

Under-tapped potential: Practitioner research as a vehicle for widening participation

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Introduction

This paper makes an original contribution to on-going debates around the relationship between research, policy and practice, drawing on the first-hand experiences of three practitioner-researchers working to widen participation to university in England who had recently successfully completed a research-based MA. While this group of professionals is central to the success of this important international policy agenda, in England they are a diverse group¹ and surprisingly lacking in access to bespoke professional development pathways in Higher Education (HE). They are also largely absent from the academic literature and in England, positioned within a dominant 'what works' agenda (Francis et al, 2017) in ways that tend to subordinate them to the data they collect. Approaches adopted under this agenda have been critiqued for a tendency towards analytical over-simplification (Gorard and Smith, 2006; Harrison and McCaig, 2015; Dockery, 2016; Lynch et al. 2015; Harrison and Richardson, 2017). Practitioner research affords an important complementary approach with high transformative potential as it is thoroughly grounded in the complexities encountered in routine practice while also inviting a critical reconfiguration of these (Carr, 2007). Zeichner (2003, p.46) further argues that the sharing of such stories helps to maximise their transformative potential.

The next section provides an overview of key debates surrounding the relationship between research, policy and practice with particular reference to the widening participation (WP) agenda. This is followed by a short section that further contextualises the discussion of the first hand-accounts provided by three practitioner-researchers following a bespoke WP strand of an MA in Education. This location reflects the lack of recognition of WP as an academic discipline and it also explains why much of the practitioner-research literature drawn on in the following section comes from other areas, particularly education. The paper concludes by drawing across the three accounts to highlight the under-tapped potential of what is an increasingly important professional group given their centrality to what is a key international policy agenda.

Research and practice in the context of WP

Hammersley (2008, p.238) argues that the increased emphasis on evidence-based policy making and practice in England has been designed to reduce research to a highly instrumental role that makes the public sector more accountable. This seems to be supported given current approaches to evidencing the impact of WP interventions and the

¹ Being spread across schools, colleges, universities and third sector organisations

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3 part played by the Office for Fair Access (OFFA) in both regulating and monitoring the
4 sector. There is a strong emphasis on the quantification of indicators to evidence 'success'²
5 with 'target groups'³ but also a nascent interest in fostering a research culture amongst
6 practitioners⁴. A heavy emphasis on evaluation as a means of identifying 'what works'
7 incorporates a broad trend at policy level to identify the Randomized Controlled Trial as 'the
8 gold standard' (Hammersley, 2008; Francis et al., 2017). Notwithstanding, there are
9 divergent understandings of evaluation as a means of informing both policy and practice and
10 the place of stakeholders within such frameworks (Khakee, 2003). Carr (2007) writing about
11 education research highlights the importance of first questioning the understandings that
12 underpin both while also emphasising the need to recognise practice as both socially
13 situated and historically formed. Rather than producing "knowledge 'on' or 'about'" (Carr,
14 2007, p.276) suggests that the aim should be to develop:

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23 The kind of self-knowledge that enables practitioners to identify the unquestioned
24 assumptions and irrational beliefs sustaining their practice and, by so
25 doing...reconstruct their educational practice in a rational and reflective way.

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27 This focus is important because WP practitioners bring different educational and life
28 experiences to this agenda and both understand and approach it in different ways (Wilkins
29 and Burke, 2015). Hammersley (2008, p.3) argues that the *polarization* between different
30 research paradigms that underpins these debates is unhelpful. Francis et al. (2017),
31 reflecting on the lack of transfer between research, policy and practice in the case of 'ability'
32 grouping in England also conclude that what matters is an informed understanding of what
33 different research approaches can/cannot do rather than any dogmatic hierarchy.

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35 Any discussion of the potential for practitioner-research to contribute to positive change
36 within the WP agenda needs to take account of the critiques previously levelled against
37 research in this area. Gorard and Smith (2006) following a review of WP research raised
38 concerns about its quality, suggesting that not only were conclusions and findings often
39 conflated, but that not enough detail was provided to demonstrate their justification. While
40 this critique is even handed in being applied to research of different types, practitioner
41 research is specifically dismissed on the grounds that it "*typically does not involve*
42 *interventions, controls or even any explicit analysis of patterns and trends*" and therefore

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54 ² Generally conceptualised as spanning initial engagement in interventions at the pre-entry stage,
55 subsequent recruitment, retention and culminating in progression to graduate-level employment

56 ³ A major focus being those characterised as socially disadvantaged but also including young people
57 in the care system, specific ethnic groups and those with disabilities.

