



# LITERACY IN ENGLAND

COUNTRY REPORT

CHILDREN, ADOLESCENTS  
AND ADULTS

March 2016

**This document has been published by the European Literacy Policy Network (ELINET).**

**The report was completed in 2016.**

The contents of this publication may be reproduced in part, except for commercial purposes, provided the extract is preceded by a reference to "Elinet", followed by the date of publication of the document.

**Main authors (in alphabetical order):**

Klaus Buddeberg, Henrietta Dombey, Christine Garbe, Anke Grotlüschen, Kathy Hall, Sophie Koch, Dominique Lafontaine, David Mallows, Gerry Shiel, Renate Valtin

**Contributing authors (in alphabetical order):**

Ana Arqueiro, Valeria Balbinot, Ariane Baye, Greg Brooks, Christina Clark, Brian Creese, Juliana Cunha, Maria Lourdes Trindade Dionísio, Jonathan Douglas, Claudia Fischer, Stéphanie Géron, Eithne Kennedy, Maija Koikkalainen, Maria Kovacs, Gudmundur Kristmundsson, Dominique Lafontaine, Gina Lemos, Heikki Lytinen, George Manolitsis, Carmen González Martí, Fabio Nascimbeni, Franziska Pitschke, Helin Puksand, Sari Sulkunen, Eufimia Tafa, Giorgio Tamburlini, Anne Uusen, Ariana-Stanca Văcărețu, Corina Volcinschi, Christina Wagner, Esther Wiesner

**Coordinator of the ELINET-Project:**

University of Cologne

Prof. Dr. Christine Garbe

Institut für Deutsche Sprache und Literatur

Richard-Strauss-Str. 2

50931 Köln – Cologne

Germany

christine.garbe@uni-koeln.de

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b> .....	6
<b>2</b>	<b>Executive Summary</b> .....	7
<b>3</b>	<b>General Information on the Education System of England</b> .....	10
	<b>CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS</b> .....	12
<b>4</b>	<b>Literacy Performance Data for Children and Adolescents</b> .....	13
4.1	Performance Data for Primary Children.....	13
4.1.1	Performance and variation in reading: Proportion of low- and high-performing readers.....	13
4.1.2	Gaps in reading.....	15
4.2	Adolescents.....	20
4.2.1	Performance and variation in reading: Proportion of low- and high-performing readers.....	20
<b>5</b>	<b>Policy areas</b> .....	27
5.1	Creating a literate environment for children and adolescents.....	27
5.1.1	Providing a literate environment at home.....	28
5.1.2	Providing a literate environment in school.....	30
5.1.3	Providing a digital environment.....	31
5.1.4	The role of public libraries in reading promotion.....	32
5.1.5	Improving literate environments for children and adolescents: Programmes, initiatives and examples.....	33
5.2	Improving the quality of teaching.....	36
5.2.1	Quality of preschool.....	36
5.2.2	Literacy curricula in schools.....	40
5.2.3	Reading Instruction.....	44
5.2.4	Early identification of and support for struggling literacy learners.....	47
5.2.5	Initial Teacher Education (ITE) and Continuous Professional Development (CPD) of Teachers.....	52
5.2.6	Improving the quality of literacy teaching for children and adolescents: Programmes, initiatives and examples.....	57

5.3	Increasing participation, inclusion and equity .....	62
5.3.1	Compensating socio-economic and cultural background factors.....	64
5.3.2	Support for children with special needs.....	67
5.3.3	Promoting preschool attendance, especially among disadvantaged children.....	69
5.3.4	Provisions for preschool children with language problems.....	71
5.3.5	Support for children and adolescents whose home language is not the language of school.....	72
5.3.6	Preventing early school leaving.....	72
5.3.7	Addressing the gender gap among adolescents.....	73
<b>ADULTS</b>	.....	<b>75</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Performance data for adults in literacy</b> .....	<b>76</b>
6.1	Average Performance in Literacy.....	76
6.2	Gaps - Low Literate Population.....	77
6.2.1	Language .....	77
6.2.2	Age.....	77
6.2.3	Gender .....	78
6.2.4	Family.....	78
6.2.5	Employment.....	78
6.3	Skills Use.....	79
6.4	Literacy Gaps .....	79
6.4.1	Parental Education.....	79
6.4.2	Books at Home.....	80
6.4.3	Language .....	81
6.5	Participation in Adult Education - Low Literate Population.....	81
<b>7</b>	<b>Adult Literacy Policy</b> .....	<b>82</b>
7.1	Adult Literacy Provision.....	82
7.2	Quality monitoring in adult literacy .....	83
7.3	Literacy curricula/reading instruction.....	84
7.4	Screenings/assessments/support.....	86
7.5	Special support for second-language learners/migrants.....	87
7.6	Reading environments to stimulate reading motivation.....	88
7.7	Digital environments/use of technology in education .....	89

7.8	Teachers .....	91
7.9	Teacher education.....	91
7.10	Policy-making.....	94
<b>8</b>	<b>References</b> .....	<b>96</b>

# 1 Introduction

This report on the state of literacy in England is one of a series produced in 2015 and 2016 by ELINET, the European Literacy Policy Network. ELINET was founded in February 2014 and has 78 partner organisations in 28 European countries<sup>1</sup>. ELINET aims to improve literacy policies in its member countries in order to reduce the number of children, young people and adults with low literacy skills. One major tool to achieve this aim is to produce a set of reliable, up-to-date and comprehensive reports on the state of literacy in each country where ELINET has one or more partners, and to provide guidance towards improving literacy policies in those countries. The reports are based (wherever possible) on available, internationally comparable performance data, as well as reliable national data provided (and translated) by our partners.

ELINET continues the work of the European Union High Level Group of Experts on Literacy (HLG) which was established by the European Commission in January 2011 and reported in September 2012<sup>2</sup>. All country reports produced by ELINET use a common theoretical framework which is described here: "ELINET Country Reports – Frame of Reference"<sup>3</sup>.

The Country Reports about Children, Adolescents and Adults are organised around the three recommendations of the HLG's literacy report:

- Creating a literate environment
- Improving the quality of teaching
- Increasing participation, inclusion (and equity<sup>4</sup>).

Within its two-year funding period ELINET has completed Literacy Country Reports for all 30 ELINET member countries. In most cases we published separate **Long Reports** for specific age groups (Children / Adolescents and Adults), in some cases comprehensive reports covering all age groups. Additionally, for all 30 countries, we published **Short Reports** covering all age groups, containing the summary of performance data and policy messages of the Long Reports. These reports are accompanied by a collection of good practice examples which cover all age groups and policy areas as well. These examples refer to the **European Framework of Good Practice in Raising Literacy Levels;** both are to be found in the section "Good Practice"<sup>5</sup>.

---

<sup>1</sup> For more information about the network and its activities see: [www.eli-net.eu](http://www.eli-net.eu).

<sup>2</sup> In the following, the final report of the EU High Level Group of Experts on Literacy is referenced as "HLG report". This report can be downloaded under the following link: [http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/school/doc/literacy-report\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/school/doc/literacy-report_en.pdf).

<sup>3</sup> See: <http://www.eli-net.eu/research/country-reports/>.

<sup>4</sup> "Equity" was added by ELINET.

<sup>5</sup> See: <http://www.eli-net.eu/good-practice/>.

## 2 Executive Summary

### LITERACY PERFORMANCE DATA

England participated in IEA's PIRLS assessment of reading comprehension in Fourth grade (Year 5) in 2001, 2006 and 2011, and in PISA – the OECD's assessment of reading literacy involving 15 year-olds every three years from 2000. However, the PISA scores in 2000 and 2003 were based on samples that did not meet the PISA response-rate standards, so cannot be used for comparison. England took part in OECD's PIAAC study of adult literacy in 2012.

In PIRLS 2011, England, with a score of 552, performed significantly above the EU average of 535. Only three countries scored significantly higher. However, England's reading performance fell from 553 in 2001 to 539 in 2006, before rising again almost to its 2001 level. This contrasts with other EU countries, where average overall reading performance remained quite similar across all the cycles.

In PISA 2012, England, with a score of 500, performed only slightly above the EU average of 489. In 2000, England's overall level of performance at 523 was significantly higher than the EU average. It then dropped to 496 in 2006, falling further to 494 in 2009 before rising again to 500 in 2012. But, as noted above, the sample tested in 2000 did not meet the required sampling standard and may have produced a falsely inflated result. The more trustworthy comparison is between the scores for 2006 and subsequent years. During this time England's adolescents have made progress after a slight decline.

In England's PIRLS 2011 results, 18% of pupils were considered low-performing readers, slightly less than the 20% average across EU countries. In PISA 2012, the proportion of low-performing readers stood at 17%, less than the 19.7% average across EU countries. In PISA, such low-performing students can read simple texts, retrieve explicit information, and make straightforward inferences, but they are not able to deal with longer or more complex texts, and are unable to interpret beyond what is explicitly stated in the text. As to changes across time, in PIRLS, the proportion of low-performing readers was stable, at 21.6%, across the two first cycles and then in 2011 decreased by 4.3 percentage points. In PISA, the proportion of readers performing below level 2 was, at 13%, lower in 2000 than in the two subsequent cycles of the study, whose figures are more reliable – 18.6% in 2009 and 16.7% in 2012.

The proportion of top-performing readers in England was 18% in PIRLS 2011, twice as high as the 9% EU average. In PISA 2012, the proportion of top reading-performers stood at 9%, more than the EU average of 7%.

In PIRLS, England did not administer the Home Questionnaire. So no data were available about the gap in scores between pupils from different socioeconomic backgrounds. In PISA, at 93 points, this gap was slightly higher than the EU average of 89.

In PISA 2009, the gap between native students and students with a migrant background was, at 24 points, lower than the EU average of 38. Similarly, in PIRLS 2011, the mean score difference between those who always spoke the test language at home, and those who sometimes or never did so was below the average for EU countries (18 vs 26). In PISA, this gap according to the language spoken at home was also lower than the EU average (48 vs 54).

In PIRLS 2011, the 23 score point gender gap in favour of girls in England was significantly higher than the corresponding EU average difference of 12. The same trend as the overall reading score was observed: the gender difference score decreased in 2006 and rose back to its 2001 value in 2011. In PISA 2012, this gap, at 25 points, was lower than the EU average of 44 points.

In conclusion, England has performed well in reading over time at grade 4 (Year 5). Although its performance significantly dropped in 2006, it returned to its initial level in 2011. The performance of England's 15-year-olds remained above the EU average across the cycles. But the substantial decrease noted between 2000 and 2006 may be more apparent than real. The important comparison is between 2006 and 2012, which shows a net increase of 3 points over the period. The proportion of low-performing readers is close to the EU countries' average in both studies. Among 4<sup>th</sup> graders, a very high percentage of top-performing readers is largely responsible for the very high overall score. England's spread of achievement, the gap between low and top performing readers, was higher than the EU average on PIRLS and slightly lower on PISA. Among adolescents, the gap according to socio-economic status was somewhat higher in England than the EU average. The gaps according to migration and language spoken at home were lower. The gender gap was higher than the European average for the younger pupils, but smaller than the European average for adolescents.

**The following issues could usefully be addressed:**

- Raising the performance of lower-achieving readers to address the long tail of under-achievement and ensure greater equity in reading outcomes. The high level of reading resources and access to additional support for reading in English classrooms can provide a basis for raising the performance of lower achievers.
- Clarifying the status of synthetic phonics in early reading teaching and learning, to ensure that students can draw on a wider range of word recognition strategies.
- Addressing the gender difference in reading in favour of girls, which in England is above the EU average level at primary level. This requires interventions to improve boys' performance and interest/engagement in reading.
- Identifying the effects of the Phonics Screening Check (DfE, 2015b) and the Key Stage Tests on students' reading performance and confidence.
- Ensuring that all students, especially 'at risk' students, have access to books and other educational resources at home.
- Ensuring that all students are taught by teachers who have regularly availed themselves of professional development related to literacy.

As far as adults are concerned, with a PIAAC 2012 score of 272, the United Kingdom (England + Northern Ireland) performed at the same level as the EU at 271. It should be remembered that only 17 EU countries took part in PIAAC in 2012, so the comparison with other countries should be taken with caution. At 124, the spread of achievement – namely the gap between top and bottom performers – was somewhat wider in the UK than the EU-17 average of 117. The proportion of adults performing at or below level 1 in UK was 16.7%, very close to the EU-17 average of 16.4%.

Women performed somewhat less well, at 271, than men at 274, but the gender gap of 3 score points in favour of men was very slightly higher in the UK than the EU average of 2 score points, in marked contrast with the relatively high score difference between genders in favour of girls observed in younger generations. The gap of 44 points according to parents' level of education was somewhat



higher than the EU average of 41, reflecting the trend in PISA. As for the gap according to the language spoken at home, at 27 it was nearly the same as the EU average of 28.

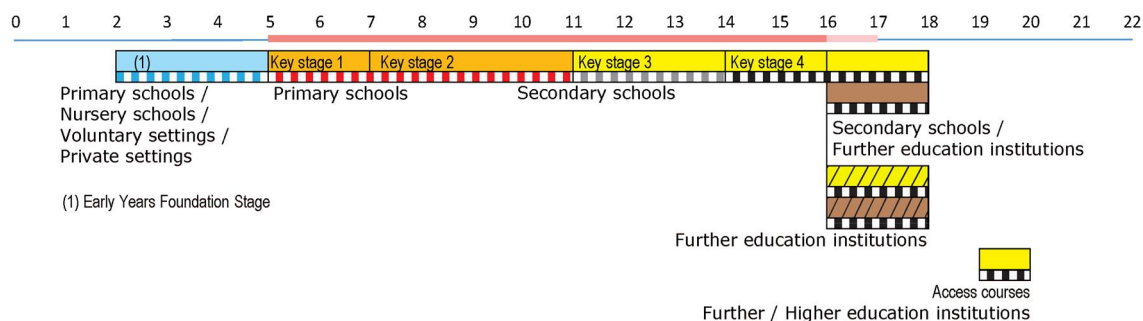
However, in England, adults aged 55-65 perform better than 16-24 year-olds in both literacy and numeracy. In fact, England is the only country where the oldest age group has higher proficiency in both literacy and numeracy than the youngest age group.

### 3 General Information on the Education System of England

Each of the four countries of the United Kingdom has its own education system. Each has sole legislative and administrative power over educational policy within its borders. In England, legislation requires that all those aged between 5 and 16 years should be in full-time education, which is usually taken to mean school. Some 93% of those are in non fee-paying publicly provided schools, some 7% are in private schools (ISC, 2015) and a very small proportion are educated at home.

As to 16 to 18-year-olds, the law in England is now that 16- to 18-year-olds must either stay in full-time education (at a school or college), start an apprenticeship or traineeship, or, work or volunteer for 20 hours or more a week, while in part-time education or training (Gov.UK, 2015a).

Figure 1: Structure of the English School System<sup>6</sup>



Non-fee-paying pre-school provision is available for all children from the age of 3 years, either in nursery classes or nursery schools, typically for only part of the school day. Attendance is voluntary; in 2014, 97% of the eligible three and four-year-olds attended. 39% of the state-funded nursery places are supplied by private or voluntary providers (DfE, 2014c). State-provided nursery classes may be attached to primary schools, or grouped in a nursery school.

However, it should be noted that England’s pre-school provision is much less in terms of hours than school provision: “All 3- to 4-year-olds in England can get 570 hours of free early education or childcare per year. This is usually taken as 15 hours each week for 38 weeks of the year” (Gov. UK, 2014a). Concerning the average duration of preschool attendance, no international comparable data are available.

To ease the transition into formal learning, the ‘Foundation Stage’ curriculum runs through the nursery years and into Reception, which is the first class of Primary School, the class that children enter in the September of the academic year in which they will have their 5<sup>th</sup> birthday. The next 2 years of primary school, Year 1 and Year 2 (ages 5-7), constitute Key Stage 1. The following four years, Years 3 to 6 (ages 7-11), form Key Stage 2.

Within the first six weeks of their entry into formal schooling at 4 to 5 years old, children are assessed by their teachers, in terms of their readiness for formal education. (For further information see Section 4.1.1 below.)

<sup>6</sup> See Structure of European education systems, [http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/facts\\_and\\_figures\\_en.php#diagram](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/facts_and_figures_en.php#diagram).

Towards the end of Year 1 (5-6 years) children are assessed on the *Phonics Screening Check*. Those who do not reach the pass mark are given extra support and assessed again the following year. Children making slow progress are provided with extra help rather than retained. (For further information see Sections 4.1. and 5.1.2 below.)

Some two plus years after school entry (6-7 years), children undergo nationally organised formal assessment in literacy (and mathematics) at the end of Key Stage 1. At the end of Key Stage 2 (10-11 years), their knowledge of science is also assessed. (For further information see Section 4.1. below.)

The results of all these assessments are reported to parents and used by teachers to guide future actions. They are also used as evidence of levels of teacher, school, Local Authority and national standards.

A few Local Authorities retain selective secondary systems, dividing children at 11 years into grammar schools and secondary moderns or 'comprehensives'. But less than 5% of England's students of secondary school age attend such state-funded grammar schools (Bolton, 2015). Less than 3% of students in grammar schools received free school meals (a much-used indicator of poverty) as against 18% of students nationally (Skipp et al., 2013). Over 12% of entrants to grammar school come from schools outside the state school sector (Skipp et al., 2013)

Most secondary students attend comprehensive schools. However, these vary in focus and range of courses offered: an increasing proportion are now academies, under the direct control of the Department for Education, rather than the Local Authority, or free schools, under the control of the group that set them up. Currently some 20% of secondary schools in England are academies or free schools (DfE, 2014d). Both academies and free schools are subject to the same school admissions code as all other state-funded schools.

Both primary and secondary schools operate a full-day timetable, with a break for lunch, which is usually taken at school.

Secondary education is split in terms of curriculum into Key Stage 3 (Years 7, 8 and 9, ages 11-14) and Key Stage 4 (Years 10 and 11, ages 14-16). Students take a wide range of subjects in Key Stage 3, narrowing this in Key Stage 4, when they are preparing for the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) examinations in their chosen subjects. These are usually taken in Year 11 in anything between 1 and 12 subjects. A 'good pass' in 5 subjects including English and mathematics is a pre-requisite to preparation for higher education.

England is only moderately successful in enabling students to overcome the disadvantage of poverty. In 2013-14, fewer than 34% of GCSE entrants receiving free school meals achieved 5 good passes, while over 60% of all other students achieved this (DfE, 2015a). As to ethnic background, there is variation between ethnic groups, with over 74% of Chinese students, 56% of white British and 47% of Black Caribbean pupils achieving 5 good passes (DfE, 2015a).

In early 2014, just under 18% of school pupils were assessed as having special educational needs, a proportion that had been in slow decline for the previous five years (DfE, 2014f). Some 52% of those with a statement of special educational need are catered for in mainstream primary or secondary schools while some 40% attend state-funded special schools. The remainder are educated in independent schools, voluntary special schools or pupil referral units (for those with severe behaviour problems).

# **CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS**

---

# 4 Literacy Performance Data for Children and Adolescents

## 4.1 Performance Data for Primary Children

The performance data for primary children are derived from in-country assessment and the IEA’s PIRLS studies.

Inaugurated in 2001 and conducted every 5 years, **PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study)** is an assessment of pupils’ reading achievement at fourth grade organised by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). The survey was administered in 35 countries in 2001, 45 education systems in 2006, and 50 in 2011. PIRLS assesses different purposes for reading (literary and informational) and different reading processes (retrieve explicit information, make inferences, interpret and integrate ideas and information, examine and evaluate content, language, and textual elements). Both multiple choice and open-ended questions are used.

