulnerable groups and all the official processes of gaining permission that go with this. I overcame these barriers through persistence. The interviews were analysed, and I began the writing up.

Embarking on this study has taught me a lesson of a lifetime. I would say that it has been a privilege to have the opportunity to research the topic of 'inclusion' and I have understood that this term means far more than I originally assumed. This has transformed my approach to teaching and learning. Upon reflection, over the past five years, I have grown more than I ever thought possible. This is not a journey of learning facts and theories; it is about being able to synthesise information in a completely new way and look at things with a critical eye. It is the hardest thing I have ever done but, looking back now, it was one of the best decisions I ever made. I much prefer the person I am today to the person I was five years ago, and that is entirely because of this experience.
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Appendix A - Interview guide

The following appendices contain interview guide, university letters of approval for the research processes (ethics and research study confirmation), informed consent letters and other letters used for seeking permission from the head teachers of schools that participated in this study.

**Interview guide for head teachers and inclusion leaders- 2nd stage**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main areas</th>
<th>Interviewer notes</th>
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</table>
| **Leadership of inclusion in diverse schools** | • How has the school evolved in terms of diversity?  
• There are increasing numbers of EU migrant children coming to enrol in schools, how do you accept them and work out their journey to inclusion in the main stream? |
| **Inclusion policies**          | • In what ways has the implementation inclusion help to create an inclusive environment for the new EU migrant pupils in the school  
• What are your views about equal opportunity in education?  
• (Race equality) what are your views about the relationship of working with families in the community to create inclusive environment. |
| **Practice: issues on learning English as a second language** | • It takes time to learn English especially for someone learning it as a second language, how does the school manage such students  
• How important is bilingual teachers or bilingual teaching assistants to your school?  
• Do you look for bilingual teachers of their native language or any qualified teaching assistant to help with classroom work? |
| **Teaching and Learning**       | • Can you reflect on the school as a learning community?  
• In terms of the schools link with its community.  
• With the families of these new immigrants.  
• The benefits to the schools of learning communities and its downside to your school  
• What motivates the school to make itself a learning community? |
| **In school support**           | • Assessment of the child level,  
• Classroom support |
| **Local Authority support**     | • The school needs some financial support to meet the needs of these students, how do you get such support?  
• Are there other forms of support available to you both within and |
• Do you think that this support is enough?
Appendix B - Themes and subthemes emerging from the second stage of the study after coding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research questions</th>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How do the schools and their leaders view their task of inclusion?</td>
<td>Leadership for Inclusion</td>
<td>• Leadership structure</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Teacher experience and ethos</td>
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<td>• Standards attainment</td>
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<td>• Development of resources</td>
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<td>• Special education needs</td>
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<td>• Schools response</td>
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<td>What are the practices and challenges of inclusion within the context of Inclusion, standards and accountability?</td>
<td>Institutional pressure on schools</td>
<td>• Education Act of 2004- inclusion Matters, standards and accountability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Institutional environment-circular migration, claims and benefit system</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classroom Learning approaches for inclusion</td>
<td>• Classroom practices and approaches to Learning-mainstreaming, grouping and best practices</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Assessment, tools and procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How has the school responded and fruitful outcomes?</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>• Pupil to pupil</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• School and families in the community</td>
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<td></td>
<td>School Limitations</td>
<td>• Attendance</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Funding and support sources</td>
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Appendix C - Ethics approval document

Ours Ref AM/SW/11a-2011

16th November 2011

Uzoamaka Metu
170 City Road
Sheffield
S2 5HN

Dear Uzoamaka

Request for Ethical Approval of Research Project

Your research project entitled "Challenges and Opportunities for Including EU Migrant Pupils in English Educational System" has been submitted for ethical review to the Faculty's rapporteurs and I am pleased to confirm that they have approved your project.

I wish you every success with your research project.

Yours sincerely

Professor A Macaskill
Chair
Faculty Research Ethics Committee
Dear Miss Metu

Application for Confirmation of PhD

I am pleased to inform you that on 11 May 2011 the Chair of the Research Degrees Sub-Committee approved your application for Confirmation of PhD registration. Your revised registration details are attached together with a copy of the rapporteurs' comments for information.

Please also find enclosed an information sheet: 'Principal Stages in the progress of a Research Degree Student' outlining the timescales involved for completion of your research degree. The next stage for you will be the approval of your thesis title and examining team. These details should be proposed on an RF3 by your Director of Studies, and submitted to the Graduate Studies Team at least 4 months in advance of submission of your thesis. In your case we would expect to receive an RF3 by no later than 5 April 2012.

If you have any queries, please contact the Graduate Studies Team based on Floor 1, Oneleven Building, City Campus, using the contact details above.