58 ⁴ The 'pracademic' knowledge exchange programme that has matched academic mentors with practitioners:
59 <https://www.offa.org.uk/egp/writing-publication-widening-participation-practitioners/>

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3 provides “no way of assessing its propositions or generalising its results” (Gorard and Smith,
4 2006, p.590). While Gorard and Smith (2006) are right to show that misunderstandings of
5 research approaches can lead to misleading and unwarranted claims around causality.
6 Hardwick and Worsley (2011, p.137) are also clear that practitioner-research deals so
7 closely with the particularities of the context in which it is conducted that it sheds light only
8 on what is transferable to similar settings. Such approaches would also seem to address the
9 concern raised by Kettley (2007) that WP research has tended to look at different aspects in
10 isolation rather than approaching them holistically. This tendency to atomisation is inherent
11 in current approaches to evaluation in part because it relies on linking indicators of
12 ‘disadvantage’ that are difficult to operationalise (Gorard, 2012; Harrison and McCaig, 2015;
13 Dockery, 2016; Harrison and Richardson, 2017) to specific interventions in ways that under-
14 attend to the complexity of these intersections over time. It also risks reducing WP
15 practitioners to data technicians rather than developing their capacity to be(come) agents of
16 change (Gewirtz et al. 2009).
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26 The contribution made by practitioner-research has been a continuing subject of debate
27 across professional domains (Shaw 2005; Hammersley, 2008; Harridge et al, 2014). As
28 already noted the literature on WP practitioners is scant, the paper by Wilkins and Burke
29 (2015) being a notable exception and they therefore do not feature in these debates.
30 Hardwick and Worsley (2011, p.136) argue that in the case of Social Work a lack of
31 recognition of the value of practitioner-research is compounded by a lack of access to “*high-*
32 *quality research training opportunities and supervisory support to facilitate a rigorous*
33 *analysis.*” This situation is clearly worse for WP practitioners given their lack of access to a
34 bespoke pathway in HE. Whitchurch and Gordon, (2010) reflecting on the growth of
35 professional service staff in HE – the place where many but by no means all WP
36 practitioners in England are located – also highlights a lack of status and recognition when
37 compared with academic staff and more limited opportunities for Continuing Professional
38 Development.
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47 The research literature identifies a number of benefits as arising out of practitioner-research,
48 including some that point to the potential to deliver immediate improvements in practice
49 (what under other agendas might be called ‘impact’). This potential for positive change is
50 embedded in the process (Carr, 2007) and can be transformative of both the individual and
51 their professional setting (Shaw, 2005; Gewirtz et al. 2009; Vetter, 2012; Harridge et al,
52 2014). In adopting a bottom up rather than top down approach the practitioner-researcher
53 has more agency (Zeichner, 2003; Gewirtz et al., 2009; Killingsworth-Roberts et al 2010;
54 Vetter, 2012). In fostering a capacity for critical reflection such approaches provide
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3 new/deeper insights into 'real world' problems (Killingsworth-Roberts et al, 2010; Vetter,
4 2012; Harridge et al, 2014) while also allowing access to marginalised/missing/alternative
5 voices and perspectives (Harridge et al, 2014). Such approaches create opportunities to
6 (better) integrate theory with practice (Vetter et al.2012), something that may never be
7 required if simply inputting evaluation data. In "*generating practitioner research capacity*"
8 (Shaw, 2005, p.1231) it also reduces the risk of under-tapped potential.
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12 13 14 **Contextualising the practitioner-researcher accounts**