Combining newly developed reading assessment passages and questions for 2011 with a selection of secure assessment passages and questions from 2001 and 2006, PIRLS allows for measurement of changes since 2001. PIRLS 2011 also examined the national policies, curricula and practices related to literacy in participating countries, and included a set of questionnaires for students, parents/caregivers, teachers, and school principals to investigate the experiences that young children have at home and school in learning to read, in particular their attitudes and motivation towards reading.

For all PIRLS data used in this report, detailed tables with data for all participating countries in ELINET are provided, together with the EU averages (see Appendix C: ELINET PIRLS 2011 Data, Appendix D: ELINET PIRLS 2001 and 2006 Data).

### 4.1.1 Performance and variation in reading: Proportion of low- and high-performing readers

In PIRLS 2011, England achieved an overall mean reading score of 552 (one-quarter of a standard deviation above the EU-24 average) (Table 1). Just two countries – Finland (568) and Northern Ireland (559) – had significantly higher mean scores. Performance in England was broadly similar across reading purposes and reading processes, although students in England performed marginally better on higher-level comprehension processes (Interpret, Integrate & Evaluate) than on more basic ones (Retrieval & Inference) (Appendix C, Tables A2-A5).

Table 1: Overall Performance on PIRLS 2011

	Overall Reading – Mean Scores
England	552
EU-24	535

Significant difference in **bold**

In 2011, students in England performed at about the same level on the PIRLS overall reading scale as their counterparts in 2001 (Table 2). While performance did drop by 13 points between 2001 and 2006, this difference was reversed between 2006 and 2011. On average across EU countries, there was no change in performance between 2001 and 2011.

Table 2: Trends in Performance 2001-2011 (Overall Scale) – England and EU Average

	2001	2006	Change (2001- 2006)	2006	2011	Change (2006- 2011)	2001	2011	Change (2001- 2011)
England	553	539	<b>-14</b>	539	552	<b>13</b>	553	552	-1
EU Avg	534	534	0	534	535	1	534	535	1

Significant differences in **bold**

Eighteen per cent of students in England achieved at or below the Low PIRLS benchmark, compared with an EU-24 average of 20% (Table 3). The proportion of advanced readers in England (18%) was twice the EU-24 average of 9%. Compared with other countries with high proportions of students performing at the Advanced benchmark, England had more students performing at or below the Low benchmark (18%). Finland, which also had 18% of students performing at the Advanced benchmark, had just 8% performing at or below the Low benchmark (Appendix C, Table A7). Hence, there is a ‘tail of underachievement’ in England that is not seen in other high-performing countries.

Table 3: Performance by Overall PIRLS Reading Benchmarks 2011 – Percentages of Pupils in England and on Average across the EU-24

	Below 400	400-475 Low	475-550 Intermediate	550-625 High	Above 625 Advanced
England	5	13	29	36	<b>18</b>
EU Avg	5	15	36	35	<b>9</b>

Significant differences in **bold**.

As performance on the PIRLS benchmarks suggests, there is a broad range of achievement among students in Grade 4 in England. The standard deviation for England (82 points) is the third-largest standard deviation across EU countries, behind Malta (97) and Romania (91) (Table 4). In contrast, the standard deviation in Finland is 64, while it is just 54 in the Netherlands (Appendix C, Table A7).

Table 4: Spread of Achievement – Standard Deviation, 10th, 90th Percentiles, and Difference between 90th and 10th Percentiles on Overall Reading – England and EU-24 Average

	Standard Deviation	10 <sup>th</sup> Percentile	90 <sup>th</sup> Percentile	90 <sup>th</sup> -10 <sup>th</sup>
England	82	440	652	<b>211</b>
EU Avg	71	440	621	<b>181</b>

Significant differences in **bold**.

The difference between scores at the 90<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> percentiles is another measure of spread. In England, this was 211 points – higher than the EU-24 average difference of 181 (Table 4). Among EU member countries in PIRLS, only Malta (254) and Romania (244) had higher difference scores. In the Netherlands, the difference was 129 points (Appendix C, Table A7).

These figures would seem to suggest that England is challenging its higher-performing readers but not paying sufficient attention to its under-performers.

**4.1.2 Gaps in reading**

As in every European country there are achievement gaps between different groups.

**Home Educational Resources**

England did not complete the home questionnaire to supply data on the incidence of students with at least one parent who had completed a university degree.

However, data were supplied by the students concerning books in the home. In England, 9% of students had 10 or fewer books while 15% had more than 200 books. These percentages are close to the corresponding EU-24 averages (Table 5). The gap in reading performance in England between those with 10 or fewer books, and those with more than 200 is 98 points – 16 points higher than the EU-24 average of 82 points. This may be important in interpreting the tail of underachievement in England.

Table 5: Mean Overall Reading Scores of Pupil with 0-10 books at Home, and those with More than 200 Books – England and EU-24 Average (PIRLS 2012)

Books in the Home	None or Few Books (0-10)		More than 200 Books		Mean Score Difference (More than 200 – None or few)
	Percent of Students	Mean Reading Score	Percent of Students	Mean Reading Score	
England	9	486	15	584	<b>98</b>
EU-24	11	482	12	563	<b>82</b>

Statistically significant mean score differences in **bold**.

**Primary language spoken at home different from language used at school**

In England, 79% of pupils reported that they always spoke the language of the PIRLS reading test at home – almost the same as the corresponding EU-24 average (Table 6). While 20% of pupils in England reported that they sometimes spoke a different language, just 1% said that they never spoke the test language at home. The corresponding EU-24 average percentages are similar. The difference in achievement between pupils in England reporting that they always or sometimes/never spoke the language of the test was 18 score points – markedly lower than the corresponding EU-24 average difference of 26. This could be taken to indicate the relative success of the provision in England for children for whom English is an additional language.

Table 6: Percentages of Students Reporting that They Always or Sometimes / Never Spoke the Language of the PIRLS Test at Home, and Associated Mean Score Differences – England and EU-24 Average

Language of the Test Spoken at Home	Always		Sometimes /Never		Mean Score Difference (Always – Sometimes/Never)
	%	Mean	%	Mean	
England	79	556	21	538	<b>18</b>
EU-24	80	541	20	519	<b>26</b>

Statistically significant mean score differences in **bold**.

In a report issued by the Department for Education in 2012, it was noted that 17% of students in primary schools in England spoke a language other than English at home (DfE, 2012). An earlier report (CILT, 2005) found that London was the most linguistically diverse area of England, with 196 languages spoken by students aged 5-18, while at least 300 languages were spoken across England. The most common languages were spoken by students who originated from South Asia, and included Punjabi, Urdu, Gujarati, Hindi and Bengali. However, the situation has changed: the 2011 Census (ONS, 2011) identified Polish (at one per cent) as the second most commonly-spoken language (after English) in the general population in England, followed by Punjabi, Urdu, Bengali, Gujarati, Arabic and French.

### Gender

In PIRLS 2011, girls in England achieved a mean score on overall reading that was higher than boys by 23 points (almost three-tenths of the national standard deviation). This was greater than the EU-24 average difference of 12 points (Table 7). In 2011, England had the largest gender difference among EU countries – marginally higher than Finland (21), Lithuania (18) and Malta (18). The size of the gender difference in England in 2011 was about the same as in 2001. Across EU countries, the data point to a small reduction in the size of the gender difference (Table 7).

Table 7: Trends in Performance by Gender 2001-2011 (Overall Scale) – England and EU-24 Average

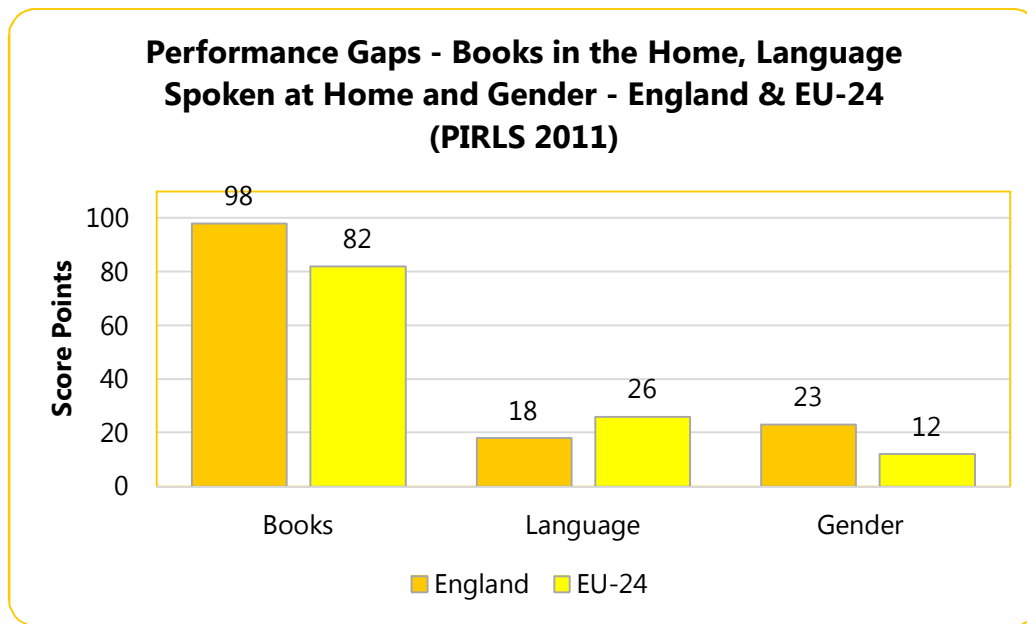
	England			EU-24 average		
	Girls	Boys	Girls-Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls-Boys
2011	563	540	<b>23</b>	541	529	<b>12</b>
2006	549	530	<b>19</b>	541	528	<b>13</b>
2001	564	541	<b>22</b>	542	525	<b>17</b>

Significant differences in **bold**

Performance gaps related to books in the home, language spoken at home and gender are summarised in Figure 2.



Figure 2: Performance Gaps– Books in the Home, language Spoken at Home and Gender – England and EU-24 (PIRLS 2011)



Gender: girls – boys; Education: University vs. Lower secondary/primary; Language: Student speaks language of test at home always vs. sometimes/never.

### Attitudes to reading

Students in England scoring in the top quarter of the Like Reading scale achieved a mean overall reading score of 589 points. This was some 69 points higher than students scoring in the bottom quarter of the scale (Table 8). On average across the EU-24, the difference between students in the top and bottom quarters of the Like Reading scale was 52 points, indicating a relatively stronger relationship between liking reading and performance in England than on average across the EU-24. In England, 57% of pupils ‘agreed a lot’ that they enjoyed reading. This is about the same as the EU-24 average (55%) but below a number of countries, including Ireland (68%) and Portugal (73%) (Appendix C, Table D3).

Table 8: Mean Overall Reading Scores of Students in the Top and Bottom Quartiles of the PIRLS Like Reading Scale – England and EU-24 Average

Like Reading	PIRLS Overall Reading		
	Top Quartile	Bottom Quartile	Difference (Q4-Q1)
England	590	521	<b>69</b>
EU-24	563	511	<b>52</b>

Significant differences in **bold**.

In England, 57.3% of students ‘agreed a lot’ that they enjoyed reading – one of the components of the Like Reading scale. The corresponding EU average was 54.7% (Appendix C, Table D3). Countries in which higher proportions of students agreed a lot that they liked reading include Ireland (68%), Romania (66%) and Malta (62%).

Students in England in the top quarter of the Confidence in Reading scale achieved a mean score (597) that was some 104 points higher than students in the bottom quarter (494) (Table 9). The average difference across the EU-24 was 81 points, again indicating a relatively stronger relationship between confidence and performance in England.

Table 9: Mean Overall Reading Scores of Students in the Top and Bottom Quartiles of the PIRLS Confidence in Reading Scale – England and EU-24 Average

Confidence in Reading	PIRLS Overall Reading		
	Top Quartile	Bottom Quartile	Difference (Q4-Q1)
England	597	494	<b>105</b>
EU-24	570	490	<b>80</b>

Significant differences in **bold**

### **In-country assessment**

England requires a number of assessments of children’s progress in literacy learning in the course of their progress through the Early Years Foundation Stage and Key Stages 1 and 2.

#### *Assessment on school entry*

This used to be done according to the *Early Years Foundation Stage Profile* (EYFSP) (STA, 2013). But this profile was withdrawn in 2015 in favour of a new system, in which schools may either use their own system of observational recording, or choose one of six commercial profiles approved by the government. However, whereas following the EYFSP ensured that a wide range of children’s dispositions, capabilities, achievements and areas of knowledge were observed and recorded, the approved commercial schemes for baseline assessment in the early years vary considerably in coverage, while all are narrower in scope than the EYFSP and consist not of guides to observing children’s classroom behaviour, but tests in which many young children do not reveal all their capabilities (TACTYC, 2015).

#### *Phonics Screening Check*

Since 2012, all children have been entered for the *Phonics Screening Check* one year before the KS1 assessment. In 2015, 77% of these five and six-year-olds reached the required pass mark, compared with 69% in 2013 and 58% in 2012 (DfE, 2015g). (For further information see Section 5.2.4 below.)

#### *Assessment at the end of Key Stage 1*

All children in state-funded schools in England are assessed in reading and writing at the end of Key Stage 1 (typically at 7 years) and the end of Key Stage 2 (typically at 11 years).

Assessment at this point is carried out by the teacher, following strict statutory guidelines set out by the Department for Education (DfE 2015b). This used to be principally focused on the child’s normal reading and writing activities in the classroom, supplemented by data from a short reading task and a short composition, judged in terms of meeting the requirements of the various Levels of the National Curriculum. (Level 2, originally conceived of as the mean level of achievement for children at 6-7 years, became the level deemed appropriate for all to achieve at this age.) In 2015, 90% of children reached Level 2 in reading, compared with 85% in 2010. In writing, 88% achieved Level 2, compared with 81% in 2010 (DfE, 2015g).

However, from 2016, when the first cohort completes Key Stage 1 under the new National Curriculum, which does not have a framework of levels of achievement, assessment in English at the end of Key Stage 1 takes the form of two externally set tests, one on reading and the other on spelling, punctuation and grammar (STA, 2014). So, rather than being presented in terms of levels, the raw scores of these tests are to be converted into scaled scores (STA, 2014).

#### *Assessment at the end of Key Stage 2*

Assessment of reading at the end of Key Stage 2 has, for some years, been carried out by a test that is externally set and marked. Scores rose significantly from 1997 to 2015. 'Level 4', the level expected for the age group (10-11 years), was achieved by 89% in 2015, compared with 83% in 2010, and 67% in 1997. Since 2013, students at the end of Key Stage 2 have also taken a test in spelling, punctuation and grammar. Externally-set tests for writing were replaced by teacher assessment in 2012, so the 2015 scores, which show that 87% achieved Level 4, cannot be compared to figures for 2010, or 1997 (DfE, 2015h). Passes on the test of grammar, punctuation and spelling for children at the end of Key Stage 2 rose from 74% when the test was first introduced in 2013, to 80% in 2015 (DfE, 2015h).

From 2016, as do those at the end of Key Stage 1, students at the end of Key Stage 2 take two tests, one on reading and one on spelling, punctuation and grammar. Results of these tests are also reported as scaled scores, not National Curriculum levels.

## 4.2 Adolescents

We need to be concerned that, as the *National Literacy Trust's* series of surveys has established, England's adolescents read substantially less in 2011 than they did six years earlier (Clark & Foster, 2005; Clark, 2012). Although young people in 2011 say that they enjoy reading as much as young people have since 2005, they now do it less often on a daily basis. Indeed, reading increasingly loses out to other leisure activities. Whereas 4 people out of 10 read daily out of school in 2005, by 2011 this had fallen to 3 out of 10. Comparing reading choices in 2005 and 2011, reading across all formats had fallen – with the exception of text messages. This is not simply about young people shifting their reading patterns from paper to digital as technology-based reading (such as reading of websites and emails) also decreased (Clark, 2012).

The following performance data are derived from the OECD PISA study.

The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) led by OECD<sup>7</sup> **assesses the skills and knowledge of 15-year-old students every three years in all OECD countries and** in a number of partner countries.

Since 2000, PISA has been testing students in reading, mathematics and science. The OECD assessment also collects information on students' backgrounds and on practices, motivational attributes and metacognitive strategies related to reading.

The PISA tests assess different aspects of reading literacy – retrieve information, interpret, reflect and evaluate on texts – and use a variety of texts – continuous (prose) and non-continuous (texts including graphs, tables, maps...). About half of the questions are multiple-choice, the other half open-ended (short or constructed answers). Results are reported on scales defining different levels of proficiency ranging from 1 (low performing) to 6 (high performing). Level 2 is considered as the level all 15-year-olds should reach, and will enable them to participate effectively to society. Since 2015, PISA has been administered on computers only in most participating countries.

The follow-up of students who were assessed by PISA in 2000 as part of the Canadian Youth in Transition Survey has shown that students scoring below Level 2 face a disproportionately higher risk of poor post-secondary participation or low labour market outcomes at age 19, and even more so at age 21, the latest age for which data from this longitudinal study are currently available. For example, of students who performed below Level 2 in PISA reading in 2000, over 60% did not go on to any post-school education by the age of 21; by contrast, more than half of the students (55%) whose highest level was Level 2 attended college or university (OECD 2010, p. 52).

### 4.2.1 Performance and variation in reading: Proportion of low- and high-performing readers

England has participated in PISA since 2000, as part of the UK. PISA has yielded separate data for the UK's four component countries. It is therefore possible to describe changes in England in average reading performance over twelve years, according to different characteristics of the readers. However, the PISA scores in 2000 and 2003 were based on samples that did not meet the PISA standards for response rates, and so cannot reliably be used for comparison. In 2012, with a score of 500, England performed significantly above the EU average of 489, though a number of EU countries, including Finland, Ireland, Poland and Estonia had significantly higher mean scores.

---

<sup>7</sup> See <http://www.pisa.OECD.org>.

Table 10: Mean Reading performance in PISA 2012 – England and Average

	Mean	S.E.
England	<b>500</b>	(4.2)
EU-27	489	(0.6)

S. E. = standard error; Significant differences between the country and the EU's average shown in **bold**

As shown in Table 11, England's 2012 average performance (500) is very similar to its performance in 2006 and 2009 and broadly follows the pattern of other EU countries on average over this period. None of the changes in performance in England was statistically significant. However, there were significant improvements on average across EU countries between 2009 and 2012, and between 2006 and 2012 (though these mainly arise because the EU-average standard errors are considerably smaller than those of England).

Table 11: Trends in Reading Performance - PISA 2000-2012

	2006	2009	2012	Change 2009– 2006	Change 2012– 2009	Change 2012– 2006
	Mean S.E.	Mean S.E.	Mean S.E.	Mean Diff S.E.D.	Mean Diff S.E.D.	Mean Diff S.E.D.
England	496 (2.7)	495 (2.8)	500 (4.2)	-1 (3.7)	+5 5.0	+4 (4.9)
EU-27	484** (0.5)	486** (0.6)	489*** (0.6)	<b>+2</b> (0.8)	<b>+3</b> (0.9)	<b>+5</b> (0.8)

S.E. = Standard Error; S.E.D = Standard Error of the Difference; Significant differences between assessment cycles in **bold** \*EU21 \*\*EU26 \*\*\*EU27

The small net gain identified of 3 points between 2006 and 2012 is based on more robust data than the apparent decline of 24 points between 2000 and 2012.

In England, the spread of achievement between the 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles is 249 score points – equivalent to several years of schooling. The corresponding EU average difference is 251. This can be interpreted as indicating that overall outcomes in England are as equitable as on average across EU countries. The difference between the 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles for girls in England is some 14 points greater than the EU average difference and is statistically significant. The opposite pattern occurs for boys, where the difference is higher across EU countries, but is not significantly different from the difference in England.