Yours sincerely

Secretary
Research Degrees Sub-Committee

cc Director of Studies
Head of Programme Area (Research Degrees)
Research Administrator

Enc
Appendix E - Informed consent forms to interviewees

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR INCLUDING EU MIGRANT PUPILS IN ENGLISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Date: 15/02/2012
Researcher: Uzoamaka Metu
Institution: Sheffield Hallam University,

What you have done: You have given your individual opinion regarding Ethnic Minority and Travellers Achievement Service role and inclusion of ethnic minorities in schools.

Audio recording: You have given consent to the audio recording of the information during the interview.

Risks and Discomforts: We do not foresee any risks or discomfort from your participation in the research.

Benefits of the Research and Benefits to You: The research will help to address educational policies and practices in inclusion which can also be related to wider societal issues.

Voluntary Participation: Your participation in the study is completely voluntary and you may choose to stop participating at any time.

Withdrawal from the Study: You can stop participating in the interview at any time, for any reason, if you so decide and at no cost to you. If after the interview, you change your mind about participating, you can withdraw your data in the next two weeks. After that time, withdrawal is impossible as your data will have been anonymised and included in the analysis.

Confidentiality: All information you supply during the research will be held in confidence, and unless you specifically indicate your consent, your name will not appear in any report or publication of the research. Your data will be safely stored in a locked facility, and only research staff will have access to this information. Confidentiality will be provided to the fullest extent possible by law. The one exception is whether evidence was to be uncovered that suggested that a child was in danger, and then any concerns would be shared with the school.

Questions about the Research? If you have questions about the research in general or about your role in the study, please feel free to contact Dr Manny Madriaga. Sheffield Hallam University, Faculty of Development and Society. Phone 0114 225 4022 E-mail m.madriaga@shu.ac.uk

Signature of consent

By signing this consent form, I confirm that I have read and understood the rationale for the project and have had the opportunity to ask questions. I understand that my participation is voluntary, and that I am free to withdraw my data up to two weeks after the interview without giving a reason and without cost. I agree to take part in this study; I agree to audio recording, and I agree to anonymised quotes being used in reports and publications.
Name of Participant ____________________________________________________________

Signature and date ____________________________________________________________
Appendix F - Consent form for parents of EU migrant pupils

Sheffield Business School

AT SHEFFIELD HALLAM UNIVERSITY

16 March 2010

Dear Parent/Guardian

I am a postgraduate student in the Sheffield Business School, Sheffield Hallam University conducting a research on the Challenges and Opportunities of including migrant pupils in the English Educational System. The purpose of this study is to understand the impacts of inclusion process from the migrant pupils’ experiences. The result of the study will contribute to the understanding of the learning experience of the migrant pupils. With your permission, I would like to ask your child to volunteer to participate in this research.

The pupils will be asked to give their individual opinion on questions regarding school experiences and motivation. It will be a 20 minute question and answer group session.

Your child’s participation in the study is completely voluntary and your child may choose to stop participating at any time for any reason, if the child so decides.

All information he/she supplies during the research will be held in confidence. His/her name will not appear in any report or publication of the research. The identity of all participants will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. We will replace their names with code numbers. Results will only be reported in the form of group data.

If you have questions about the research in general or about your role in the study, please feel free to contact Professor Jim Chandler either by telephone at 0114 225 5249 or by e-mail (j.a.chandler@shu.ac.uk)

Signature of consent

By signing this consent form, I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily give my consent for my child, . I have read a copy of this description.

Signature: (Parent/Guardian)

Date:

Sheffield Business School
Sheffield Hallam University  Stoddart Building  City Campus  Howard Street  Sheffield  S1 1WB  UK
Telephone +44 (0)114 225 5555  www.shu.ac.uk/sbs

Prof. ~ JY~.c  v  Sheffield Business School  Professor Christine Bouth

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Appendix G - Letter of permission to head teachers to conduct research in their schools

Sheffield Business School

AT SHEFFIELD HALLAM UNIVERSITY

15th March 2010

Dear Headteacher,

This letter is to confirm that Amaka Metu, who has requested permission to conduct focus group interviews with pupils in your school in connection with her PhD study entitled 'Challenges and Opportunities of including Migrant Pupils in the English Educational System', is registered as a full time PhD student in Sheffield Business School at Sheffield Hallam University. Amaka is herself a qualified teacher with a PGCE from Sheffield Hallam University in Business Education.

As her Director of Studies I would be very grateful if you could provide assistance to ensure that she can complete what will be a value contribution to understanding the learning experience of immigrant children in British schools.

Yours faithfully

Sheffield Business School

Professor James Chandler
Professor of Local Governance
Sheffield Business School

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SHEFFIELD BUSINESS SCHOOL

Professor Christine Booth

GRADUATE SCHOOL