15 Shaw (2005 p.1232) characterises practitioner-research as "*small-scale, local, grounded,*
16 *and carried out by professionals who directly deliver those self-same services.*" The
17 research conducted by the three practitioner-researchers discussed below exhibited all of
18 these characteristics but was also conducted under the auspices of a research-based MA in
19 Education programme with a bespoke WP strand developed to address an identified gap in
20 provision. This provided access to a designated tutor with research expertise in WP plus a
21 network of peer practitioner-researchers. It followed a staged process that comprised the
22 following elements: critical reflection on a self-identified aspect of practice; an extended
23 literature review; opportunities to develop knowledge and understanding of research;
24 opportunities to conduct small-scale research culminating in a dissertation.
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32 According to Gorard and Smith (2006 p.592) researchers have an "*ethical responsibility to*
33 *be appropriately sceptical*" and the following discussion identifies this as the quality initially
34 motivating the three practitioner-researchers to engage in study at Masters level. Gorard and
35 Smith (2006 p.592) also identify two standards for evidence – *Is what is presented*
36 *plausible?* and *Does it change anything?* - and again these accounts point to there being no
37 inherent incompatibility with practitioner research. Hardwick and Worsley (2011) suggest that
38 practitioner-research, by virtue of its situated nature, is particularly likely to identify areas of
39 contradiction, including things missing from other research and policy agendas. The virtue of
40 this closeness can be seen in the very different foci selected by the three practitioner-
41 researchers and the range of changes that they gave rise to. Hammersley (2005) reflects
42 that research and practice are rather different and that research might open up more
43 complexity than practitioners can readily manage. These accounts suggest, however, that
44 some practitioners are already well aware of these complexities and that their own research
45 provides an opportunity to further illuminate them in ways that can inform individual and local
46 practices but also wider debates.
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55 56 **Discussion**

57 58 **Ruth: Theorising confidence**

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3 The research conducted as part of the MA entailed a staged exploration of the concept of
4 'confidence' - a term used with increasing frequency in WP policy discourse⁵ and by
5 participants, colleagues and teachers as a key objective and outcome of WP activity.
6 Despite widespread use, I found no consistent definition of 'confidence' in the literature and
7 no model of how it could support HE progression. Many constructions of confidence
8 assumed a deficit in WP learners, with limited evidence for this. Despite no consistency in
9 meaning or clear evidence base, I found that confidence is indicated as a goal of WP
10 interventions (Cabinet Office, 2012), as a barrier to HE (Dent et al., 2012) and cited as a key
11 outcome of interventions such as the Aimhigher programme (Church & Kerrigan, 2011).
12 Crucially, no definition of confidence addressed the thoughts and feelings of the young
13 people and adults engaged in WP interventions. Interpretations of the value of confidence
14 were rarely in their words and it was assumed that confidence would translate into
15 behaviours uniformly across all groups despite indications that understandings and
16 expressions of confidence are situated in, and may result from, different social and cultural
17 contexts (Strand, 2007). Harris, in his role as Director of Fair Access, wrote about a lack of
18 'social confidence' inhibiting students from applying to particular institutions but offered no
19 evidence of this being a root cause beyond absence of applications (Harris, 2010, p56). The
20 literature appeared to be speaking in different languages and to different audiences.
21 Practitioner literature lacked some of the context and discussion of reflexivity of research
22 papers, making it sometimes confusing to understand. However, research papers were
23 difficult to relate to my experience of working in WP and commentaries on policy changes
24 did not reflect the impacts of these on practice. This research therefore presented an
25 opportunity to gain an understanding of confidence that went beyond the simplistic and
26 inconsistent definitions I encountered.
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41 The dissertation research focused on the experiences of young people participating in a five-
42 day, non-residential university summer school. I took a multi methods approach, combining
43 sequential focus groups with interviews and observations to explore participant and staff
44 ideas around confidence and how this interacted with their experiences during the week. In
45 total, six participants (3M, 3F) aged 17 & 18, two student ambassadors (1M,1F) and one
46 PhD student tutor (F) participated in the focus groups and/or interviews, which took place
47 before, during and after the summer school. I also observed four 'social' and 'academic'
48 sessions during the five days. I was particularly aware of being careful to restrict the
49 intrusion of the research into participants' experiences of the summer school and of the
50 danger of making assumptions about participants' responses or observed behaviours.
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57 ⁵ For example it appears in the National Strategy for Access and Student Success in Higher
58 Education (BIS, 2014) 12 times
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3 However, I felt that my position presented opportunities not available to others, particularly in