Table 12: Spread of Achievement. Difference between 10th and 90th Percentiles on the Reading Scale, All students and by Gender – PISA 2012 – England and EU Average

	Difference 90 <sup>th</sup> –10 <sup>th</sup> for all students		Difference 90 <sup>th</sup> –10 <sup>th</sup> for girls		Difference 90 <sup>th</sup> –10 <sup>th</sup> for boys	
	Score diff.	S.E.	Score diff.	S.E.	Score diff.	S.E.
England	249	(7.8)	<b>246</b>	(7.6)	250	(10.9)
EU-27	251	(1.3)	230	(1.2)	259	(1.6)

Significant differences between the country and EU in **bold**

In England there are fewer low-performing readers and rather more top-performing readers than in the EU on average. While England is successful in developing high-performing readers, more attention needs to be given to those at the other end of the achievement spectrum.

Table 13: Percentage of low-performing (below level 2) and high-performing (levels 5 and 6) students - PISA 2012 – England and EU Average

	Below level 2		Levels 5 and 6	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
England	<b>17.0</b>	(1.4)	<b>8.9</b>	(0.8)
EU-27	19.7	(0.2)	7.0	(0.1)

Significant differences between the country and EU in **bold**

Between 2009 and 2012, the proportion of low-performing readers dropped in England by 1.6%, with corresponding drops for girls (0.3%) and boys (2.1%). None of these differences reached statistical significance.

Table 14: Trends in the Proportion of Low Performers (below Level 2) in Reading, all students, and by Gender – PISA 2009-2012 - England

	Proportion of students below level 2 in reading					
	All students		Girls		Boys	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
2009	18.6	(0.8)	14.2	(0.9)	23.3	(1.3)
2012	17.0	(1.4)	13.9	(1.4)	20.1	(1.8)

### 1.2.2 Gaps in reading performance

As at primary level, there are gaps in the performance of students in England related to socio-economic status, gender, migrant status and language.

#### Socio-economic status

In England, the gap in reading performance related to the students' socioeconomic background is somewhat higher than the European average.

Table 15: Difference in Reading Performance between Bottom and Top National Quarters of the PISA Index of Economic, Social and Cultural Status – PISA 2009

	Difference between bottom and top national quarters of the PISA index of economic, social and cultural status	
	Score diff.	
England	<b>93</b>	
EU-26	<b>89</b>	

Significant differences in reading performance between bottom and top national quarters in **bold**

## Migration

In England, the percentage of students with an immigrant background is 12%, higher than the EU average of 8%. The gap between native students and those with an immigrant background is 24 score points - equivalent to a half year of schooling. This gap is somewhat lower than on average across EU.

Table 16: Percentage of Students and Reading Performance by Immigrant Status – PISA 2009

	Native students		Students with an immigrant background (first- or second-generation)				Difference in reading performance between native and students with an immigrant background		
	Percentage of students	Performance on the reading scale		Percentage of students	S.E.	Performance on the reading scale		Score dif.	S.E.
		Mean	S.E.			Mean	S.E.		
England	88	500	(2.7)	12	(1.2)	476	(7.9)	<b>24</b>	(8.1)
EU-26	91.7	490	(0.4)	8.3	(0.0)	452	(6.4)	<b>38</b>	(6.4)

Significant differences between native and students with an immigrant background in **bold**

## Language spoken at home

In England the gap between students speaking the test language at home and those who do not (6.5% of the students) is slightly lower than the EU average (Table 17). It is equivalent to slightly more than one year of schooling (46 score points).

Table 17: Percentage of Students and Reading Performance by Language Spoken at Home – PISA 2012 – England and EU Average

	Speak test language at home		Speak another language at home				Difference in reading according to language spoken at home		
	Percentage of students	Performance on the reading scale		Percentage of students	S.E.	Performance on the reading scale		Score dif.	S.E.
		Mean	S.E.			Mean	S.E.		
England	93.5	499	(2.4)	6.5	(0.6)	453	(8.6)	<b>46</b>	(8.7)
EU-27	86.7	494	(0.4)	13.3	(0.0)	441	(5.4)	<b>54</b>	(5.4)

Significant differences according to language spoken at home in **bold**

## Gender

In PISA 2009, the gender difference in reading performance in the England (25 points in favour of girls) was lower than in EU countries on average (44 points) (Table 18).

Table 18: Mean Reading Performance by Gender and Gender Differences – PISA 2009

	Boys		Girls		Difference (B – G)	
	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Score diff.	S.E.
England	482	(4.3)	507	(3.5)	<b>-25</b>	(5.4)
EU-26	463	(0.5)	506	(0.4)	<b>-44</b>	(0.5)

Significant differences between boys and girls in **bold**

Table 19 shows trends in performance by gender. The 2000 figures should be treated with caution so the average decrease in reading performance of -26 points, observed between 2000 and 2012, may be more apparent than real. However, it is interesting to note that it is equivalent among boys and girls. This trend is different from that in EU countries, where on average over this period, the girls' performance increased by 5 score points while the boys' decreased by the same value.

Table 19: Trends in Reading Performance by Gender – PISA 2000-2012

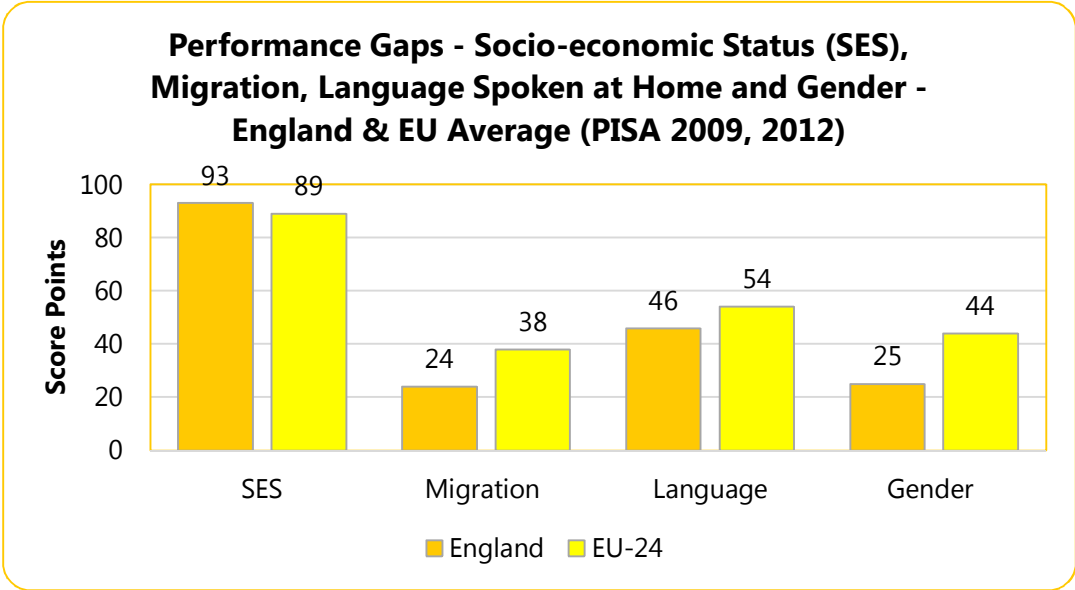
	England				EU-27			
	Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys	
	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.
2000	537	(3.8)	512	(3.4)	506*	(0.8)	473*	(0.9)
2009	<b>506</b>	(3.2)	<b>481</b>	(3.9)	507**	(0.7)	464**	(0.8)
2012	511	(4.1)	486	(5.0)	511***	(0.6)	468***	(0.8)

Significant differences between assessment cycles in **bold** \*EU21 \*\*EU26 \*\*\*EU27



Figure 3 summarises the gaps in performance for socioeconomic status, migration, language and gender.

Figure 3: Performance Gaps: SES, Migration, Language Spoken at Home and Gender – England and EU averages



Education: University – Lower Secondary or lower; Language: Language of test spoken always – sometimes/never; Gender: Girls – Boys.

**Engagement and metacognition**

PISA 2009 generated an index of engagement in reading, based on student responses to a series of statements about their involvement in reading activities. In England, there is a gap of 115 score points – which is equivalent to almost three years of schooling - between the students who report being highly engaged in reading (the top quarter), and those who report being poorly engaged (the bottom quarter) (Table 20). Not surprisingly, students who report being highly engaged in reading perform better in the PISA test. The difference between the most and the least engaged readers in England (115) is higher than the EU average (99).

Table 20: Mean Reading Scores between Poorly Engaged and Highly Engaged Students in Reading – PISA 2009 – England and EU Average

	Bottom quarter		Top quarter		Difference
	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	
England	447	(3.5)	561	(2.8)	<b>115</b>
EU-26	444	(0.8)	543	(0.8)	<b>99</b>

Significant differences according to the level of reading engagement in **bold**.

PISA 2009 also developed indices for students’ knowledge of strategies for understanding and remembering texts, and for summarising texts. In England, there is a gap of 85 score points - equivalent to two years of schooling- between the students who know which strategies are the most efficient for understanding and remembering a text, and those who have a limited knowledge of this. This difference reflects the close link between reading proficiency and awareness of efficient reading strategies. On average, in the EU, the gap is rather higher (98 score points).

Table 21: Mean PISA 2009 Reading Scores Differences between Students in Top and Bottom Quarters of Understanding and Remembering Strategies Index – England and EU Average

	Bottom quarter		Top quarter		Difference
	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	
England	447	(3.2)	532	(3.2)	<b>85</b>
EU-26	433	(0.8)	531	(0.8)	<b>98</b>

Significant differences according to the degree of awareness of efficient reading strategies (understanding and remembering strategies) in **bold**.

There is a gap of 91 score points in England – equivalent to more than two years of schooling - between the students who know which strategies are the most efficient to summarise a text, and those who have a limited knowledge of that. This large difference reflects how closely reading awareness of efficient reading strategies and proficiency are linked. This gap in England is similar to the average gap across EU countries (90).

Table 22: Mean PISA 2009 Reading Score Differences between Students in the Top and Bottom Quarters of Summarising Strategies

	Low quarter		Top quarter		Difference
	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	
England	442	(2.9)	533	(2.9)	<b>91</b>
EU-26	440	(0.8)	530	(0.7)	<b>90</b>

Significant differences according to the degree of awareness of reading strategies (summarising strategies) in **bold**.

### **In-country assessment**

Secondary school students in England usually sit the examinations for the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) at the end of key Stage 4, at the age of 15 or 16. In 2015, 52.8% of the age group achieved passes at A\* to C in 5 or more subjects, including mathematics and English, scores taken to indicate suitability for further academic study. In 2010, 53.4% achieved passes in the same subjects at this level, while the corresponding figure for 1997 was 35.6%. Passes in 5 or more subjects, also including mathematics and English, but at the lower level of A\* to G, were achieved by 85.2% in 2015, as against 88.8% in 2010 and 83.9% in 1997. In 2015 2.2% of secondary students did not achieve any passes at G or above in the GCSE examinations (as against 0.9% in 2010 and 7.7% in 1997) (DfE, 2015c).

It should be noted that pass levels were adjusted in 2014, making them more demanding. However, England still has a stubbornly high percentage of secondary students failing to achieve A to G passes in 5 subjects including mathematics and English.

## 5 Policy areas

The EU High Level Group of Experts on Literacy (2012, p. 38) recommended that all EU Member States should focus on the following areas as they craft their own literacy solutions:

- Creating a more literate environment
- Improving the quality of teaching
- Increasing participation, inclusion and equity (the term “equity” was added by ELINET).

The following parts refer to these three key issues, though some overlap may occur.

In order to achieve as much comparability as possible across countries, quantitative and qualitative indicators are reported for which information from international data is available. Appendix A provides more information on criteria for the choice of indicators and the chosen indicators for the pre-primary age group. For each of these indicators Appendix B contains a table with numbers of the European countries participating in ELINET. Appendix C has been created using the international database for PIRLS 2011 – and contains separate tables for all information reported. If countries did not participate in PIRLS 2011, data for PIRLS 2006 are referred to. Appendix D offers this information for the PIRLS 2006 data.

### 5.1 Creating a literate environment for children and adolescents

The EU High Level Group of Experts on Literacy stated the following in relation to ***creating a more literate environment***:

Creating a more literate environment will help stimulate a culture of reading, i.e. where **reading for pleasure** is seen as the norm for all children and adults. Such a culture will fuel reading motivation and reading achievement: people who like to read, read more. Because they read more, they read better, and because they read better they read more: a virtuous circle which benefits individuals, families and society as a whole. (HLG report 2012, p. 41)

Parents play a central role in children’s emergent literacy development. They are the first teachers, and shape children’s language and communication abilities and attitudes to reading by being good reading role models, providing reading materials, and reading to the child.

Schools play an important role in offering a literate environment for students. Schools may foster reading motivation and reading for pleasure by establishing school and classroom libraries, offering a wide variety of books and other reading material in different genres, providing sheltered and comfortable spaces for individual reading activities (like reading clubs), and allowing children to express and exchange their individual (intimate) reading experiences if they wish to do so.

However, schools do not have sole responsibility. A broad range of actors may shape literacy motivation, from parents and peers to libraries. Parents may provide role models and influence children’s attitudes towards literacy practices. Also, libraries have a vital role if they offer free books, especially for families who cannot afford to buy books. Regional or national campaigns may inspire children and their parents to engage in reading activities (Cf. ELINET Country Reports, Frame of Reference, pp. 29ff).

Adolescence is a crucial phase in life where young people develop long-term *identities and self-concepts* that include media preferences and practices (*media identity*). In this perspective, it is of great

importance that families, schools and communities offer young people rich opportunities to encounter the *culture of reading* and develop a stable *self-concept as a reader/writer* and member of a literary culture. This includes access to a broad variety of reading materials (in print and electronic forms) and stimulating literate environments in and outside schools; it also includes opportunities to get actively involved in engaging with texts, and communicating, reflecting on and exchanging ideas about texts with peers and ‘competent others’, such as teachers or parents (Ibid., pp. 45f).

### **5.1.1 Providing a literate environment at home**

The **home learning environment**, particularly in the first three years, is extremely important (Brooks et al. 2012). It determines the quantity and quality of interactions between the infant and the primary caregivers, who are the most powerful agents of language development, both receptive and expressive, in the context of everyday activities and experiences. During these years, experience-dependent creation of synapses is maximal. We know that the more words the children are exposed to, the more they can learn. Caregiver-child relations in their turn strongly influence the ability to learn, by influencing self-esteem, general knowledge and motivation.

#### **Parental attitudes to reading**

Since England did not administer the PIRLS Home Questionnaire, no internationally comparable data are available concerning parental attitudes to reading, or the number of parents engaging in literacy activities with the child before the beginning of primary school. In a report for the National Literacy Trust, Formby reports:

*All parents except group AB [higher socio-economic status] are more likely to say that their child enjoys reading a lot compared to their own enjoyment of reading. In addition, parents of lower socioeconomic status are less likely than all other groups to say that both they (57.1%) and their child (65.5%) enjoy reading a lot. (Formby, 2014, p. 16)*

#### **Home Educational Resources**

As England did not administer the PIRLS Home (Parent) questionnaire in 2011, no data are available on home resources for learning, except for the information provided by pupils on the numbers of books in their homes (see below). National data are the source of most of the following information.

#### **Number of children’s books in the home**

PIRLS 2011 offers two sets of data concerning books in the home: The first refers to numbers of children’s books in the home, as reported by parents, the second refers to books in the home (regardless of whether they are children’s books or not), as reported by students. For the reason given just above, only the second set of data is available for England. In England, 9% of students reported having 10 or fewer books at home, compared with an EU-24 average of 11% (Table 23). More pupils in England (15%) reported having over 200 books than on average across EU countries (12%). In England, the achievement gap between those with 0-10 books and those with 200+ books is 98 points. This is greater than the EU average of 82 points and may be important in interpreting the tail of underachievement in England.

Table 23: Mean Overall Reading Scores of Pupil in England with 0-10 books at Home, and those with More than 200 Books – England and EU-24 Average

Books in the Home	None or Few Books (0-10)		More than 200 Books		Mean Score Difference (More than 200 – None or few)
	Per cent of Students	Mean Reading Score	Per cent of Students	Mean Reading Score	
England	9	486	15	584	<b>98</b>
EU-24	11	482	12	563	<b>82</b>

Statistically significant mean score differences in **bold**.

Note: No data are available for England on level of home resources or percentage of parents with higher education, as England did not administer the PIRLS 2011 Home (Parent) Questionnaire.

The absence of PIRLS information from parents is compensated somewhat by national data concerning the number of children’s books in the home. In 2014, the National Literacy Trust published its second Early Years Literacy Survey investigating the literacy experiences of children in the 3 to 5 age range. Through interviewing 1,012 parents of children in this age range and 567 early years practitioners, the survey found that 99.7% of the children had access to children’s books at home, while 91.4% had access to a touch screen at home. They also found that 71.7% of children looked at or read stories at home every day in a typical week (Formby, 2014).

While there are no data for England on the PIRLS Early Literacy Activity Scale (a measure of parental engagement with children in literacy activities prior to the beginning of formal schooling), *Effective provision of Pre-School Education* (EPPE), a longitudinal study involving more than 3,000 children, funded by England’s Department for Education, has provided substantial data on the relation between the pre-school home learning environment and subsequent academic success (Sylva et al., 2004). The investigators identified the features of a positive home learning environment as including:

*reading with the child, teaching songs and nursery rhymes, painting and drawing, playing with letters and numbers, visiting the library, teaching the alphabet and numbers.* (Sylva et al., 2004, p. 5)

They concluded that:

*The home learning environment was only moderately associated with parents’ educational or occupational level and was more strongly associated with children’s intellectual and social development than either parental education or occupation.* (Sylva et al., 2004, p. 5)

This project provided mean figures (16.4 on a scale of 0 to 31), for the number of such activities engaged in by the slightly skewed population studied (skewed towards both extremes of educational achievement and income) but not figures indicating the numbers of parents who almost never or never engaged in these activities.

**Challenges:** Since reading to the child is a predictor of future literacy achievement, it is a matter of concern that there are differences between parents that relate to social class and migrant factors. There is a need for programmes **to engage all parents and raise their awareness of** literacy as a key to learning and life chances and that the basis for good literacy achievement is laid in early childhood. In particular there is a need for more family literacy programmes with **a focus on supporting migrant**

**parents and carers** in understanding and fostering and enjoying the literacy development of their children.

### 5.1.2 Providing a literate environment in school

England's National Curriculum specifies that children must be given access to a wide range of reading materials (books, poems, and other written materials) that stimulate children's interest in literacy and help them develop their reading and writing skills (DfE, 2014a, 2014b.).

According to PIRLS 2011, there was a major emphasis on reading for pleasure in the intended language/reading curriculum in England. England was among a group of 9 countries participating in PIRLS 2011 that reported this, while four of the EU-24 countries in PIRLS 2011 reported that reading for pleasure was given little or no emphasis, and 11 countries that it had some emphasis (Mullis et al. 2012b, Vol.1, exhibit 9, p. 36).

One of the stated aims of the current curriculum for English in England is to "*develop the habit of reading widely and often, for both pleasure and information*" (DfE, 2014a, p. 3). This aim is shown in the curriculum content, for example, the Key Stage 1 Year 1 programme of study lists the following key requirement for reading comprehension:

*Pupils should be taught to develop pleasure in reading, motivation to read, vocabulary and understanding, by listening to and discussing a wide range of poems, stories, and non-fiction at a level beyond that at which they can read independently.* (DfE, 2014a, p. 11)

However, the accompanying assessment systems on which schools are judged focus heavily on technical competence – decoding isolated words and non-words in the *Phonics Screening Check* (taken by 5- to 6-year-olds); literal and low-level inferential comprehension in the two reading papers (posing different levels of difficulty) of the Key Stage 1 National Curriculum Tests in reading, which are taken by 6- to 7-year-olds and also English grammar, punctuation and spelling in two tests on these topics (DfE, 2015d). There is no Key Stage 1 test in writing. In the Key Stage 2 tests, taken by 10- to 11-year-olds, there is a similar emphasis on technical skills. There is one reading test, which involves a series of short texts of increasing levels of difficulty and two tests on English grammar, punctuation and spelling, with a proclaimed focus on knowing and applying grammatical terminology (DfE, 2015e). Again, there is no writing test. The data from these tests contribute significantly to judgements made about schools' effectiveness, by the schools staff, local authorities and other interested parties and by inspectors.