4 the level of access to participants and my ability to understand aspects of their experiences
5 through shared language and environment.
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9 I found tremendous value, both in the act of undertaking research and in the findings of the
10 research itself, for my professional practice. Amongst the participants and staff I interviewed
11 I found a complex variety of understandings of confidence - as both a feeling and a
12 behaviour which shaped their responses to the activities within the summer school. For
13 example, one participant spoke about confidence prior to the summer school as *"being able*
14 *to stand up in front of a crowd and voice your opinion"* and focused throughout on the
15 summer school's role in building her confidence to deliver a presentation in a supportive
16 environment alongside her peers. However, another participant felt that confidence was
17 about *"belief in yourself that allows you to express your thoughts and feelings"* and did not
18 feel that the experience affected his confidence but that the social environment, with fellow
19 students appearing nervous to talk in seminars, restricted his ability to express it. I also
20 uncovered aspects that shook the confidence of some participants - something I was aware
21 of but never truly forced to confront in my everyday practice:
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30 I think for us it's been quite good but for other people it's been really hard so they
31 might not be as sociable ... they kind of feel isolated and I think some people who
32 are like that, they're not showing up now. (Focus group 2)
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35 This variation in participant interpretation of experiences was largely absent from the
36 literature I had explored but was important as a practitioner for understanding where
37 differentiation may be needed, both when delivering activities and when evaluating them.
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41 The participant who followed most closely the model of the students presented within the
42 literature felt that he lacked confidence but emerged from the summer school with a new
43 resolve to pursue a highly selective course and with a feeling that he had previously
44 undervalued his academic abilities. Although he saw the summer school as a positive
45 experience, he also identified that his academic confidence went down during the week and
46 he expressed anxiety before and during the summer school about his ability to cope
47 academically. He ascribed his increased confidence to the successful completion of many
48 challenges, including the summer school, a change in his interpretation of his experiences
49 and high-levels of peer support, including in relation to his dyslexia. This highlighted the
50 complexity of the links between trajectories and specific interventions. Recognition of the
51 importance of participants' wider contexts prompted conversations with colleagues about the
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3 framing of summer school experiences and led to more detailed information being provided
4 to students but also to staff training around disability support at universities.
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8 Importantly, neither participants nor staff identified a deficit of confidence that was specific to
9 WP learners. Though participants recognised that they sometimes lacked certainty in their
10 actions, they felt certain that their confidence would increase over time and with exposure to
11 different environments. All appeared to take a proactive approach to developing their
12 confidence and although they valued the experiences offered by the summer school, saw
13 themselves as active partners throughout:
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18 We could have just refused to do the presentation and we wouldn't have had that
19 confidence boost...I think it does really rely on participation and the student's
20 willingness to put themselves out of their comfort zone. (Final Interview)
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23 This emphasis contrasts with some of the literature and served as an important reminder of
24 the importance of considering participants as more than passive recipients of an experience.
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28 The necessary practice of questioning assumptions (mine and others) as a researcher led
29 me to a better understanding of the assumptions evident in WP activity. I had previously
30 understood summer schools to be an 'effective' WP intervention (OFFA, 2013). Whilst my
31 research did indicate that the summer school experience had value for participants, in
32 specifically questioning the use of confidence in WP discourse I brought awareness, not only
33 to myself but to colleagues, of the power of language in shaping our assumptions of those
34 we are seeking to support. Although such debates are not new I believe that, as a
35 practitioner, I was able to make these considerations more relevant and accessible to
36 colleagues who may not have engaged with research papers or academic discussions. As a
37 consequence, some of the language that we used to communicate about our work, both
38 internally and externally has changed. Undertaking research within the context of my own
39 professional practice was empowering for myself and for my colleagues who could see in
40 our discussions the value of their professional insight. It fostered an increased interest in WP
41 research within the setting, leading to the introduction of a 'journal club'. In a sector where
42 academic research has taken many years to filter through, encouraging practitioners to
43 research their own practice develops common ground and understanding between
44 researchers and practitioners.
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55 **Fay: Accessing 'hard to reach' perspectives**

56 Despite a long history in WP, England still faces a social divide in access to HE with young
57 people from more advantaged backgrounds being six times more likely to study at university
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3 than their less advantaged peers (UCAS End of Cycle Report 2016). Schools and young
4 people are targeted for interventions based on a range of related criteria: where the family
5 lives, parental history of HE; Free School Meals (FSM) as a general indicator of low
6 household income. Despite the centrality of parental circumstances to this area of practice,
7 in my work as a WP practitioner located within a university team I became aware that
8 parents are often unaware of the fact that their children are on a WP programme and unclear
9 what the aims and criteria are. I often attend parents' evenings in local schools and colleges
10 and while explaining to a child's grandfather what the programme was and how being a part
11 of it would support his granddaughter but also how the targeting criteria might enable her to
12 access scholarships and bursaries he became very distressed, saying that universities
13 thought that he was *'thick and that they lived in a slum'*. I had not previously been
14 confronted with the direct impact of these criteria on those they seek to target and this
15 heightened awareness of their association with deficit motivated me to investigate this issue
16 further over the course of the MA.
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26 A review of the academic literature indicated that the perspectives of parents and carers
27 from the most socially disadvantaged/eligible/hard to reach groups were largely missing. The
28 assumed lack of aspiration amongst these groups was also a source of concern. I was
29 particularly interested in the work of Burke (BERA, 2014) who states:
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32 Aspirations are formed through social relations, identity formations and are
33 negotiated and renegotiated within the social contexts in which the child is situated;
34 they are not linear in formation but cyclical and reflexive...Utilitarian and instrumental
35 approaches to WP are stuck at the attitudinal level, unable to capture the complexity
36 of educational aspiration.
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40 Recent research conducted for the Department for Education (DfE, 2014) surveyed circa
41 400 schools and colleges and found that a lack of encouragement from parents was
42 perceived as a challenge by more than a quarter of staff. While some staff are perhaps
43 constructing parents from a deficit perspective it is nevertheless clear that working *with*
44 families - rather than focussing interventions solely on their children - might be beneficial. An
45 additional concern is that seeking to involve young people without considering the
46 perspectives of parents and carers might actually be counter-productive.
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51 For the dissertation I designed a small-scale study that would allow me to further explore
52 these identified gaps and contradictions. Having access to the email addresses of parents
53 and carers provided ready access to participants who would be characterised as 'hard to
54 reach.'
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3 All twelve participants met all three of the following commonly used criteria for intervention:
4 POLAR 3 Quintiles 1 and 2⁶; no family history of HE; eligible for Free school Meals⁷. They
5 elected to meet me in family groups (highlighting my awareness of the importance of these
6 inter-generational connections but also their diversity) and in settings other than at school.
7 Four took part in face-to-face interviews and the remaining eight were interviewed as part of
8 a focus group during a WP trip that I had arranged. It was difficult at times to separate my
9 role as a practitioner from that of my role as a researcher but I tried to maintain boundaries
10 for the interview process by noting any comments, questions or misunderstandings about
11 the programme and returning to address these after the interview.
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18 I also interviewed three teachers at schools targeted by the programme and compared their
19 responses to those of the parents and carers. I was fortunate in that they were located in the
20 same schools. One parent recounted an incident at her child's sixth form options evening.
21 The family had asked whether a particular A Level or BTEC course would lead to university
22 and they reported being told '*not to worry about university at this stage*'. They said that they
23 had then overheard another family asking the same question and being given a full answer
24 about which universities, courses and careers the course would lead to. When asked why
25 they had not queried this or returned to demand a similar answer, the parent stated that they
26 did not want their child to be marked as a '*trouble-maker*'. The member of staff who was
27 interviewed at this school considered that '*some families won't leave the neighbourhood let*
28 '*alone go to university*'. This suggested that young people are sometimes positioned by
29 schools as being likely to follow the same trajectory as their parents and carers and
30 therefore not always actively included in interventions. This highlights the danger of over-
31 reliance on the perspectives of staff while also echoing the concern raised by Harrison and
32 Waller (2017) that interventions are less likely to be targeted at those least likely to go to
33 university even though this would make a more appropriate benchmark for assessing
34 'success'.
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46 The research confirmed my view that there was confusion about the programme amongst
47 parents and carers. Some parents felt that their children had been '*seconded*' to the
48 university as they had been chosen for the programme and were therefore obliged to attend
49 that university whereas others thought their children had been chosen because they were
50 'gifted and talented' and because their high academic potential had been 'spotted' by a
51 university even if overlooked or ignored by the school. Many parents were confused by
52 jargon and the use of euphemisms such as 'we work with children from a broad range of
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57 ⁶ An area based indicator based on proportion progressing to university in the locality