**Challenges:** While England does indeed give emphasis in the curriculum to reading for pleasure, the use made of test data, through the DfE's RAISEonline, a computerised approach to recording and analysing key data, sends the message that technical aspects of reading and writing are more important (Ofsted, 2015a).

### Availability and use of classroom library

Based on data provided by their teachers, PIRLS shows that 87% of pupils in England were in classrooms that had a classroom library (Mullis et al. 2012a, exh. 8.13, p.240; EU averages from PIRLS 2011 database, s. Table H2 in Appendix C). 70% of students were in classrooms with more than 50 books, well above the EU-24 average of 21% (ibid.). In England, 73% of students were in classrooms where they could borrow books from the classroom library, compared with an EU-24 average of 57%.

Further, 62% of students in England were in classrooms whose teacher took them to a library other than the classroom library, at least monthly. This was about the same as the EU-24 average of 65%.

**Challenges:** While England scores well above the EU-24 average for access to books in school, generous book provision is still far from universal in England's schools. Access to school libraries outside the classroom could also be more widely distributed. However, access to public libraries is increasingly problematic: Local Authorities in England have a legal obligation to provide libraries and are not allowed to charge for book loans. Cuts have been imposed on library services throughout England that have resulted in many library closures and reduced services and reduced book purchasing in those that remain (Davies, 2013).

### 5.1.3 Providing a digital environment

#### Digital environment of primary and secondary students

A literate environment can also be created by incorporating digital devices, supported by appropriate pedagogy, into the school environment.

According to teachers' reports in PIRLS 2011, 50% of students in England have a computer available for reading lessons, compared to the EU-average of 45% (ELINET PIRLS 2011 Appendix C, Table I6). In England, 43% use a computer at least monthly to look up information. The corresponding EU-24 average is 40%. In England, 40% of students are in classrooms whose teachers report that the students use computers to write stories or other texts at least monthly. The corresponding EU-24 average is lower at 33%. England lags behind countries such as Denmark and Norway where use of computers in reading and writing is concerned. However, a recent PISA publication notes that improved access to computers does not necessarily lead to higher scores.

*Despite considerable investments in computers, Internet connections and software for educational use, there is little solid evidence that greater computer use among students leads to better scores in mathematics and reading. (OECD, 2015, p. 145)*

In 2014, a study commissioned by the education technology charity *Tablets for Schools* found that 68% of primary schools were using tablet computers (ITPRO, 2014). In 9% of schools there was an individual tablet device for every student. It is expected that the number of tablets in England's primary and secondary schools will have risen from 430,000 in 2014 to almost 900,000 in 2016.

Most classrooms in England also have interactive whiteboards, which also contribute to digital interaction. However, their potential for enlarging teacher's pedagogical repertoires and students' understanding of literacy and its uses, is not always fully exploited. Where their introduction has focused on technical matters, they have not significantly enhanced the teaching of literacy. The evaluation by Moss et al. of the educational and operational effectiveness of the *Whiteboard Expansion Project* in London (2007), carried out for the (then) Department for Education and Skills states:

*In some of the classrooms we observed IWBs were used to reinforce whole class teaching from the front, with limited dialogic episodes and little student interaction. Where there was interactivity in the classroom it was primarily technical. In other words interactivity was both discussed and measured in terms of technological skills, how often students came up to the board and how often they interacted with particular features (Drag and drop/cover and reveal). In these classrooms, interactivity has come to stand for interacting with the board itself, not manipulating the concepts the teacher is teaching.*

*The focus on interactivity as a technical process leads to some relatively mundane activities being seen as 'good' with interaction with the board appearing to stand for 'learning'. This kind of emphasis on interactivity was particularly prevalent in classes with lower ability students. Lessons with higher ability students tended to be less focused on getting students up to the board and less concerned with being seen to be interactive. (Moss et al., 2007, p. 41)*

The authors of a study of interactive whiteboards as a tool for children's collaborative learning, carried out jointly by Cambridge University and Cambridgeshire Local Authority, conclude:

*Teachers' professional development in the use of information and communications technology should necessarily be integrated with discussion of learning and teaching rather than focusing on technical skills alone. (Warwick and Kershner, 2008, p. 281)*

England was a participating country in the European project *Innovative Technologies for an Engaging Classroom (iTEC)*, which ran from 2012 to 2014 (iTEC, 2014). In 2014, a study commissioned by the education technology charity *Tablets for Schools* found that 69% of secondary schools were using tablet computers (ITPRO, 2014). In 9% of schools there was an individual tablet device for every student. It is expected that the number of tablets in England's primary and secondary schools will have risen from 430,000 in 2014 to almost 900,000 in 2016. A small number of schools use mobile phones as learning and teaching aids. Interactive whiteboards are in widespread use.

In 2009, the European Commission extended its concern with digital literacy to include media literacy, including such competencies, as critical evaluation and use of media content, and skills to create content (Council of the European Union, 2009). With a widespread concern with media literacy, England plays a large part in developing school practice in this area. However, it does not feature significantly in the National Curriculum.

**Challenges:** While England scored well above the EU-24 average for access to computers in primary school in 2011, there were still wide gaps in provision, with 50% of students not being given regular access to a computer for the purposes of reading and writing. More attention is also needed to teacher training in appropriate pedagogy.

#### **5.1.4 The role of public libraries in reading promotion**

Public libraries are an important agent in reading promotion. In 2011 the National Literacy Trust published a survey of public library use (Clark et al., 2011). This found that young people who use the public library tend to hold more positive attitudes towards reading than young people who do not use it (Clark et al., 2011, Table 6, p. 15). The same study reported that nearly four times as many young people who do not use the public library agree with the statement that reading is boring than do public library users. Similarly, non public library users are more likely to agree with the statements that they cannot find anything to read that interests them, that they only read in class, that they only read because they have to and that they do not read as well as other pupils in their class than are young people who use the school library.

The major reasons given by young people (both male and female) for not using the public library were: "My family does not go" and "My friends do not go" (Clark et al., 2011, Table 3, p. 11).

However, there were marked gender differences among those who did use the library: girls were significantly more likely than boys to say that they use the public library because it has interesting materials and materials other than books, their family goes, it is a friendly space that also has



computers, it has clubs and because they saw how good it was when their family showed them around. More girls than boys also said that they go to public libraries because they believe it makes them better at school (Clark et al., 2011, Table 4, p. 12).

Meanwhile, all library authorities have, over the past 15 years, developed a number of initiatives to attract and involve teenagers in reading, through creative activities, focusing on popular authors, graphic novels and magazines as well as more conventional texts. Many libraries offer popular quizzes, competitions and games.

### **Cooperation between secondary schools, families, libraries and other agents in literacy promotion for adolescents.**

The *Reading Agency* is an organisation founded to explore new solutions to the social issues caused by literacy problems. Its main focus is on expanding the role of public libraries in helping people become confident readers. In addition to its established programmes for pre-school and primary children and those aimed at adults, the *Reading Agency* has recently launched a programme called *Reading Hack* (Reading Agency, 2015b), generously supported by the Paul Hamlyn Foundation, which is both led by and aimed at young people in the 13 to 24 age-range. The programme is intended to inspire young people to read and to share their love of reading through developing activities ('hacks') with reading at their heart. A hack could be, for example, a poetry-themed DJ set, book-related film making, novel-inspired *Minecraft* or helping others to read. A number of secondary schools and 54 library authorities (out of a national total of 174) signed up for the pilot *Reading Hack*, which took place between September and December 2014.

**Challenges:** The Labour government set up the School Library Commission in 2010, which produced the report *School Libraries: A plan for improvement* (Morris et al., 2010). This concluded that "*An effective school library acting as a powerhouse of learning and reading within a school is a unique resource.*" (Morris et al., 2010, p. 20). However, this report also observed that while the high-performing library has a powerful role in promoting reading, in many schools the library is a wasted resource, poorly embedded in the school's infrastructure. There is now also a funding problem. As noted above, provision for both public libraries and school libraries has been much reduced in England in recent years (Voices for the Library, 2015).

### **5.1.5 Improving literate environments for children and adolescents: Programmes, initiatives and examples**

#### **Family literacy programmes**

The Department for Education has funded the National Literacy Trust to develop a peer-led initiative to support parenting skills that impact on early literacy skills. *Early Words Together* has been evaluated by the University of Coventry (Wood et al., 2015), and is delivered by children's centres and community volunteers work with targeted families through 6 structured sessions over 6 weeks to empower parents to support the early literacy development of their children between the ages of 2-5 (NLT, 2014).

A government-funded scheme, *Bookstart Corner*, organised by the Book Trust, is an intervention programme for children aged 12 to 24 months, designed to address potential learning and literacy problems of children at risk of school failure, and to create or strengthen links between children's families and a wide range of resources and support services. It is specifically targeted at those families, identified in terms of economic and social disadvantage, that are less likely to read with their children.

It involves a gift of books and is delivered through children's centres, but conducted by practitioners in the family home (Book Trust, 2015b).

The sister programme *Bookstart* also supports disadvantaged families through the universal elements of its book gifting programme for babies and 3-year-olds, gifted respectively through health and early years professionals (Book Trust, 2015b). This programme has also been evaluated and shown to have a positive impact on the families involved (Book Trust, 2015c).

While support for teenage mothers was widely available through the *Sure Start* programme, this programme was significantly reduced by the Coalition Government, which came to power in 2010. However, a number of *Sure Start* centres continue to operate. The Department for Education says:

*The core purpose of Sure Start children's centres is to improve outcomes for young children and their families, with a particular focus on those in greatest need* (DfE, 2014g, p. 1).

The *Family Nurse Partnership* (FNP) (NHS, 2015), launched in 2007, is delivered by the National Health Service to parents under the age of 19 (based on the robustly evaluated Nurse Family Partnership model from the US). FNP has had a demonstrable impact on attachment and is therefore important for early language acquisition. It is a voluntary home visiting programme for first-time young mothers aged 19 and under (and fathers). A specially trained family nurse visits the young mother regularly from early pregnancy until the child is two years old.

The Department for Communities and Local Government's *Troubled Families* programme, launched in 2011, works with over 100,000 families who face multiple issues and where the parents are unemployed. It is intended to change the repeating generational patterns of poor parenting, abuse, violence, drug use, anti-social behaviour and crime in the most troubled families in the UK, with the government investing some £4,000 per family over 3 years, and each family having an assigned family worker. The programme is designed at a local level and in some areas incorporates literacy support (LGA, 2012).

*FAST* (Families and Schools Together) is an award-winning early intervention programme that supports children's early learning at home. Parents and children attend eight weekly sessions where they learn how to manage their stress and reduce their isolation, become more involved in their children's school, develop a warm and supportive relationship with their child and encourage their child's pro-social behaviour. Delivered by Save the Children, the National Literacy Trust has designed literacy content for the programme (FAST, 2015).

### **Programmes for introducing parents and children to libraries and bookshops**

In 2012 The Arts Council of England launched a pilot programme in 22 areas, to enrol all children in the area into public library membership. The pilot areas tried different models. Although this has not been taken up into a national scheme in England many local areas have developed their own programmes based on the pilots (Gov. UK, 2012).

Many public libraries have story-telling programmes and other initiatives aimed at young children. The *Summer Reading Challenge* has successfully involved many thousands of children aged 4 to 11 (nearly 800,000 in 2014) in reading six self-chosen books over the summer school holidays (The Reading Agency, 2015a).

However, such initiatives are threatened by recent cuts to library services (Voices for the Library, 2015). Current initiatives also tend to focus on the lower end of the age group, when it is those in the teenage years who are most at risk of losing interest in reading.

### **Initiatives to foster reading engagement among children and adolescents**

In 2011, while 73% of children in Key Stage 2 (7 to 11-year-olds) said they enjoyed reading, only 47.2% of those in Key Stage 3 (11 to 14-year-olds) made the same claim and for Key Stage 4 (14 to 16-year-olds) the figure dropped alarmingly to 34.4% (Clark, 2012). Yet substantial initiatives to foster engagement, such as *Bookstart* and *Bookstart Corner* are directed towards the youngest children. Promotion initiatives for older children, such as the Summer Reading Challenge, tend to be directed towards those who are already competent and, to a degree, committed. It seems there is a real need for sustained concerted action to promote reading in secondary school and beyond.

The Reading Agency's *Chatterbooks* (Reading Agency, 2015e) is a national network of reading groups for children and young people aged from 4 to 14 years. *Chatterbooks* groups are run in libraries and schools, and other places where children gather to do fun and creative activities. Its patron is top children's author Dame Jacqueline Wilson, the UK Children's Laureate from 2013 to 2015. *Chatterbooks* groups support children's literacy development by encouraging them to enjoy reading and talking about books.

Developed with expert librarians and teachers, *Chatterbooks* gives schools a best practice model for running reading groups. Being part of this network provides teachers and librarians with ready to use resources, ideas for fun, creative sessions and promotions from leading publishers featuring the best in children's books.

*Chatterbooks* sessions are designed to give children confidence in speaking, writing and reading in a group, choosing books for themselves, and talking about what they like to read. It is used in school in a variety of ways – for example in supporting Reading recovery; engaging boys in reading; with gifted and talented children; or supporting transition from primary to secondary school.

The *Book Trust* aims to interest the wider public in reading, partly through its *Bookfinder* pages, on the Book Trust's website, which offer an age specific service, guiding visitors to books grouped by age and theme, complemented by reviews, interviews and writing tips (Book Trust, 2015a).

The web page [www.whichbook.net](http://www.whichbook.net) is aimed at adults and provides an interface where interested readers can choose the kind of book they would like to read by positioning a marker on various slides, such as happy to sad, or funny to serious. It then suggests a number of titles. Alternatively, the user can input the profile of a desired protagonist and find books that fit the description. The service includes a wide range of books, but is not targeted directly at adolescents (Whichbook, 2015).

### **Offering attractive reading material for children and adolescents in print and non-print**

With more than 20 new titles published every hour in 2014, the UK publishes more books per capita than any other country, by a huge margin, with only the US and China publishing more in absolute terms (IPA, 2014). The United Kingdom is fortunate in being home to a very large number of gifted writers and illustrators for children and young people and also an adventurous publishing industry. However, in recent years funds for schools and libraries to buy new titles have been significantly reduced.

The School Library Association (SLA, 2015) sets desirable standards for secondary school libraries, concerning the number of staff needed and their level of qualification, status and entitlement to CPD. It also makes stipulations about space and budget, recommending the allocation of £15 per pupil per annum for book purchase. However, the many competing claims on school funds leave most libraries far short of this figure.

### **Fostering digital literacy in and outside schools**

The word 'digital' does not feature in the curriculum document for the Early Years Foundation Stage, but there is a (rather vague) reference to technology. The section on 'Understanding the world' includes a brief entry under 'technology'

*children recognise that a range of technology is used in places such as homes and schools. They select and use technology for particular purposes. (DfES, 2014b, p. 12)*

There is a similarly passing reference in the section on 'Expressive arts and design'.

The new National Curriculum in England for the compulsory school years requires pupils to leave school digitally literate, which it defines as being able to use and express themselves through information and communication technology, at a level suitable for the future workplace and as active participants in a digital world (DfE 2014e). Much of this learning is accomplished in lessons on computing, one of the Foundation Subjects at Key Stage 3.

As noted above, a high proportion of England's school students have access to a computer or tablet at home.

**Challenges:** While England has developed an admirable set of programmes for introducing young children to books, rather less is done for those of secondary age and beyond. If young people are to continue to like books and reading, they need to be encouraged and supported to do so.

## **5.2 Improving the quality of teaching**

To improve the quality of teaching, important aspects must be considered:

- the quality of preschool
- coherent literacy curricula
- high-quality reading instruction
- early identification of and support for struggling literacy learners
- highly qualified teachers (cf. Frame of Reference for ELINET Country Reports).

Especially crucial is the quality of teaching and of teachers, as the McKinsey report *How the World's Best Performing School Systems Come out on Top* (McKinsey 2007, p.17) states: "*The quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers.*"

### **5.2.1 Quality of preschool**

While early childhood education was neglected as a public issue for many years, nowadays early childhood education and care (ECEC) is recognised as important for:

*better child well-being and learning outcomes as a foundation for lifelong learning; more equitable child outcomes and reduction of poverty; increased intergenerational social mobility; more female labour market participation; increased fertility rates; and better social and economic development for the society at large (OECD 2012 III, p. 9).*

In all European countries pre-primary education is an important part of political reflection and action.

The EU High Level Group of Experts on Literacy stated:

*Increasing investment in high-quality ECEC is one of the best investments Member States can make in Europe's future human capital. 'High quality' means highly-qualified staff and a curriculum focused on language development through play with an emphasis on language, psychomotor and social development, and emerging literacy skills, building on children's natural developmental stages (HLG,2012, p. 59).*

While there is no international or Europe-wide agreed concept of ECEC quality, there is agreement that quality is a complex concept and has different dimensions which are interrelated. In this report we focus on *structural quality* which refers to characteristics of the whole system, e.g. the financing of pre-primary education, the relation of staff to children, regulations for the qualifications and training of the staff, and the design of the curriculum. There are some data concerning structural quality, but there is a lack of research and data about process quality, practices in ECEC institutions, the relation between children and teachers, and what children actually experience in their institutions and programmes.

### **Annual expenditure on pre-primary education**

According to Eurostat (2014, Figure D3), the total public expenditure per child in pre-primary education as a percentage of GDP in United Kingdom is 0.3%. This puts the UK in the lowest third of the distribution. The percentages range from 0.04% in Turkey and 0.1% in Ireland, to 1.01% in Denmark (for an overview of European countries see table D1 in Appendix B).

### **Number of children attending day care and preschool institutions**

According to *Eurydice* (EACEA, 2014a, Figure C1 p.62), the enrolment rate at age 4 in England is 97%. Thus England reaches the European benchmark of at least 95% of children between age 4 and the start of compulsory education participating in Early Childhood Education and Care (for an overview of European countries see table C1 in Appendix B).

The OECD *Family Database* offers more differentiated figures of participation rates at age 3, 4 and 5. According to 2010 statistical data, the participation rate in the United Kingdom is 99.4% for 5-year-olds, 97.9% for 4-year-olds, and 83.0% for 3-year-olds (OECD, 2014a). (For an overview of European countries see table C2 in Appendix B). However, it should be noted that England's pre-school provision is much less in terms of hours than school provision: "All 3 to 4 year-olds in England can get 570 hours of free early education or childcare per year. This is usually taken as 15 hours each week for 38 weeks of the year" (Gov. UK, 2014a, p. 1).

### **Ratio of children to teachers in pre-primary school**

According to *Education at a Glance 2014* (OECD 2014b, p. 451) the student/teacher ratio in pre-primary schools for children at the age of four in the United Kingdom is 19:1 (however, the ratio of children to all contact staff including teachers' aides is 12:1).

For the other European countries, the OECD (2014b p. 324) provides information about the student/teacher ratio in pre-primary schools (For an overview of European countries see table D2 in Appendix B).

### **Percentage of males among preschool teachers**

According to Education at a Glance (OECD, 2014b), 5.0% of the pre-primary teachers in England are males. The percentages range from 0.2% in Bulgaria and Hungary, to 17% in France. (For an overview of European countries see table D3 in Appendix B.)

### **Preschool teachers' qualifications**

To gain early years teacher status (EYTS) and thus be eligible to teach children in the 3 to 5 age-range, there are four training routes available, with a School Direct option for graduate entry:

- undergraduate entry – a full-time three- to four-year route leading to EYTS for those studying for a degree in an early childhood-related subject;
- graduate entry – (for those with an honours degree) – typically involves a year of full-time study at a university or college;
- School Direct (Early Years) graduate entry – training within a group of schools or nurseries;
- graduate employment-based – a one-year part-time route for graduates working in an early years setting who need further training to demonstrate the Teachers' Standards (Early Years).

(DfE, 2015i)

All teachers qualified to teach Early Years must:

- have a secure knowledge of the relevant subject(s) and curriculum areas, foster and maintain pupils' interest in the subject, and address misunderstandings;
- demonstrate a critical understanding of developments in the subject and curriculum areas, and promote the value of scholarship;
- demonstrate an understanding of and take responsibility for promoting high standards of literacy, articulacy and the correct use of standard English, whatever the teacher's specialist subject;
- if teaching early reading, demonstrate a clear understanding of systematic synthetic phonics.

(UCET et al., 2012; DfE, 2015f)

### **Quality Assurance**

The Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted) regulates and inspects all settings that provide early childhood education and care, in accordance with the provisions of the Childcare Act (2006). Regulation involves: inspection of registered providers, checking that providers meet the legal requirements for registration and taking enforcement action when requirements are not met. Once providers are registered, Ofsted carries out regular inspections to evaluate the overall quality and standards of the early years provision in line with the principles and requirements of the Early Years Foundation Stage. The inspection schedule reflects the legislative requirements that Ofsted must follow. Inspectors will judge the quality and standards of the early years provision taking into account three key judgements. These are:

- how well the early years provision meets the needs of the range of children for whom it is provided
- the contribution of the early years provision to the well-being of children
- the effectiveness of the leadership and management.

(Ofsted 2015)

**Challenges:** England's low level of spending on Early Child Education and Care means that until the September of the year in which they become 5, most children have access to early childhood education for only a few hours each week. While the quality of Early Childhood education is high, with well-trained staff in all settings, there are insufficient places.

### **Preschool language and literacy curriculum**

The design of the kindergarten curriculum is an important aspect of quality. Therefore, it is included in this section and not in the next section *Literacy curricula in schools*. It also takes into consideration that young children have learning needs that are sometimes different from those of school children. Pre-school programmes should focus on developing children's emergent literacy skills through playful experience rather than systematic training in phonics or teaching the alphabet. There is no evidence that systematic instruction of reading in preschool has any benefit for future learning (Suggate et al., 2013).

Fostering the development of emergent literacy skills through playful activities is an important function of pre-school institutions, providing a basis for formal literacy instruction in primary school. We consider the following to be key components: oral language development, including vocabulary learning and grammar, familiarisation with the language of books (e.g. through hearing stories read and told), being engaged and motivated in literacy-related activities, experiencing a literacy-rich environment, developing concepts of print, and language awareness (for more information see the frame text for the country reports).

England's early learning goals (covering children aged 3 to 5), concerning literacy focus on phonic learning to an extent that is unusual for this age group in other European countries. They include the following:

*Reading: children read and understand simple sentences. They demonstrate understanding when talking with others about what they have read.*

*Writing: children use their phonic knowledge to write words in ways which match their spoken sounds. They also write some irregular common words. They write simple sentences which can be read by themselves and others. Some words are spelt correctly and others are phonetically [sic – read 'phonemically' or 'phonically'] plausible. (DfE, 2014b, p. 11)*

However, these early learning goals are also concerned with other aspects of language and literacy development, and include the following:

- *Children listen attentively in a range of situations. They listen to stories, accurately anticipating key events and respond to what they hear with relevant comments, questions or actions. They give their attention to what others say and respond appropriately, while engaged in another activity.*
- *Children follow instructions involving several ideas or actions. They answer 'how' and 'why' questions about their experiences and in response to stories or events.*
- *Children express themselves effectively, showing awareness of listeners' needs. They use past, present and future forms accurately when talking about events that have happened or are to happen in the future. They develop their own narratives and explanations by connecting ideas or events. (DfE, 2014b, p. 10)*

## **Improving early language and literacy screening and training**

In England there are two systematic assessments of young children in order to identify language development problems. These assessments include language skills screening and consist of:

- a “progress check” at age 2,
- the “early years foundation stage profile” at age 5. (EACEA, 2015a)

In England, as in the UK in general, children with special needs get support in mainstream schools, pre-school settings or special schools. Local Authorities have a statutory duty to provide free early education to two-year-olds with special educational needs or disabilities (EACEA, 2014b) .

In addition, children in centre-based ECEC settings receive group language support (EACEA, 2014a p. 145).

For children with delayed language development, support is provided as specified in the statement of special education needs, which results from screening, and sets out the needs of the individual child. There is provision for support from educational psychologists, speech and language therapists, and special education needs teachers, specialists in reading and other specialised professionals at a local level (EACEA, 2014a p. 109).

### **5.2.2 Literacy curricula in schools**

Curricula provide a normative framework for teachers and a guideline for their teaching aims, methods, materials and activities. However, one should keep in mind that there is a difference between the intended curriculum, as outlined in official documents, and the implemented curriculum – what actually happens in the schools.

Education is compulsory from the start of the school term following a child’s 5<sup>th</sup> birthday. However, most admission authorities offer a place in a school’s Reception Class a year earlier – in the September following the child’s 4<sup>th</sup> birthday. School education in England is divided into stages: the Foundation Stage (which spans pre-school and the first year of compulsory schooling) covers children from 3 to 5, Key Stage 1 covers those from 5 to 7 and Key Stage 2, those from 7 to 11. The curriculum for the Foundation Stage consists of three areas: Communication and Language, Physical Development, and Personal, Social and Emotional Development (DfE, 2014b). Children must also be supported in the four specific areas of Literacy, Mathematics, Understanding the World, and Expressive Arts and Design.

From Key Stage 1 on, the National Curriculum covers the three Core Subjects of English, Mathematics and Science and also a range of Foundation Subjects – Art and Design, Computing, Design and Technology, Geography, History, Music and Physical Education (DfE, 2014a). At Key Stage 2 Languages is added as a further Foundation Subject. At Key Stage 3 Citizenship is added. On entry to Key Stage 4, pupils are allowed to drop any of the Foundation Subjects, with the exception of Citizenship, Computing and Physical Education. The documents set out clear and detailed expectations of what pupils are expected to achieve in each subject, year by year. Where literacy is concerned, the emphasis is on measurable knowledge and skills, particularly about technical aspects of literacy learning (phonics, spelling, punctuation and grammatical terminology in Key Stages 1 and 2, for example) rather than attitudes or experiences.

### **Primary schools curricula**

From the start of Key Stage 1, reading is taught in England as part of the National Curriculum that also includes writing as well as speaking and listening and grammar under the heading of English. As



observed above, throughout school education English is considered as a Core Subject, in which, throughout the primary years and beyond, reading and writing are centrally important.

### ***Reading for pleasure***

As observed under 'Pre-school language and literacy curriculum' above, as well as encouraging children to link sounds and letters and to begin to read and write, Literacy Development in the Foundation Stage (3 to 5) involves initiating them into the pleasures of the written word. It is stressed in the curriculum document for this age group that children "*must be given access to a wide range of reading materials (books, poems and other written materials) to ignite their interest*" (DfE 2014a, p.8).

Reading for pleasure is also given prominence in the curriculum for older primary children. According to the PIRLS 2011 Encyclopedia (Mullis et al., 2012b), England is identified as a country in which there is a major emphasis on reading for pleasure in the intended curriculum, making it one of the eleven EU-24 countries reported in PIRLS 2011 as giving some emphasis to reading for pleasure, as against the 4 countries in which it was given little or no emphasis (Mullis et al. 2012b, Vol.1, exhibit 9, p. 36). Other countries that place a major emphasis on this important goal include Finland, Germany, Italy and Northern Ireland.

England's National Curriculum includes the statutory requirement at Key Stage 1 (children aged 5 to 7):

*"Pupils should be taught to develop pleasure in reading, motivation to read, vocabulary and understanding "* (DfE, 2014a, p.11).

This is to be achieved through such activities as:

- listening to and discussing a wide range of poems, stories and non-fiction at a level beyond that at which they can read independently
  - Being encouraged to link what they read or hear to their own experiences
  - Becoming very familiar with key stories, fairy stories and traditional tales, retelling them and considering their particular characteristics
  - Recognising and joining in with predictable phrases
  - Learning to appreciate rhymes and poems and to recite some by heart
  - Discussing word meanings, linking new meanings to those already known.
- (DfE, 2014a, p.11)

The Eurydice report *Teaching Reading in Europe* offers a broad range of information about the content of reading literacy curricula and official guidelines (EACEA, 2011a). In order not to duplicate this work, only two aspects have been addressed in the ELINET country reports, whose importance might not yet be acknowledged and therefore might be missing in the literacy curricula and official guidelines: **explicit instruction of grapheme-phoneme correspondences (phonics), and reading strategies.**

### ***Explicit instruction in grapheme-phoneme correspondences***

The use of grapheme-phoneme correspondences features in both the Early Years Foundation Stage framework (3 to 5 years) (DfE, 2014b) and at Key Stage 1 (5-7 years) and Key Stage 2 (7-11 years) (DfE, 2014a).

The Early Years Foundation Stage framework states that children use:

*phonic knowledge to decode regular words and read them aloud accurately. They also read common irregular words* (DfE, 2014b, p. 11).

In relation to writing, the same document says:

*children use their phonic knowledge to write words in ways that match their spoken sounds. They also write some irregular common words... Some words are spelt correctly and others are phonetically [sic – read 'phonemically' or 'phonetically'] plausible (DfE, 2014b, p. 11).*

In the first year of Key Stage 1, as a statutory requirement (DfE, 2014a), students should be taught to:

- Apply phonic knowledge and skills as the route to decode words.
- Respond speedily with the correct sound to grapheme (letters or groups of letters) for all 40+ phonemes.
- Read accurately by blending sounds in unfamiliar words containing grapheme-phoneme correspondences that have been taught
- Read common exception words, noting unusual correspondences between spelling and sound and where these occur in the word.
- Spell words containing the 40+ phoneme-grapheme correspondences already taught.

Phonics continues to feature as children progress through Key Stage 1. Students should be taught to:

- Continue to apply phonics knowledge and skills as the route to decode words until automatic decoding has been embedded and reading is fluent (KS1, Year 2, p. 17).
- Read accurately by blending the sounds in words that contain the graphemes taught so far, especially recognising alternative sounds for graphemes (KS1, Year 2, p. 17).
- Segment words into phonemes and represent these by graphemes spelling, many correctly (KS1, Year 2, p. 19).

Although children at Key Stage 2 continue to apply knowledge of phonics in both reading and spelling, the emphasis shifts somewhat towards the more meaning-focused technical aspects of reading and writing (i.e., vocabulary, comprehension of various sorts, spelling punctuation and grammar).

According to Eurydice (EACEA, 2011a), in England, three of six word identification/recognition key skills are included in the intended curriculum for pre-primary level and primary levels, four of five skills related to knowledge of phonics are included at pre-primary level, and two of five at primary level, and two of four skills related to fluency are included at primary level, and none is included at pre-primary level (Figure 1.2). The phonics skills not covered at primary level include drawing the forms of letters, understanding that the same sound can have different spellings, and using knowledge of letters, sounds and words when writing. According to Eurydice (EACEA, 2011a, Figure 1.3), England is among a group of countries in which phonics is taught throughout primary schooling (others include France, Portugal and Spain). In a number of European countries (including Finland and Italy), phonics instruction is discontinued after the first or middle cycle of primary education. It should be noted that the curriculum analysed by Eurydice has been superseded. The new curriculum places even more emphasis on synthetic phonics.

It is noteworthy that phonics (and synthetic phonics in particular) is identified as the main approach to word recognition in the Early Years Foundation Stage, and at Key Stage 1. Other approaches, which some authorities consider might be expected to support this, such as the use of context clues, receive little instructional emphasis in the curriculum. There is no attention to approaches to phonics other than synthetic phonics: analytic phonics and the use of analogy do not feature in government documents.

This is particularly significant because learning to read English poses greater problems than learning to read languages with a simpler sound structure and more transparent orthography (Ziegler and Goswami, 2005). Furthermore, synthetic phonics alone cannot disambiguate homographs or identify words with some of the many unusual spelling patterns of English (Coltheart et al., 1993; Castles, 2006).

From Brooks (2013) it is clear that a high proportion of the literacy catch-up schemes available for older students in the UK (including England) are phonics-based, both at primary level and up to the late teens, with less attention to comprehension strategies.

**Challenges:** The *Phonics Screening Check* (DfE, 2015b), which is in fact a test (introduced in 2012), the new National Curriculum for English in England (introduced in 2014) and the new testing regime (introduced in 2015 to 2016) have all increased even further the emphasis on phonics, particularly in the early school years. Not only are the word recognition skills of context cues and picture cues sidelined, so too are comprehension and reading for pleasure, and writing for a range of audiences and purposes.

### ***Teaching of comprehension strategies in primary schools***

While literacy instruction in the early years is more focused on code-based skills, in later stages it is important to develop and foster a wide range of comprehension strategies with all children. Explicit teaching of comprehension strategies is effective for improving reading comprehension among readers with different levels of ability. These strategies include:

- Drawing inferences or interpretations while reading text and graphic data
  - Summarising text and focusing selectively on the most important information
  - Making connections between different parts of a text
  - Using background knowledge
  - Checking/monitoring own comprehension
  - Constructing visual representations
  - Pupils reflecting on their own reading process
- (Eurydice 2011, p. 55).

According to the PIRLS 2011 Encyclopedia (Mullis et al., 2012a), all these comprehension strategies receive a major emphasis in intended language curricula in England (Mullis et al., 2012b, Vol. 1, Exhibit 8, pp. 34-35). However, as teachers' self reports reveal (see Section 5.3.2 below), there may be a big discrepancy between the intended curriculum and what actually happens in the classroom in literacy instruction. A similar set of strategies is included in the 2014 revised curriculum, which requires the following for children aged 7-9 years:

*understand what they read, in books they can read independently, by:*

- *checking that the text makes sense to them, discussing their understanding and explaining the meaning of words in context*
- *asking questions to improve their understanding of a text*
- *drawing inferences such as inferring characters' feelings, thoughts and motives from their actions, and justifying inferences with evidence*
- *predicting what might happen from details stated and implied*
- *identifying main ideas drawn from more than one paragraph and summarising these*
- *identifying how language, structure, and presentation contribute to meaning.*

(DfE, 2014a, p. 36)

Although it must be acknowledged that teachers in different EU countries may have interpreted the frequency with which they taught various comprehension skills differently from their colleagues in England, it is notable that, with the exception of making predictions about what will happen next in the text, fewer students in England than on average across EU countries are exposed to reading comprehension skills on a daily basis than their counterparts across the EU-24. It may be the case that the pre-2013 National Curriculum placed less emphasis on teaching specific reading comprehension skills than its successor.

### **Literacy curricula in secondary schools**

The National Curriculum for secondary schools states that

*Teachers should develop pupils' spoken language, reading, writing and vocabulary as integral aspects of the teaching of every subject (DfE, 2014e, p. 10).*

It adds:

*Teachers should develop pupils' reading and writing in all subjects to support their acquisition of knowledge. Pupils should be taught to read fluently, understand extended prose (both fiction and non-fiction) and be encouraged to read for pleasure. Schools should do everything to promote wider reading. They should provide library facilities and set ambitious expectations for reading at home. Pupils should develop the stamina and skills to write at length, with accurate spelling and punctuation. They should be taught the correct use of grammar. They should build on what they have been taught to expand the range of their writing and the variety of the grammar they use. The writing they do should include narratives, explanations, descriptions, comparisons, summaries and evaluations: such writing supports them in rehearsing, understanding and consolidating what they have heard or read. (DfE, 2014e, p. 10)*

**Challenges/need for action:** While the secondary curriculum in England certainly includes attention to literacy learning in all subject areas, England's long tail of under-achievement documented in successive PISA surveys suggests that this is not adequately translated into action. There is a strong need for an identifiable literacy element in all subject areas, including English.

### **5.2.3 Reading Instruction**

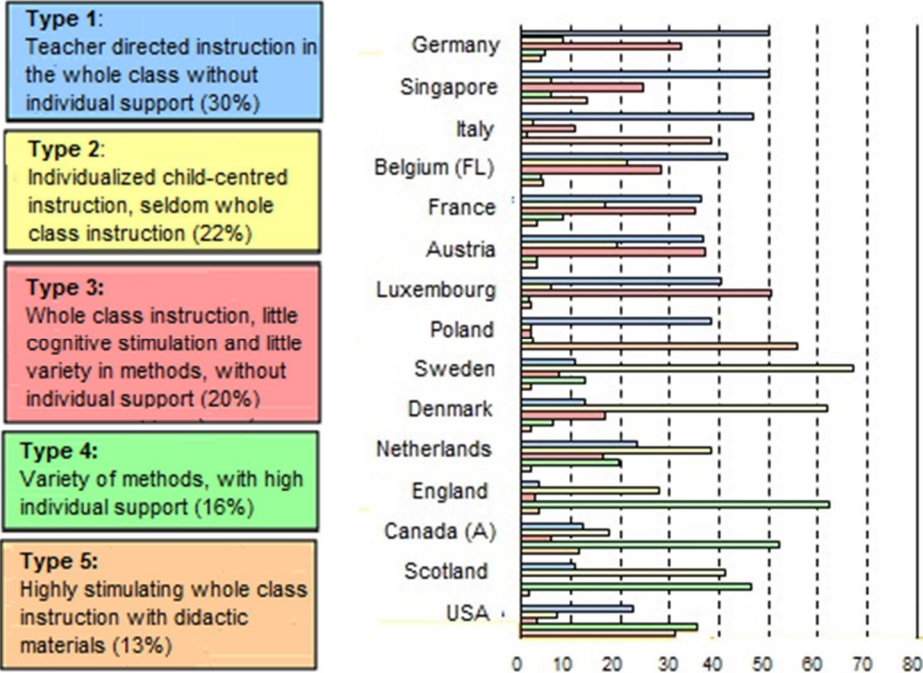
While most literacy researchers have clear concepts about effective literacy instruction, we do not know much about what is actually going on in classrooms in England or other European countries. In order to describe the practice of reading instruction we would need extensive observational studies. However, there are only rare observational studies (Philipp 2014). There is a noteworthy shortage of data on actual reading instruction in school. Only PIRLS offer some data for primary schools, albeit based on self-reports by teachers (PIRLS), which might not be valid and may be biased by social desirability.

In PIRLS 2006, fourth-grade reading teachers reported about instructional materials, strategies and activities. In a latent class analysis Lankes and Carstensen (2007) identified 5 types of instruction:

- Type 1: Teacher-directed instruction in the whole class without individual support
- Type 2: Individualised child-centred instruction, seldom whole-class instruction
- Type 3: Whole-class instruction with little cognitive stimulation and little variety in methods, without individual support
- Type 4: Variety of methods with high individual support
- Type 5: Highly stimulating whole-class instruction with didactic materials.

There were significant differences between countries concerning these types of instruction (Lankes and Carstensen 2007). The analysis of PIRLS 2011 teacher self-reports also revealed differences between the approaches to reading instruction in European countries (Mullis et al. 2012a, Tarelli et al. 2012). As Lankes and Carstensen (2007) observed from the PIRLS 2006 data, literacy instruction in primary schools in England at that time was mainly Type 4, a variety of methods with high individual support, but with a significant amount of Type 2, individualised child-centred instruction. However, since then, the increasing governmental focus on synthetic phonics and the thoroughness with which this is monitored have made classrooms increasingly uniform in their approach. Instruction now tends to be whole-class, supplemented by teaching organised in small groups with apparently similar needs.