58 ⁷ An income based indicator, linked to benefit entitlement and poverty.
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3 backgrounds' not realising this referred to eligibility criteria. It was also apparent that this
4 was partly due to the way that schools communicated the aims of the programme, choosing
5 to 'sell' it without referring explicitly to the criteria because of their association with deficit or
6 stigma. It became clear from this confusion that if we wish to have an open and honest
7 conversation with parents about their children making a life-changing decision, there needs
8 to be much greater clarity around the rationale for and aims of such programmes and that
9 the criteria need to be stated in a way that does not cause offence but is nevertheless
10 transparent.

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16 These findings have been used to great effect within my professional context as they have
17 prompted the team to invest in developing stronger relationships based on improved
18 communication with parents and carers. All summer schools now have built in parent visits.
19 Literature has been developed that clearly explains why children have been invited to visit
20 the university. Interventions are prefaced with parental engagement sessions and family
21 taster days have been developed and delivered. Post-16 parent seminars have also been
22 offered and well received. A programme to employ parent ambassadors to work in
23 communities to share information about how they support their children at university is also
24 in development. As a result of the skills gained from undertaking the MA, I have also been
25 able to contribute to the development of research projects within my own institution and to
26 studies being conducted at a national level. The insights from these parents and carers
27 came directly out of the intersection between research and practice and these then fed into
28 more informed interventions.