Figure 4: Distribution of types of reading instruction



Source: Adapted from Lankes & Carstensen 2007

In PIRLS 2011, principals and teachers provided some information on language and reading instruction. Concerning the **instructional time spent on language and reading**, the following results are of interest.

In 2011, students in Grade 4 (Year 5) in England spent more hours per year at school (987) than on average across EU-24 countries (850 hours). Students in England spent 277 hours (about 28% of all instructional hours) on instruction in the language of the PIRLS test (English), compared to an EU-24 average of 241 hours. 77 instructional hours per year were spent on reading as part of language, compared with an EU-24 average of 68, though the EU-24 average is itself low relative to, for example, the United States and New Zealand (both 131 hours). Teachers in England reported allocating less time to teaching reading across the curriculum and in reading classes (123 instructional hours per year) than on average across EU-24 countries (147 hours) (Mullis et al., 2012a, exh. 8.4, p. 214).

No comparable data are available for secondary schools.

## Activities of teachers to develop student's comprehension skills and to engage them

As pointed out above (1.2.2), among adolescents there are remarkable gaps in reading achievement - equivalent to almost three years of schooling - between students with good knowledge of reading strategies and those who have a limited knowledge of strategies, including metacognitive ones. There is a similar gap concerning the level of engagement. In view of these results, it is of interest to look at the reports of teachers concerning reading strategies and engagement.

In PIRLS, teachers were asked which activities they use to develop students' reading comprehension skills. These are the figures based on the report of reading teachers in PIRLS 2011:

Percentage of students whose teachers ask them to do the following daily or almost daily:

- Compare texts read with experiences they have had: 11% (EU avg. = 35%)
- Compare what they have read with materials in other texts: 7% (EU avg. = 22%)
- Identify main ideas of what they had read: 45% (EU avg. = 55%)
- Explain their support or understanding of what has been read: 43% (EU avg. = 62%)
- Make predictions about what will happen next in the text: 32% (EU avg. = 22%)
- Make generalizations and draw inferences: 30% (EU avg. = 36%)
- Describe the style and structure of the text: 20% (EU avg. = 23%)
- Determine the author's perspective and intention: 15% (EU avg. = 21%)
- Locate information within the text: 40% (EU avg. = 66%)

Source: PIRLS 2011 database. See Mullis et al. 2012a, Exh. 8.8, p. 226 for data for 'at least weekly', s. also Table I1 in Appendix C.

In England, teachers reported implementing each strategy less often than on average across the EU-24, including basic strategies such as locating information within a text and higher-level ones, such as describing the style and structure of a text and determining the author's perspective and intention. If we assume that teachers across the EU-24 have a similar understanding of what implementation of each strategy entails, we can conclude that there is an under-emphasis on teaching comprehension in schools in England.

On the other hand, as noted above, the Eurydice report on reading (EACEA, 2011, Figure 1.4) noted that, in England, five of six key comprehension strategies were included in curriculum documents at primary level (drawing inferences, summarising text, making connections between pairs of texts, using background knowledge, and monitoring own comprehension). The strategy not included was constructing visual representations. In the same report, it was also noted that there was an emphasis in England's curriculum documents on collaborative learning at primary (but not post-primary) level as a strategy to develop reading comprehension.

As stated above, the revised National Curriculum, applicable from September 2014 maintains a strong focus on comprehension, which it presents as one of two dimensions in reading education, the other being word identification (DfE, 2014a).

In PIRLS 2011, teachers were asked a series of questions designed to ascertain the extent to which students are engaged in learning. These included: "*I summarise what students should have learned from the lesson*"; "*I relate the lesson to students' daily lives*" and "*I use questions to elicit reasons and explanations*". Based on a scale summarising frequencies across all six items, 69% of students in Grade 4 (Year 4) in England were deemed to be taught by teachers who implemented instructional practices to engage learning in "*most lessons*". The corresponding EU-24 average was 70% (Appendix C, Table

I2). Hence, teachers in England report that they provide lessons deemed to engage students, they do not focus in sufficient detail on reading comprehension strategies.

On a scale designed to measure students' engagement in instruction (i.e., based on data provided by students) the mean score for England was 9.6 (equivalent to using strategies in every or almost every lesson), about the same as the EU-24 average of 9.8 (Appendix C, Table I7b). This indicates a mismatch between teachers' and students' perceptions about engagement in reading lessons.

PIRLS 2011 demonstrates that students whose teachers used instructional practices to engage students learning in most lessons (items: summarising the lesson's goals, relating the lesson to students' daily lives, questioning to elicit reasons and explanations, encouraging students to show improvement, praising students for good effort, bringing interesting things to class) had higher scores in reading than those with such practices used in only about half the lessons or less (Mullis et al. 2012a, exh. 8.6, p.220).

It is well documented in research studies that explicit teaching of comprehension strategies may improve reading comprehension among readers with different levels of ability. While there are no data available for England's secondary schools, some PISA data also suggest that there is a need for explicit instruction of reading strategies: As reported above, in England, there is a gap of over 75 score points –equivalent to over two years of schooling– between the students who know which strategies are the most efficient for understanding and remembering a text, and those who have a limited knowledge of these metacognitive activities.

**Challenges:** There is a clear need for greater attention to comprehension strategies in England's primary and secondary classrooms.

### **Digital literacy part of the curriculum for primary and secondary schools**

In the UK students and teachers use literacy as a broad term to define reading, writing, speaking, listening and technological skills, opening up the concept of literacy to include digital and media literacies, seen central to learning. To improve the quality of literacy engagement and teaching, teachers and students are encouraged to use ICT in all subjects, as well as considering it as a subject in itself (DfE, 2014a, 2014e). Public and private partnerships promote ICT training and digital literacy engagement for students in the UK. Examples of these are detailed elsewhere in this report.

#### **5.2.4 Early identification of and support for struggling literacy learners**

Effective assessment tools upon entry to primary school will help teachers identify literacy skills from the very beginning of formal education. Regular formative assessment throughout primary school will ensure that literacy problems do not continue to go unrecognised, and that students receive the support they need through education that matches their learning needs. This should prevent children leaving school with unrecognised literacy problems (EU High Level Group of Experts on Literacy 2012a, p. 67).

#### **Standards as basis of assessment of reading difficulties**

Standards of reading achievement allowing teachers, parents and school leaders to understand the rate of progress of learners and to identify individual strengths and needs should be integrated in the curriculum and should be the basis of assessments. The High Level Group pointed out that there is a need to establish minimum standards of literacy achievement (benchmarks) for each grade, and to

administer regular tests based on these standards, to allow for identification of struggling readers/writers (EU High Level Group of Experts on Literacy 2012a, p. 43).

All EU countries have defined learning objectives in reading to be reached at the end of primary and secondary education cycles. However, only a few Member States have detailed standards (benchmarks) at each grade (school year) that form the basis of assessments allowing for early identification of reading difficulties and subsequent allocation of attention and resources. These standard-based assessments allow teachers and school leaders to judge children's progress and to target additional reading support.

### **Screenings for reading competence to identify struggling readers**

In England, the only national screening assessment properly so defined is the *Phonics Screening Check* (PSC) (Gov. UK, 2015b) for 5- to 6-year-olds, since this results in extra attention to the skills of children not reaching the pass mark, and indeed to their being re-tested a year later. This new, statutory instrument was introduced for all students at age six in publicly funded schools at the end of the 2011–12 academic year. The stated purpose was to confirm whether individual students have learned phonic decoding to an appropriate standard. Students who have not reached this standard at the end of Year 1 should receive support from their school to ensure that they can improve their phonic decoding skills. Students then have the opportunity to retake the PSC. There is a degree of controversy surrounding the instrument. For example, in a survey of Year 1 teachers, conducted by the United Kingdom Literacy Association (UKLA, 2013), the following findings emerged (p. 1):

- *The Phonics Screening Check misidentifies pupils who are beyond this stage of development as readers and favours less developed/emergent readers*
- *The nonsense words were very confusing for children*
- *The Phonics Screening Check undermines pupils' confidence as readers*
- *There are negative implications for relationships with parents*
- *The Phonics Screening Check impedes successful readers and has failed a cohort of the most fluent readers*
- *The Phonics Screening Check is not fit for purpose.*

The Department for Education also commissioned research into the impact of the PSC from the National Foundation for Educational Research, who carried out surveys over three years, leading to the observations that:

- *Most children who achieve level 2 in reading and writing at Key Stage 1 have previously met the expected standard on the check at the end of Year 1, but there is a substantial minority (over a quarter) who have not.*
- *As reported last year, one of the key messages to emerge from the evaluation so far is that many schools believe that a phonics approach to teaching reading should be used alongside other methods.*
- *...attainment in reading and writing more broadly appears unaffected by the school's enthusiasm, or not, for systematic synthetic phonics and the check, and by their approach to the teaching of phonics.*

(Walker et al., 2014, pp.10 and 11)

In England, at all levels of school education, teachers are expected to regularly assess student attainment, using the National Curriculum level descriptions and considering all three elements of English (speaking and listening, reading, and writing). It is the responsibility of individual schools to



identify children needing extra support; this always involved teacher judgment, but a range of commercially produced tests are also available (Mullis et al. 2012b, Vol.1, p. 207). However, their use is by no means compulsory.

In primary schools, teacher assessment is supplemented by national tests. From 2016, both 7-year-olds and 11-year-olds sit two tests – one test for English grammar, punctuation and spelling, and one for reading. Both tests are more summative than formative in intention. Students will be awarded marks on a scale, rather than the National Curriculum Levels of previous years (DfE, 2015b, 2015e).

At secondary level, there are no national tests. At the end of Key Stage 3 (usually age 14) statutory assessment arrangements require teacher judgements to be recorded formally. At the end of Key Stage 4 (usually age 16) there is external assessment in the form of General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) qualifications and vocational qualifications.

**Challenges** England needs a more comprehensive system of identifying those in need of greater assistance in the use of comprehension strategies and in engaging with reading and writing, as well as in the process of word identification. This should extend into secondary school and lead to appropriate support for those identified as in need of help.

### **Number of struggling readers receiving remedial instruction**

PIRLS 2011 offers some data concerning issues of remedial instruction in primary schools. One question was whether all pupils receive remedial instruction when needed. In England, teachers estimated that 22% of students in Grade 4 were in need of remedial support, and reported that 19% were in receipt of it (Appendix C, Table K1). On average across the EU-24, teachers estimated that 18% were in need of support, and that 13% were receiving it.

According to PIRLS 2011, 17% of students in England performed at or below the Low overall reading benchmark. This is somewhat lower than the proportion in need of support, but close enough to the proportion in receipt of support.

The data for England in 2011 represent an increase from the 2006 PIRLS data (15% receiving support with a further 3.1 % in need of it).

### **Kinds of support offered**

It is crucial that teachers provide support measures to help struggling readers. European Countries differ widely in their approaches, from in-class support with additional support staff (reading specialists, teaching assistants or other adults) working in the classroom together with a teacher, to out-of-class support where speech and language therapists or (educational) psychologists offer guidance and support for students with reading difficulties.

Based on teacher responses to a series of questions in PIRLS 2011, 17.9% of students in England are in classes where there is always access to specialised professionals to work with students who have reading difficulties, compared with an EU-24 average of 25% (Table 24). Over two-fifths (41.7%) of students in England are in classrooms where there is always access to a teacher aide – well ahead of the corresponding EU average of 13.2%, while fewer than 9.5% of students in England are in classrooms where there is always access to an adult/parent volunteer, though again this is ahead of the corresponding EU average of 2.8%. Hence, in general, access to support services for students with reading difficulties is reasonably good in England.

Table 24: Percentages of Students in Classrooms with Access to Additional Personnel to Work with Children with Reading Difficulties, England and EU-24 Average

Access to...	England			EU-24 Average		
	Always	Sometimes	Never	Always	Sometimes	Never
Specialised professional	17.9	55.0	27.0	24.9	41.8	33.3
Teacher aide	41.7	50.3	8.0	13.2	33.6	53.2
Adult/parent volunteer	9.5	52.6	37.9	2.8	17.5	79.7

Source: ELINET PIRLS 2011 Appendix C, Tables K2-K4

According to responses provided by teachers in PIRLS 2011, 48% of students in England are in classes where the teacher arranges for students falling behind in reading to work with a specialised professional such as a reading professional (Table 25). The corresponding EU average is a little higher at 55%. Fewer than one-quarter of students in England (22.9%) are in classes whose teachers wait to see if performance improves with maturation – fewer than the EU-24 average of 37%, which can be interpreted as positive. Ninety percent of students in England are taught by teachers who spend more time working on reading individually with a student who falls behind – the same as the EU-24 average (90%). Finally, almost all students in England and on average across the EU-24 are taught by teachers who ask parents to provide additional support to a student who falls behind in reading. Hence, England compares favourably with the average across the EU-24 in terms of supports for children falling behind in reading.

Table 25: Percentages of Students in Classrooms Where Teachers Engage in Specified Activities to Support Students Who Begin to Fall Behind in Reading, England and EU-24 Average

	England (Yes)	EU-24 Average (Yes)
I have students work with a specialised professional	48.4	55.2
I wait to see if performance improves with maturation	22.9	36.6
I spend more time working on reading individually with the student	89.9	90.1
I ask the parents to help the students with reading	98.3	96.9

Source: ELINET PIRLS 2011 Appendix, Tables K5-K8.

In England, identifying struggling readers is a duty of the school and teachers. Schools frequently use standardised screening tools to assist them in early identification. Also used are teachers' observations, and pupils' Key Stage performance and progress against national objectives

At secondary level in England, support for struggling readers is usually offered by additional teachers, specialised in reading, who give individual or small group instruction for struggling pupils. However, at secondary school level, additional support is mainly focused on pupils with wider special educational needs (EACEA, 2011). In addition, all teachers have an obligation to plan lessons according to pupils' needs, particularly so in the case of low prior learning attainments (DfE, 2014e).

Brooks (2013) provides information on about 50 schemes for struggling readers and writers that are available across the UK (not just in England), and for which there is quantitative evidence of effectiveness. Of these, most are for boosting reading and/or spelling at primary level, with fewer for students of secondary age, and only four in total for boosting writing. Very few of the schemes for boosting reading directly address comprehension, but an improvement in comprehension is an outcome of several schemes that supposedly address other aspects of reading. Some schemes explicitly target motivation for reading, and many, being phonics-based, focus on the phonological aspect and aim to improve both decoding and fluency.

One of the most widely used schemes is *Reading Recovery*, a well-established largely one-to-one intervention programme for children falling behind their classmates in the early years of school; its aim is to enable children to reach age-expected levels within 20 weeks (ILC, 2015). In *Reading Recovery* classes, specially trained teachers give individual or small group instruction for those among the lowest 20% in progress in reading. In the year 2013 to 2014, 11,435 children received this intervention in the UK and Ireland, of whom 85% reached age-appropriate levels of literacy in 18 weeks or less (ILC, 2014).

Particularly acute problems can arise for struggling readers at the transition from primary to secondary school, with the associated change from education being largely single classroom and single teacher-based to subject- and specialist teacher-based with constant movement between rooms; alongside this goes a steep increase in the demands on students' literacy skills. Since 2012 this topic has been one of the main concerns of the Educational Endowment Foundation (EEF, 2015), which has run a series of rigorous randomised control trials yielding mainly null results, with few schemes demonstrating positive outcomes.

### **Support for struggling readers – a legal right?**

According to information on the European Special Education Agency website which holds information on each European country, the Education Act (1996) (Gov.UK, 1996) requires local authorities to:

- identify children with special educational needs;
- where necessary, make an assessment of those needs, taking account of educational, medical, psychological and other factors;
- where necessary, make a formal statement of those needs and specify the provision which should be made to meet them.

In addition, the Equality Act (2010) (Gov.UK, 2013a) places a duty on schools and LAs not to discriminate against pupils with disabilities. Schools must prepare *Accessibility Plans*, showing how they will improve access to education for disabled pupils. The SEND code of practice (DfE, 2015n), deriving from the Children and Families Act 2014 (Gov.UK, 2014c) lays out a framework for the identification, assessment and follow-up support of children with special needs and disability. A toolkit provides exemplars and detailed advice on day-to-day issues. Disabled children and young people without special educational needs are covered in the Children Act 1989 (Gov.UK, 2015d), Equality Act 2010 (Gov.UK, 2013a) and the Health and Social Care Act 2012 (DfE, 2015e).

**Challenges:** While, as Brooks (2013) reports, there are a number of effective schemes in operation, there is a real need for wider access to a more widely construed support with literacy learning, to address motivation and comprehension strategies, particularly at secondary level.

## 5.2.5 Initial Teacher Education (ITE) and Continuous Professional Development (CPD) of Teachers

### Entry requirements for Initial Teacher Education

In England – besides the general entrance requirements for entry to tertiary education – there are specific selection criteria for admission to initial teacher education. According to Eurydice (EACEA, 2013, Fig. A5, p. 32), a third of all European countries (including Finland, Italy, Lithuania and Scotland) have specific selection methods such as satisfactory performance in a specific aptitude test or interviews in which candidates are asked about their motives for becoming teachers.

In England, all entrants to initial teacher education must have achieved a standard equivalent to a grade C in the GCSE examinations in English and mathematics. All intending to teach children aged 3 to 11 must also have achieved this level in a science subject. To enter graduate ITE programmes, applicants must hold a first degree or equivalent. In addition, all must have taken part in a rigorous selection process designed to assess their suitability to teach (DfE, 2015m). Before they start the course, all must have passed the professional skills tests (tests of numeracy and literacy that assess the use of real data and information that teachers are likely to encounter) (DfE, 2015m). Most ITE providers interpret the “*rigorous selection process*” as a searching interview, sometimes accompanied by an aptitude test. This is similar to the situation in about one-third of European countries where teachers are required to demonstrate satisfactory performance on a specific aptitude test or in an interview in which they are asked about their motivations for becoming teachers.

### Level of qualification and length of the required training for primary teachers

Table 26 shows the proportions of Grade 4 students taught by teachers with varying qualifications in PIRLS 2011 in England and on average across the EU-24.

More information about reading teachers’ formal education is offered by PIRLS 2011 (Mullis et al. 2011, exh. 7.1, p. 188). At the time, just 1% of students in Year 5 in England were taught by teachers who had not completed a Bachelor’s degree or higher, compared with the EU-24 average of 20%. In England, 28% were taught by a teacher with a post-graduate degree, about the same as the EU-24 average.

Table 26: Percentages of Students Taught by Teachers with Varying Education Qualifications – England and EU-24

	Completed University Post-grad Degree	Completed Bachelor’s Degree or Equivalent	Completed Post Secondary Education but not a Degree	No Further than Upper Secondary
England	28	71	1	0
EU-24	27	53	14	6

Source: PIRLS 2011 Database (see Mullis et al., 2012a, Exhibit 7.1, p. 188, and Appendix C, Table J1).

England requires primary teachers to have a bachelor’s degree, which takes three or four years’ study, and after study, there is an induction period, which takes a year. The Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE, i.e. consecutive route professional training programme) is not a master’s programme but may include some master’s level study that can contribute to a master’s degree. Typically, primary teachers’ education routes are through a three or four-year university bachelor’s degree programme in

primary education. In ten European countries – Croatia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Germany, France, Iceland, Portugal, Slovakia and Slovenia – initial education for primary teachers is at master's level and usually takes five years. In recent years an increase in the minimum length of initial teacher education can be noted for many countries (EACEA, 2012, Fig. E2, p. 112).