36 **Penny: Deconstructing 'worth'**

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38 The research I pursued over the course of the MA grew out of my awareness as a careers
39 adviser of a potential conflict of interest between a national policy agenda to increase HE
40 participation, with its accompanying emphasis on WP, and the impartiality which is a core
41 principle of the careers guidance profession. At the time I was working in two separate
42 settings, a school and a 6th form college. Much of my work revolved around HE progression,
43 including acting as each institution's 'link' for WP outreach programmes. Having
44 enthusiastically embraced the WP agenda I developed a keen sense of responsibility for
45 providing informed, impartial guidance when young people asked me whether university is
46 'worth it'. This question usually concerned graduate employment prospects in relation to
47 particular subjects or institutions. It was partly prompted by gloomy media headlines and
48 hearsay but also reflected the WP discourse which promotes HE participation as a route to
49 social mobility, framing the cost as a personal investment leading to enhanced earning
50 power and life fulfilment (BIS, 2013). A growing body of academic literature lends weight to
51 the young people's concerns, revealing outcomes which vary widely and can be affected by
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3 university attended and subject studied (Davies et al, 2013; de Vries, 2014; Purcell et al,
4 2014). Mode of participation also affects outcomes, with students 'commuting' from home
5 appearing to be disadvantaged both in terms of overall university experience and in the
6 graduate jobs market (Holdsworth, 2006; Callender and Jackson, 2008; Artess et al, 2014).
7 Unfortunately, those who meet WP criteria are disproportionately represented within the
8 universities and subjects that appear to yield the smaller financial dividends and also
9 amongst 'commuter' students. These issues prompted the focus of the research conducted
10 for the MA. Throughout I was mindful of the complexity of the concept of 'worth' and also of
11 differing views as to the fundamental purpose of university, robustly debated against the
12 backdrop of the current emphasis on financial benefit to the individual (McMahon, 2009;
13 Faulkner, 2011; Walton, 2011; Collini, 2012; McGettigan, 2013).
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21 The research was small-scale and involved several stages. It began with individual
22 interviews that explored prospective undergraduates' motivation for going to university
23 followed by a questionnaire-based study exploring recent graduates' views on their own
24 university experience and what they drew from it. All those surveyed were former students
25 at my school, with my position as their former careers and higher education adviser giving
26 me direct access to a field of participants who had all had a similar preparation for university
27 in terms of school experience and with whom I already enjoyed a measure of rapport. I was
28 aware my position as an insider researcher could potentially discourage individuals with
29 negative views from responding and tried to mitigate this by emphasising my openness to a
30 range of views. Six of the questionnaire respondents volunteered to be interviewed for the
31 final MA dissertation, affording an opportunity to explore in greater depth the issues that had
32 so far emerged. The perspectives of university staff from three differing institutions were
33 gathered by a further round of interviews, drawing on some of the themes arising in those
34 with recent graduates. The focus was on better understanding what enables young people
35 to make the most of university. The aim was to be transformative in directly considering the
36 implications for both pre-entry preparation and post-entry support for today's diverse student
37 body.
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49 The most striking findings revolved around concepts of belonging and identity and the
50 development of independence balanced against recognition of the continuing if different role
51 of parents. This revealed the graduate interviewees' interpretations of 'worth' to be far more
52 complex and multi-dimensional than anything measurable simply by graduate earnings.⁸ The
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56 ⁸ It should be noted that the graduates interviewed for this research had all paid tuition fees of approximately
57 £3000 a year, whilst the university staff interviewed are now working in a context where students are paying
58 three times that amount. As the first cohort paying the higher fees had not yet graduated at the time the data
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3 importance of engaging as fully as possible with university life and using the experience to
4 develop a sense of independent identity came across repeatedly:
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7 To get the most out of it you do have to, not completely disregard your friends and
8 family but you do need to learn to step away from them and just have those couple of
9 years where you think 'I'm going to learn more about me, and what I can do.'
10 (Interviewee 1).
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12 The graduates who volunteered to be interviewed had all moved away to university, which
13 limited my scope for exploring the perspectives of those who live at home. However, in the
14 light of the views expressed, I discussed the question of catering for the specific needs of
15 'commuter' students with university staff, who pointed out the challenges of doing so when
16 those students are not readily identifiable. Yet a sense of belonging enhances students'
17 levels of engagement (and vice versa), which in turn affects graduate outcomes and
18 assessments of 'worth'. Universities are well aware of this and many run imaginative
19 programmes designed to ease transition and foster a sense of belonging (Morgan, 2012;
20 Vinson et al, 2010; Thomas and Hanson, 2014), even if these do not specifically address the
21 experience of commuter students.
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27 Although the graduates interviewed articulated the advantages of stepping away from family,
28 emotional, and sometimes practical, support and advice from parents were still perceived to
29 have been crucial to their perseverance and success. One believed strongly that his
30 parents' background helped them to support him effectively (his mother had been to
31 university herself).
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36 I don't think I could have done it if they hadn't had the background and the
37 knowledge they had, , and I think had they taken a different kind of approach to me
38 then I would've maybe dropped out, if they were like 'Come home, come home'.
39 (Interviewee 2)
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41 Thomas and Quinn (2007) note that parents can be ill-equipped for this role, finding parents
42 who have *not* been to university more likely to encourage off-spring to come home,
43 assuming difficulties to be outside the norm. The university staff interviewed indicated little
44 attention has traditionally been given to supporting parents beyond open days, which
45 inevitably highlight positive messages rather than challenges.
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49 The quality of relationships with academics also emerged as important to students' well-
50 being and academic 'success' although these have perhaps been undermined by some of
51 the structures designed to facilitate access (such as part-time, modular courses) and the
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56 were gathered it was too soon to explore whether higher fees have changed attitudes, although early evidence
57 indicates this is likely to be the case (Kandiko and Mawer, 2013)
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3 expansion in student numbers. It came as no surprise that interviewees also found that
4 extra-curricular activities helped foster a sense of belonging and the existing literature
5 highlights the contribution of extra-curricular involvement to graduate employability as well
6 (Greenbank and Hepworth, 2008; Yorke and Longden, 2008; Stuart et al, 2012). Several
7 interviewees' extra-curricular involvement at university began with the continuation of an
8 activity they had been involved with at school. The familiarity of the activity gave them the
9 confidence to try it in the new setting, which in turn sometimes paved the way for trying
10 something new. This reinforced the value of building habits of extra-curricular involvement in
11 school or college but it also provides a reminder of the enduring inequality associated with
12 the variability of opportunities in such settings.
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19 The research grew directly from my work as a practitioner. The questions and concerns
20 raised by students in the course of my work, set against the policy context within which I was
21 working, prompted my research interest and shaped my research questions. Being a
22 practitioner also gave me access to data, as I was able to draw on existing relationships to
23 recruit survey respondents and interviewees. My activities as a researcher in turn directly
24 influenced my own subsequent practice, as the findings informed the guidance I gave to
25 young people considering university. I increasingly addressed the question of 'worth' in
26 terms of steps which contribute to making the experience worthwhile, emphasising the
27 importance of engaging as fully as possible once there, and highlighting the importance of
28 making an extra effort to do so if living at home. I was able to suggest specific factors that
29 can contribute to a sense of belonging, such as extra-curricular involvement, encouraging
30 students to build those behaviours whilst still at school/college. I also advised considering
31 the strength of staff/student relationships when visiting universities, as an important but often
32 overlooked factor to bear in mind when making choices.
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41 Sharing these findings amongst those providing guidance to young people is more
42 problematic, as no obvious forum for such dissemination exists. There is little tradition of
43 evidence-based, research-led careers practice within schools, although professional careers
44 qualifications include career theory underpinned by ongoing research amongst academics.
45 Within the state sector at least, many schools and colleges do not employ a careers adviser,
46 and those that do exist are not always professionally trained for the role or linked to the
47 relevant professional body (the Career Development Institute), limiting its reach as a conduit
48 for information and research. Where a professional training has been completed, it may not
49 be understood by teachers and senior leaders who belong to a different professional
50 discipline. I have recently moved to a new role, within an organisation which takes CPD and
51 research seriously, both to meet the needs of an evaluation agenda and also to continually
52 improve its provision. This has highlighted for me the potential value of developing such
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3 practices across the careers guidance spectrum and the need to examine ways of facilitating
4 this.
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6 7 **Final reflections**