There are also alternative routes into primary teaching, where more emphasis is placed on experience of working in school. Applicants are selected for training by a school or group of schools in partnership with a university or SCITT (see below).

- The *School Direct Training Programme* is open to "all high quality graduates". Similar to those on university-based courses, trainees have to pay fees.
- In contrast, rather than paying fees, trainees on the *School Direct Training Programme (salaried)*, which is open to "high quality graduates with at least three years of work experience", receive a salary.
- Both types of School Direct trainees also study at the university, college or SCITT (see below) their schools are partnered with. Training programmes generally last one year full-time.
- *School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT)* programmes are designed and delivered by groups of neighbouring schools. These training programmes usually last for one academic year (full-time). Trainees are usually based in the lead school of the consortium, while completing teaching practices (internships) at others in the group.

While both the School Direct and the SCITT programmes strongly emphasise support by experienced teachers, both routes still include lectures, tutorials and seminars that aim to cover the same material as university or college courses. Both routes lead to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) recommendation, and most also to the PGCE qualification.

*Teach First* recruits 'high-flying' graduates who receive six weeks of intensive training in a university and are then go on to teach in one of the schemes schools (in low-income communities across England) for a period of two years, during which they complete the scheme's Leadership Development Programme (DfE, 2015i).

*Troops to Teachers (TtT)* is a national programme targeted at those leaving the armed forces who have the potential to become outstanding teachers. It is a two-year, employment-based 'advanced standing' programme leading to an honours degree with QTS. It integrates initial teacher training with continuing professional development (known as additional, personalised training).

Led by the University of Brighton, the TtT programme is delivered through a consortium of universities and lead delivery schools. The programme operates right across England with a specialist pathway for those who want to teach in primary schools.

All student teachers following all pathways, must meet the standards set by the DfE concerning Qualified Teacher Learning Skills (QTLS). This makes them eligible to teach in schools as fully qualified teachers. During their ITE course, they must also spend a minimum of 120 days in at least 2 schools, early years or further education settings, to demonstrate that they have met the QTLS standards. These standards, which apply across all ITE pathways, were revised in September 2012 and now incorporate standards for behaviour and conduct, and replace the previous Code of Conduct and Practice for Registered Teachers (DfE, 2015i).

## **Length of required training of secondary teachers**

The length of training for secondary teachers and the range of pathways do not differ from those for primary teachers, set out above. However, a higher proportion of secondary teachers enter ITE as graduates.

## **The role of literacy expertise in Initial Teacher Education**

According to an analysis of guidelines for Initial Teacher Education institutions, generic skills or methodology for teaching reading is a topic in ITE (EACEA, 2011a, Fig. 2.5, p. 99). In England, as in other countries of the United Kingdom, the development of reading literacy skills has been designated a cross-curricular task in the national curricula (EACEA, 2011a, p. 99). In England, all prospective teachers have to demonstrate professional competence in teaching reading skills by the end of their training. For instance, all trainees must be able to “*design opportunities for learners to develop their literacy skills*” (TDA revised 2008, p. 9).

UNESCO’s International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) reports that most ITE providers in England participate in the Leading Literacy Schools initiative (UIS, 2011). This programme aims to strengthen initial teacher training in teaching and assessing literacy during this phase. The providers work with schools selected because of their capacity to specialise in training to teach literacy skills. The programme involves developing a range of activities and longer-term projects that will benefit both trainee teachers and enhance practising teachers’ professional development (EACEA, 2011a, p. 103).

However, a report by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) published in 2012, found that, of 44 newly qualified teachers studied, while twenty-one had good or better skills, fourteen of these had received at least good training at every stage of their training and induction with sufficient focus and in-depth learning, but not enough of the new teachers had consistent high-quality training during initial teacher education and induction to ensure that they developed good teaching skills, underpinned by a deep understanding of language development and the acquisition of literacy skills (Ofsted, 2012b).

In PIRLS 2011, teachers reported about their areas of specialisation in their formal education and training (Mullis et al. 2012a, exh. 7.2, p. 190). In England, 74% of the fourth grade (Year 5) students had reading teachers with an educational emphasis on language, 48% had teachers with an emphasis on pedagogy/ teaching reading, and 17% had teachers with an emphasis on reading theory. On average across the EU-24, 74% of the fourth grade students had reading teachers with an educational emphasis on language, 59% had teachers with an emphasis on pedagogy/teaching reading, and 30% had teachers with an emphasis on reading theory (Appendix C, Table J2).

It is stipulated in the DfE 2015 document for England on Teachers’ Standards that all teachers must:

*demonstrate an understanding of and take responsibility for promoting high standards of literacy, articulacy and the correct use of standard English, whatever the teacher’s specialist subject* (DfE, 2015f, p.11).

It should be noted that those qualifying in England through the *Teach First* route have only a six week induction course before they start teaching in school – as unqualified teachers. As EACEA, 2011 observes, short-term courses “*tended to focus on generic teacher skills rather than on subject-specific pedagogy*” (EACEA, 2011a, p. 85).

Important teacher competences are a) the assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of each individual student they teach, b) selection of appropriate instructional methods and c) instruction in an effective and efficient manner. These topics should therefore be addressed in teacher training.

**Challenges/need for action:** It is evident that Initial Teacher Education in England needs a clear and compulsory focus on developing literacy expertise among future primary and secondary teachers, which should extend beyond decoding through phonics, to include both comprehension strategies (for print and digital texts) and other approaches to word identification, and, where relevant, study skills.

### **Continuing Professional Development (CPD)**

Over the last decade in England, much interest in CPD has been shown by the government, by Ofsted and among teachers and the wider professional community. According to Goodall et al., (2005):

*CPD is increasingly seen ... as a key part of the career development of all professionals which is a shared responsibility with their employers because it serves the interests of both. The concept is often left ill-defined being in many cases conflated with the related concepts of in-service training and on the job learning. Both are more limited than CPD, as CPD can encompass a wide variety of approaches and teaching and learning styles in a variety of settings (inside or outside of the workplace). It is distinguishable from the broader concept of lifelong learning, which can include all sorts of learning. It is seen primarily as being related to people's professional identities and roles and the goals of the organisation they are working for. (p. 26)*

It has also been clear that schools in England placing CPD at the heart of their planning for improvement, and integrating performance management, self-review and CPD into a coherent cycle, raise standards and improve teaching (Ofsted, 2006). Meanwhile, a survey commissioned by the Labour government in 2008, showed that the majority of school staff agreed that it was 'to a great extent' their responsibility to engage with CPD (Walker et al., 2010, p. 90), while 51% of teachers felt their CPD needs were being met (Walker et al., 2010, p. 91).

As is the case in Finland, Sweden, Iceland and the other countries of the United Kingdom, fully qualified teachers in England can also specialise in Special Needs education and receive specific training to deal with reading and literacy issues (EACEA, 2011b, p. 108).

England also offers an e-learning course for experienced teachers which help them to identify and support children with dyslexia, speech, language and communication problems. The course is part of a broader strategy, *Removing Barriers to Achievement*, which was launched in 2004 (EACEA, 2011b, p. 110).

### **Time frame and quality standards of CPD**

There is no statutory requirement for teachers to undertake courses of Continuing Professional Development in England. The revised set of Teachers' Standards, which came into effect in 2012, specifies only that teachers must "*take responsibility for improving teaching through appropriate professional development, responding to advice and feedback from colleagues*" (DfE, 2014f, p. 13). In 2015, the Conservative government proposed to modify this and set up a consultation, which ran from September to October 2015, on a new Standard for Teachers' Professional Development (DfE, 2015j).

This consultation called for:

- *evidence of links between professional development activities and improved pupil outcomes,*
- *evidence of how a standard might help promote practice with a positive effect on pupils' outcomes*
- *evidence of how a standard might shape the provision of professional development activities*
- *evidence of short, medium and long-term activities that might help to remove barriers to professional development*
- *any other contributions that might be useful to the development of a standard.*

(DfE, 2015j, p. 7)

However, the new standard will not be statutory, but will have the status of guidance. There are also plans for a CPD online portal, allowing teachers to access and share properly evaluated and quality-assured evidence and research about the approaches to professional development that will deliver the most impact. The DfE also confirmed that it would be contributing "significant funding" to the Claim Your College consortium as it bids to establish an independent College of Teaching (Henshaw, 2015)

### **Time spent on professional development related to literacy**

No internationally-comparable data are available concerning the participation rate of teachers in literacy-related professional development, with one exemption. In PIRLS 2011 teachers were asked how much time they had spent on reading professional development in the past two years before the study. It should be noted that professional development here is defined in terms of attendance at seminars, and that other forms of professional development (for example, collaborative planning among teachers in a school) are not included. The data for England and the EU-24 average are given in table 27. The data show that 27% of pupils in Grade 4 (Year 5) in England are taught by teachers who spent six hours or more engaged in professional development related to reading in the previous two years, while 45% were taught by teachers who spent less than 6 hours, and 27% by teachers who had not availed themselves of any professional development in reading. On average across the EU-24, teachers engaged more frequently in professional development defined in this way than did teachers in England, although similar proportions had participated in no professional development.

Table 27: Percentages of Students with Teachers Allocating Varying Amounts of Time to Professional Development Related to Reading in the Last Two Years – England and EU-24 Average

	More than 35 hours	16-35 hours	6-15 hours	Less than 6 hours	None
England	0	7	21	45	27
EU-24	9	9	25	28	29

Source: PISA 2011 database (see Mullis et al., 2012a, Exhibit 7.4, page 196, and Table J4 in Appendix C).

**Challenges:** Particularly in light of the need for improvement in comprehension strategies at upper primary and secondary level, improving the quality and participation rates of continuing professional development targeted at building literacy expertise of teachers would seem to be an important priority.



## Digital literacy as part of initial teacher education

Qualification as a teacher in England involves taking a centrally constructed and administered test, as noted by Eurydice:

*Only one country reports having established a standardised test in reading during, or at the end of teacher education. In the United Kingdom (England), in order to be awarded Qualified Teacher Status, all trainee teachers have to pass centrally administered computerised skills tests in literacy, numeracy and ICT. (EACEA, 2011, p. 106)*

However, there are no regulations concerning the teaching of digital literacy education in ITE courses.

**Challenges:** Despite the inclusion of the requirement to pass an ICT test in the award of Qualified Teacher Status, fostering digital literacy skills of teachers and students needs a stronger emphasis in both Initial Teacher Education and CPD in England.

### 5.2.6 Improving the quality of literacy teaching for children and adolescents: programmes, initiatives and examples

A central theme of best practice in this area in England is the availability and use of technology and related resources. All publicly-funded schools in the UK are connected to high speed internet. Investment from government and other sources for both research and teaching and learning initiatives is directed towards resources and equipment and the integration of ICT in education. Such resources and equipment encouraging participation, inclusion and equity in schools in the UK include computers, ipads, projectors, smartboards, cameras, mobile devices, digital learning games and communication software. One exemplary programme in this area is the European project 'Innovative Technologies for an engaging classroom', one of the main aims of which is to increase participation through technology in UK classrooms.

#### Improving the quality of preschool

*London Early Years Foundation (LEYF)*

This is an award-winning organisation (named Nursery group of the year for the second year in succession in December 2015) which runs 38 community nurseries in England's capital, many serving areas of deprivation (LEYF, 2015). Children from both professional and poorer backgrounds are educated together, ensuring a social mix that helps build trust and social capital and reduce social segregation. One of the fundamental purposes of these social enterprise nurseries is to help reduce inequality among children and ensure clear ambitions for all children, but especially those from poorer families. The learning opportunities provided for the children are based on research findings, particularly the work of Sylva et al. and the findings of the DfE's Early Education Pilot for Two-Year-Old Children (Maisey et al., 2013). Bilingualism is regarded as a strength and not a problem.

In light of the finding by Fernald et al. (2013) of a six-month difference in both vocabulary learning and language processing efficiency between higher- and lower-SES toddlers at 24 months, LEYF's chief focus is on language development. Involvement of the parents is also seen as key. The LEYF approaches to learning recognise children as competent, creative and curious beings and encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning, including conducting their own planning meetings to ensure their voices are heard and staff are familiar with their interests. LEYF staff are trained in pedagogical conversations, and use these both to extend children's language and understanding of the world and also to support parents in the process of bridging learning from home to nursery and

beyond. Many parents from poor families felt they had little to contribute until a system was established to help them build confidence in their own skills.

#### *Other preschool programmes*

Programmes such as *Bookstart* and *Bookstart Corner*, described above, all focus on the quality of interaction between children, adults and texts. Most are focused on meeting the needs of families living in difficult circumstances.

### **Providing more cognitively demanding literacy instruction in school**

#### *Reciprocal Reading*

This project has been developed in response to a lack of governmental attention to comprehension strategies in England's primary schools. Recent policy relating to the teaching of reading in England has principally focused on the decoding of text, specifically through the use of phonics. However, much less attention has been given to the explicit teaching of reading comprehension. This project aims to address this imbalance.

Working in association with the University of East London (UEL), teachers from the five primary schools in the Gants Hill Partnership Teaching Alliance (GHPTA), North-East London, have embedded the Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1984) approach to developing reading comprehension in their own classes (GHPTA, 2015).

The students work in groups of 5 or so on the same text, engaging in:

- Prediction
- Questioning
- Seeking clarification
- Summarising.

The teacher is involved initially, but later hands responsibility over to the group. The six-month part-time training is aimed at deepening subject knowledge and ways to develop dialogue.

The impact on children's reading progress has been outstanding. This project aims to share this practice with other schools in the locality, through designated 'Reading Champions' from the five primary schools.

#### *Thinking Together at Key Stage 3* (Thinking Together, 2015)

This was a three year project in which a team from the Open University and De Montfort University, Bedford worked with the Learning and Development Directorate of Milton Keynes Council and local teachers of Years 8 and 9 (12 to 14 years) in two secondary schools. The project developed and implemented a *Thinking Together* programme for teaching communication and thinking skills, and enabled students to apply these to their study of English and foundation subjects.

A series of five lessons designed to introduce students to the concepts of thinking together and exploratory talk was produced in draft form. Discussion with the participating teachers in the target schools enabled these to be adapted to suit the particular needs of the teachers and students involved.

Based on earlier successful research in Milton Keynes schools, this project significantly raised standards of achievement at KS3. The programme involved training the students (and teachers) in well-established techniques for collaborative discussion.

The evaluating team found that after the 'Thinking Together' intervention the students both discussed texts for longer and in more depth, providing more reasons for their ideas, and also wrote test

assignments about the texts that achieved statistically higher scores than those by students in control classes (Mercer and Littleton, 2007; Mercer and Howe, 2012).

### **Early identification of and support for children and adolescents with literacy difficulties**

#### *CLPE Reading and Writing Scales*

In England, formal assessment in literacy at the end of Key Stages 1 and 2 is now, as explained at 1.4.1. and 2.2.4 above, primarily a matter of administering centrally devised tests on reading on the one hand and spelling, punctuation and grammar on the other. But the focus of these tests on technical matters, their separation from the normal context of meaning-making in the classroom and the absence of any concern with what the children use literacy for, or the pleasure they derive from reading and writing, mean that these assessments are not adequate to guide teachers' future actions. Meanwhile, the move away from the conception of the National Curriculum based on levels has, in principle, opened up the possibility of schools using alternative systems of formative assessment.

The Centre for Literacy in Primary Education (CLPE) is an independent teachers' centre, located in the London borough of Southwark. For over forty years it has pioneered approaches to formative, observation-based assessment in literacy. It has recently collaborated with three professional associations, the National Association for Advisors in English (NAAE), the National Association for the Teaching of English (NATE) and the United Kingdom Literacy Association (UKLA) to produce two sets of graded descriptors – *The Reading Scale* for learning to read and *The Writing Scale* for learning to write (CLPE, 2016). Trialled with hundreds of primary teachers in London, each scale offers a description of the observable behaviours of pupils at different stages. To decide where on the scales they should place a child, teachers use their own close classroom observation. The scale shows both the Next Steps that the child might take to move forward and also the next set of observable behaviours they are likely to see if the child is progressing with reading and writing. The scales are designed to indicate how schools can provide an environment that supports children's development as readers and writers.

Using the scales to reflect on the attainment of children in their class gives teachers a clear idea of what to look for in day-to-day assessment and the key areas they need to plan for next. Every child will have a different journey through these scales. Their starting points and their rate and pattern of progression will depend on many factors including their prior experience, their interests and their learning preferences. The scales are available as downloadable pdfs and also as a reasonably priced app.

These scales are underpinned by well-evidenced research, presented at the end of each scale. By using this Research and Reading section, teachers are able to access the theory and evidence that underpins learning and teaching in reading and writing, enabling them to develop their understanding of why, when and how different practices can be most effective.

#### *Reading Recovery*

This initiative, referred to earlier at 2.2.4, is a school-based early literacy intervention designed for the lowest attaining 5-6 year olds in mainstream education.

Sensitive screening identifies the lowest attaining 5-6 year olds who are prioritised for intervention. Children receive daily individual lessons with the specially trained teacher for up to 20 weeks. The aim is to accelerate learning to between three and five times the normal progress, so that children reach

age-appropriate levels of reading and writing within 20 weeks. They develop the mental facility and attitudes to continue learning thereafter at normal rates of progress, from normal classroom teaching.

The programme supports both reading and writing as reciprocal pools of knowledge and understanding available to the learner and teacher. In each lesson, children read several short texts, engage in focused letter and word analysis, and compose and write a short message. Two kinds of learning are kept in balance: performing with success on the familiar in order to strengthen the decision making processes of the learner, which develops fluent and efficient processing, and strengthening independent problem solving processes on the new and unfamiliar, which enables the child to push the boundaries of his or her own learning. Accelerated progress is achieved because the child learns how to learn.

The intervention builds upon intensive teacher professional learning. Initial training spreads across one year, interweaving practice in school with regular professional development that supports close observation and analysis of teaching and learning interactions, alongside theory development. Core texts articulate theory for teachers, building theory into practice and vice versa. Practitioners develop a deep understanding of learning processes, early literacy and literacy difficulties. Teachers become self aware, analytical and challenging of practice. After training, and for as long as they work in *Reading Recovery*, they engage in regular professional development.

*Reading Recovery* provides support and quality assurance at school, district, national and international levels. Training and professional development is university accredited; data, collected and published annually for every child and teacher, facilitates monitoring and research. Monitoring evidence in the UK, conducted over a 20-year period, shows consistently high outcomes. Children who completed the intervention at age six have been followed through to national assessments at age 11, at which point four out of five were still operating within or above national expectations in reading. Given that the *Reading Recovery* cohort is skewed towards children facing multiple disadvantages, this is exceptional. A major government-funded project in 2009–2012 achieved a tenfold increase in children receiving the intervention and in personnel trained to deliver the programme, without loss of efficacy. However, cuts in government funding have subsequently reduced the programme's availability.

Since its conception by an educational psychologist in the 1970s, *Reading Recovery* has been the subject of extensive research, including in recent years randomised control and matched control group studies. The research supports the significant impact of the intervention for very low attaining children, especially for those who have made the least progress in literacy in their first year at school, and for children in poverty.

In the year 2013 to 2014, 11,435 children received this intervention in the UK and Ireland, of whom 85% reached age-appropriate levels of literacy in 18 weeks or less (ILC, 2014).

#### *Paired Reading*

This freely available cross-ability tutoring method is a procedure for the tutoring of reading by non-professionals, such as parents or peers, for lower-performing students at primary or secondary level. It was designed to meet two basic criteria: first, general applicability through inherent flexibility and a capacity to adapt to individual and changing reading performance, and second, sufficient simplicity to be used effectively by a more proficient fellow student at school, or a child's own parents at home with a minimum of professional training and supervision. Cross-age student tutoring has been found to be particularly effective in age groups with two years' difference.