8 This section draws across the three accounts to highlight the potential of practitioner
9 research in WP to be a complementary tool for positive change in a context where
10 evaluation conducted by practitioners is the dominant model. In doing so it gives a measure
11 of visibility and voice to this group of professionals while also perhaps, contributing to a
12 narrowing of the gap between research and practice. It is perhaps not that surprising that
13 the preceding accounts identify benefits from the practitioner-researcher experience
14 consistent with those identified for other professional groups. Like Francis et al. (2017) we
15 do not seek to reify one approach above another, however, but to suggest that in the case
16 of WP there is considerable potential for fruitful crossover between research approaches and
17 that this potential is both under-recognised and under-tapped.
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25 It might be argued that WP practitioners in England are *de facto* practitioner researchers
26 given their centrality to the national evaluation agenda. However, the agenda is underpinned
27 by particular understandings of research and there are also important questions to be asked
28 about their positioning within this agenda and the understandings of research and practice
29 that they bring. Ruth and Fay were located in university WP teams at the time of the MA but
30 Penny was a trained careers advisor working in a sixth form with a remit that also included
31 WP. That all three have subsequently progressed to new roles adds weight to the idea that
32 practitioners working around this agenda are considerably more diverse in their professional
33 locations, roles and prior experiences than the 'umbrella' term 'widening participation
34 practitioner' suggests. The current lack of professional development opportunities within HE
35 suggests a failure to keep pace with the evolution and expansion of the sector. It is also
36 indicative of a wider 'disciplinary gap' that sits in marked contrast to the wealth of academic
37 literature *about* WP and which identifies this as a highly complex area of professional
38 practice.
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48 Challenged to strengthen the evidence base *for* practice the sector has become increasingly
49 self-supporting in finding ways to meet what it identifies to be the key professional
50 development needs. Unsurprisingly these are shaped to a large extent by an agenda set by
51 policy makers and regulators. While there are important questions to be asked about the
52 indicators of 'disadvantage' that are used for evaluation purposes (Gorard, 2012; Harrison
53 and McCaig, 2015; Lynch et al, 2015; Dockery, 2016), Fay, in having the freedom to set her
54 own research agenda was able to address this not as a technical question but as a relational
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3 one. In the process she gained an improved understanding of the risk of miscommunication
4 and how this might be mitigated. Fay's efforts to identify suitable research participants also
5 raised awareness of how few of the young people targeted for intervention met *all* of the
6 'disadvantage' indicators, suggesting that more needed to be done to reach those most likely
7 to benefit, a point subsequently made by Harrison and Waller (2017). The insights that were
8 generated are highly pertinent to evaluation practices but are not necessarily raised by them.
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13 A capacity to engage with the complexity of research and practice from a position of ethical
14 scepticism is evidenced across all three accounts. Ruth's use of the MA to explore
15 assumptions around what confidence is and how it is developed, confirm the point made by
16 Gorard and Smith (2006) that there is a risk of drawing unwarranted conclusions and that
17 these might also mask potential harm. Penny's work on the 'worth' of HE came out of an
18 explicitly ethical motivation: a sense that there was a potential conflict of interest between
19 her role in providing impartial advice while also contributing to an agenda that emphasises
20 HE as a desirable end goal in the face of increasing uncertainty, cost and risk. The
21 conclusion that 'worth' is dependent on a multiplicity of individual, institutional and structural
22 factors produced new insights into the kinds of advice and support that could be offered.
23 Both examples highlight a cycle in which the taken for granted is unpicked generating the
24 knowledge and confidence needed to reconfigure practice. In all three cases the proximity of
25 the practitioner researcher to first-hand experiences added not only nuance or 'granularity'
26 but also a level of visibility and voice that mitigated the concern that WP is sometimes 'done
27 to' or 'done for' rather than 'done with'.
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38 The relationship between research, policy and practice is complex (Gorard, 2002;
39 Hammersley, 2005; Wilkins and Burke, 2015) and these three accounts highlight the
40 intersections as fluid and multidirectional rather than linear and hierarchical. In holding both
41 identities, research and practice can be seen to be continuously in play. In giving the agenda
42 to the practitioner-researcher the questions formulated were automatically contextually
43 relevant and they therefore fed quite readily into the kinds of situated discussions that
44 prompted change. Dissemination via stakeholder networks has added additional
45 transformative potential given the potential for transferable insights to emerge. How these
46 insights and experiences might have fed in to the forms of change that the evaluation
47 agenda seeks to measure is another question but it is clear that there are potentially
48 valuable connections.
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