It first appeared in the literature in the mid- seventies (Morgan, 1976) and has been in use in various forms in the UK ever since. *Paired Reading* has been used widely in the UK since the late 1970s and is one of the practices advertised and recommended by the *National Literacy Trust*. A number of studies of the practice have been carried out in the decades since its introduction.

Speaking on the results of a two year trial, led by Durham University, Professor Peter Tymms, School of Education, Durham University, said:

*Expensive policy initiatives have often had little effect on learning. The tutoring scheme requires some organisation and a little bit of training but it's an inexpensive scheme to implement in that it involves no fancy equipment.*

*The trial shows that a tutoring scheme could be implemented across educational areas nationwide. Older pupils boosted their knowledge and skills by becoming tutors and the younger tutees benefitted greatly from one-to-one learning with older children.*

(Tymms et al., 2011).

### **Pre-service and in-service teacher training**

#### *So Much More than Decoding*

Secondary teacher education has not traditionally required a detailed knowledge of early reading development and associated teaching approaches. In recognition of England's 'long tail of under achievement' in literacy and the widespread need to address this problem, this project, based at Brunel University, has developed a research-informed set of teaching resources for prospective teachers undertaking initial teacher education (ITE) on one year full-time Post Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) courses, preparing them to teach mathematics or science at secondary level.

University-based teacher education programmes in England have long incorporated some attention to language in learning and to literacy across the curriculum, although this has varied considerably from institution to institution. Over recent decades, the teaching of reading in England – and specifically the systematic teaching of synthetic phonics – has become a 'national priority' for schools and a statutory requirement of teacher education programmes. Student teacher satisfaction with their preparedness to teach synthetic phonics has become a measure of the effectiveness of primary teacher education programmes, through annual surveys by the Teaching Agency (formerly TDA). This measure has also been used on secondary teacher education programmes, where such detailed knowledge of early reading development and associated teaching approaches has traditionally not been required. Reading development and the role of phonics knowledge can often be perceived by student teachers as one of the more difficult areas of the professional knowledge-base and, for secondary student teachers, to be remote and perhaps even irrelevant to the aims of their subject specialism (even, occasionally, when the specialism is English).

The project is based on two fundamental principles: student teacher engagement and the spread of benefits beyond the initiating Higher Education Institution (HEI). Through a process of action research, the resources of this project have been designed, implemented, evaluated and disseminated so as to encourage their appropriation and further development by colleagues in other institutions. The most significant resource has been a booklet drafted principally by external consultants, setting out in accessible form, a summary of relevant research on the literacy difficulties experienced by adolescents and programmes that have been successful in overcoming these (Dombey et al., 2014).

This project has:

- established an evidence base about the reading difficulties experienced by secondary-age school pupils both locally (to the host institution's teacher education partnership) and internationally;
- drawn on this evidence base and the expertise of external consultants to produce teaching resources for use by university lecturers in education in postgraduate, secondary teacher education programmes (PGCEs);
- implemented teaching cycles using these resources within the host institution that are researched within an action research framework;
- made these revised and modified teaching resources, produced to high quality, available for use by other lecturers in the field, with an invitation to engage in their own cycles of action research;
- disseminated the outcomes of the research and development work through academic and professional channels as well as to a non-professional audience of parents.

It should be noted that the evidence base established that only a very small proportion of adolescents experiencing difficulty with reading had problems that could usefully be addressed by systematic synthetic phonics. Rather, the problems appeared to be more concerned with fluency, comprehension and the adolescents' attitudes, self-awareness and identity as readers, rather than word identification. The intervention programmes recommended to the student teachers addressed these issues and in particular looked at adolescents' needs and how they might be catered for in the student teachers' subject specialisms.

### 5.3 Increasing participation, inclusion and equity

The High Level Group of Experts on Literacy drew attention to persistent gaps in literacy, namely the gender gap, the socio-economic gap, and the migrant gap (HLG Final report 2012, pp. 46–50). These gaps derive from the reading literacy studies that repeatedly show unequal distribution of results among groups of children and adolescents (PIRLS, PISA).

The **socio-economic gap** in literacy refers to the fact that children and adolescents from disadvantaged families have lower mean performance in reading than students from more advantaged families. However, the degree to which family background relates to the reading literacy performance varies from one country to another even in Europe. Family background measured as parents' educational level and/or occupation or measured as economic, social and cultural status is one of the most important predictors of reading literacy performance. Family background also explains some of the performance differences between schools.

The **migrant gap** refers to unequal distribution of learning outcomes between the native students and immigrant students who, in most countries, have lower levels of performance in reading than the native students. In many countries the migrant gap is associated with the socio-economic gap but this explains only a part of it, because the migrant gap is also associated with home language differing from the language of instruction at school, which increases the risk of low performance in reading. It is noteworthy that even language minorities with high status in the society (and above-average socioeconomic background) show below average performance if the language of school is not supported at home. This signals the importance of a good command of the language used at school.

Another alarming gap in reading literacy in many countries is the **gender difference**, which is more vital for adolescents than for children. In all PISA studies, 15-year-old girls outperformed boys in

reading in all the European countries, and boys are frequently overrepresented among the low performers. PISA 2009 results showed that these differences are associated with differences in student attitudes and behaviours that are related to gender, i.e. with reading engagement, and not gender as such. Therefore the gender gap is also related to growing up in a family or in a school environment that values reading and learning and considers reading as a meaningful activity.

To achieve fairer and more inclusive participation in literacy learning, we need to close these gaps, which already start in early childhood, by supporting children, adolescents and adults “at risk”. The groups of students “at risk” must have access to language screening and flexible language learning opportunities in school, tailored to individual needs. Furthermore, early support for children and adolescents with special needs is necessary.

In the section below we address the following issues:

- Compensating socio-economic and cultural background factors
- Support for children with special needs
- Promoting preschool attendance, especially among disadvantaged children
- Provisions for preschool children with language difficulties
- Support for children and adolescents whose home language is not the language of school.
- Preventing early school leaving
- Addressing the gender gap among adolescents

This section refers to children and adolescents who for different reasons can be considered as a group “at risk” (from disadvantaged homes, those whose home language is not the language of school, or those with “special needs”). The focus is on preventing literacy difficulties among members of these groups. There is a certain overlap with the topic Identification of and support for struggling literacy learners”, dealt with in the section, *Improving the quality of teaching*, which is concerned with those who have already developed literacy difficulties (s. 5.2.4 ).

This section details programmes, initiatives and examples of good practice in England that promote participation, inclusion and equity. The legal right for support for struggling learners in the UK is stated in the Children and Families Act 2014 (Gov. UK, 2015f) and Draft Special Educational Needs and Disability (SEN) Code of Practice (DfE, 2014h). Children and young people with and without special educational needs are covered in the Children Act 1989 (Gov. UK, 2015d), Equality Act 2010 (Gov. UK, 2013) and the Health and Social Care Act 2012 (Gov. UK, 2015e). In addition, according to the Department for Education (DfE, 2015f), all teachers in the UK have an obligation to plan lessons according to pupils' needs. The National Curriculum also states that schools should promote reading in and out of school by, for example, providing library facilities, and that teachers should have high expectations for all pupils (DfE, 2014a, 2014e).

Schools causing concern, that is those with unacceptably low standards of pupil performance or facing serious difficulties in their management, may receive a warning notice, which can be seen as an early intervention. Local authorities have powers to:

- suspend the delegated budget of the school causing concern
- appoint an Interim Executive Board (IEB)
- appoint additional governors
- require the governing body to enter into specified arrangements with a view to improving the performance of the school.

The Secretary of State also has a power to appoint additional governors, appoint an IEB, or direct the local authority to close a school (Department for Education, 2014).

### **5.3.1 Compensating socio-economic and cultural background factors**

The child's socioeconomic and cultural background has a strong impact on literacy. Material poverty and educational level, particularly of the mother, are well-recognised main factors influencing literacy (World Bank 2005, Naudeau et al. 2011). Socio-economic background also influences biological risks to children, by determining early exposure to risk factors and increased susceptibility (Jednoróg et al. 2012). The primary language spoken at home also influences literacy development (Sylva et al., 2004).

In order to describe the socioeconomic and cultural factors that influence emergent literacy, several indicators were used which stem from international surveys, thus providing comparability across Europe (for more information concerning the concepts and indicators see Appendix A).

#### **Gini index**

The Gini index is the most commonly used measure of inequality, and represents the income distribution of a nation's residents with values between 0 (maximum equality) and 100 (maximum inequality). In the European countries participating in ELINET the range is from 22.6% in Norway to 35% in Spain (for an overview of European countries see table A1 in Appendix B). No separate data are available for England, but at 32.8% United Kingdom is at the upper end of the distribution.

#### **Child poverty**

An indicator of child poverty is the percentage of children living in a household in which disposable income, when adjusted for family size and composition, is less than 50% of the national median income (UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre 2012). No separate data are available for England. However, at 12.1%, the United Kingdom is slightly below the European average. The range is from 4.7% in Iceland to 25.5% in Romania (for an overview of European countries see table A2 in Appendix B).

In England a *Pupil Premium* is paid to schools for the most disadvantaged children, to the value of £14,000 for each child's entire school career (ages 3 to 16) (Gov. UK, 2015h). Free lunch is provided at school for all children in the 4 to 7 age range (Gov.UK, 2013b). Students over 7 years are eligible for Free School Meals (FSM) if they or their parents receive any of a range of benefits aimed at relieving those on low incomes (Gov.UK, 2015j).

However, although the situation has improved somewhat, material poverty is still associated with lower educational achievement. In 2007, 51% of students receiving Free School Meals (FSMs) compared with 75% of the general population, attained the expected Level 4 in the assessment at the end of Key Stage 2 (11 years), whereas in 2012 the figures had risen to 66% and 88% respectively, reducing the attainment gap from 24 to 16 percentage points (Ofsted, 2013, p.22). For 16 year olds sitting their GCSE examinations, the picture is less encouraging: in 2007, 21% of students receiving Free School Meals achieved 5 GCSE passes at A\* to C, compared with 49% in the general population, whereas in 2012 the figures had risen to 36% and 63% respectively, reducing the attainment gap at this level from 28 percentage points by only one point, to 27 (Ofsted, 2013, p. 23).



The Chief Inspector for Schools reported in June 2013 that:

*The areas where the most disadvantaged children are being let down by the education system in 2013 are no longer deprived inner city areas, instead the focus has shifted to deprived coastal towns and rural, less populous regions of the country, particularly down the East and South-East of England. These are places that have felt little impact from national initiatives designed to drive up standards for the poorest children.*

(Gov. UK, 2013c).

A detailed best-evidence synthesis of classroom programmes and interventions at the school-wide level, aimed at reducing the gap in performance between students of low and high socioeconomic backgrounds, was carried out by Sharples and colleagues at the University of York's Centre for Excellence in Outcomes for Children and Young People's Services (Sharples et al., 2011). The central theme across their findings was that the quality of teaching matters most. Their conclusions also state:

*Changing instructional processes and teaching methods (e.g. cooperative learning, phonics instruction, meta-cognitive strategies) delivers the greatest improvements in learning outcomes for children from deprived backgrounds. Simply changing the mode of delivery, through ICT or new curricula, is much less effective. These principles apply across all educational phases, from early years settings to secondary education.*

*The most powerful approaches we identified came through the use of well-specified, well-supported and well-implemented programmes and practices, incorporating extensive continuing professional development that is delivered within the school context. Early intervention is particularly effective, where preventative whole-class strategies are adopted first followed by tutoring for the small numbers of pupils who still need it. If specific tutoring is required, teaching assistants as well as classroom teachers can deliver good learning outcomes, as long as they are well supported.*

*Schools that are successfully closing attainment gaps work hard to ensure that resources are targeted at the children who need them most. They rigorously monitor pupil progress (particularly of those in vulnerable groups) and use this data to inform targets, direct deployment of resources and monitor the impact of interventions.*

*Outside of the immediate classroom environment, we identified a range of broader school-based strategies to close attainment gaps, which show promise in the long term. These include: developing social and emotional competencies using social and emotional learning programmes; raising pupil aspirations through targeted interventions; supporting school transitions; and engaging hard-to-reach parents in their child's learning from an early age. The importance of strong and visionary leadership, which creates a culture of high expectation and professionalism, was emphasised throughout our findings.*

(Sharples et al., 2011, p. 37)

England's steering documents do not mention policies aimed at preventing segregation into different tracks or schools of students from low socioeconomic backgrounds from their more affluent age-mates.

## **Mother's education level**

National figures for parental qualifications (dating from 1997) show the following percentages of mothers of young children in England having attained, as their highest qualification: 12.9% degree level or higher; 12.1% Higher National Diploma; 12.7% Advanced level in GCSE; 44.1% Ordinary level in GCSE; 16.2% lower than this; and 1.9% having achieved miscellaneous other qualifications. (Sylva et al., 1999, from Prior et al. for the DfES, unpublished).

The raising of the School Leaving Age (RoSLA) from 15 to 16 in 1972 has allowed an analysis of the subsequent effect on the next generation of children's school outcomes. As Dickson et al. observe:

*For English/literacy, the impact of parents' RoSLA treatment is evident at school entry and is stable between 5% and 10% of a standard deviation through assessments taken at different times during the school years – albeit the KS2 effect is only significant at the 10% level and at KS3 the impact is not statistically significant.*

(Dickson et al., 2013, p. 36)

Parents' estimates of their own reading skill has been looked at specifically in a survey commissioned by the National Literacy Trust (Formby, 2014). This found that all parents except group AB (higher socio-economic level) were more likely to say that their child enjoyed reading a lot compared to their own enjoyment of reading. In addition, parents of lower socioeconomic status were less likely than all other groups to say that both they (57.1%) and their child (65.5%) enjoyed reading a lot.

## **Teenage mothers**

According to UNICEF (2001), the percentage of teenage mothers is 30.8 for United Kingdom, the upper end of the European range. No separate data are available for England. The range is from 5.5% in Switzerland to 30.8% in United Kingdom. (For an overview of European countries see table A4 in Appendix B.) Responsibility for provision for the education of the children of teenage parents has been given to local authorities and the Primary Care Trust (medical groupings) (DH, 2007). However, much concern remains about the access of teenage mothers to education (Evans et al., 2010).

## **Single parents**

According to Eurostat (2012, Figure A 7), in United Kingdom the percentage of children living mainly with a single parent is 22.2%. The range for the European countries participating in ELINET is from 1.4% in Croatia to 30% in Denmark (for an overview of European countries see table A5 in Appendix B). Single-parenthood is an accepted indicator of disadvantage with a negative effect on educational achievement up to secondary level in England (Cassen et al, 2007, p. xi).

## **Migrant parents**

According to PIRLS 2006 (Mullis et al. 2007, Exhibit 3.12 – Students' Parents Born in Country), in England the proportion of children with one parent born outside the country was 12%, while the proportion with one parent born outside the country was 17% (for an overview about European countries see table A6 in Appendix B).

In PISA 2009, the gap in England between native students and students with a migrant background was, at 24 points, lower than EU average of 38. It should be noted that while in many European countries immigrants are less educated than natives, in the UK immigrants are, on average more educated (Dustmann et al., 2011). When the language spoken at home is controlled for, in addition to

such factors as peer quality and share of immigrants in the school, the achievement gap between the children of immigrants and native children disappears in the UK (as it does in the Nordic countries, except for Finland) (Dustmann et al., 2011).

### **Primary language spoken at home different from language used at school**

The gap in achievement between those who speak the language of the school at home and those who do not is less in England (18 points in PIRLS, 2009) than in the average of other European countries (26 points in PIRLS, 2009). In PISA, this home language gap was also lower than the EU average (48 vs 54).

Cassen et al. (2007) observe that:

*Poor reading and writing scores at primary school [in England] are strongly and significantly associated with later low achievement, but not speaking English at home is only a short-lived handicap for most students. African and Asian children commonly recover from it by secondary school.*

(Cassen et al. 2007, p. xi)

**Challenges:** While England has a relatively small achievement gap for children from a migrant background and those whose home language is not that of the school, the same cannot be said for those living in poverty, with a single parent, a teenage mother or a mother with a low level of education. More intensive effort is needed to develop their literacy skills.

### **5.3.2 Support for children with special needs**

Not only children from culturally disadvantaged families are “at risk” in their literacy development, but also those with very low birth weight and severe prematurity, factors that are associated with developmental disabilities, including reading and writing disabilities. Cognitive and sensory disabilities must also be considered.

Children or young people are declared to have Special Education Needs (SEN) if they have learning difficulties or disabilities that call for special educational provision (DfE, 2014h). Schools and local authorities are obliged to publish a local declaration, in which they state how they identify all young people in their area who have or may have SEN, assess their needs, determine the adaptations needed to the curriculum and/or learning environments, follow their progress and provide emotional support as well as support in school transitions (DfE, 2014h). Organising support is a responsibility both of the school and of local authorities, so the manner in which it is given varies accordingly.

SEN support is funded by the government. Local authorities can also provide extra top-up funding, where the cost of special provision required to meet the needs of an individual student exceeds the nationally prescribed threshold ((DfE, 2014h). In addition, for each Year 7 (11-12-year-old) pupil who has not achieved the expected standard in literacy (and/or numeracy) at the end of Key Stage 2, the literacy and numeracy catch-up premium provides schools with an additional £500 for tuition and extra materials ((DfE, 2014h).

According to Eurydice, in England, as in the U.K. in general, children with special needs get support in mainstream schools, pre-school settings or special schools (EACEA, 2014a). Local Authorities have a statutory duty to provide free early education to two-year-olds with special educational needs or disabilities.

Provision for SEN is currently widely varied in England, with a mixed economy of learning support teams based in mainstream schools, specialist schools offering permanent placements and pupil referral units offering temporary placements for students subject to formal exclusion and requiring further assessment. However, all schools must appoint a teacher to be the school's SENCO (Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator), who is responsible for the day-to-day operation of the school's SEN policy. The SENCO co-ordinates additional support for pupils with SEN and liaises with their parents, teachers and other professionals who are involved with them. The SENCO has responsibility for requesting the involvement of an Educational Psychologist and other external services, particularly for children receiving support at School Action and School Action Plus. This also includes general SEN assessments, administration and parental support.

In 2012, 2.8% of school pupils in England had statements of special educational needs (SEN) whilst 17% of school pupils had SEN but no statement (DfE, 2012b). The Department for Education 2011 analysis found that the most common types of primary need for those with statements of SEN were autistic spectrum disorders and moderate learning difficulties. Boys were two and a half times as likely to have a statement of SEN at primary school, and three times as likely in secondary school. Pupils with SEN were more likely to have free school meals than those without. The 2011 analysis also demonstrated that, of those pupils with statements of SEN, 38.7% attended a special school, whilst 94.8% of pupils with SEN without statements attended state mainstream primary and secondary schools.

Large-scale changes to the SEN system have recently been enacted. Proposals for reform were initially set out in the 2011 SEN Green Paper, *Support and Aspiration: A New Approach to Special Educational Needs and Disability* (DfE, 2011b), and specific SEN-related clauses subsequently included in the 2014 Children and Families Act (Gov.UK, 2014c). The key SEN clauses are:

- *the replacement of SEN statements and learning difficulty assessments with a new birth-to-25 Education, Health and Care Plan (EHCP), extending coverage to young people in FE and training*
- *the requirement that LAs and health services jointly plan and commission the services for children and young people with SEN and their families*
- *the offer of personal budgets to parents/carers of SEN pupils and students to fund their support*
- *the requirement that LAs publish a 'local offer' of the support they provide*
- *the widening of the range of institutions for which parents of children and young people with statements/EHCPs can express a preference to include academy schools, FE colleges, sixth form colleges, independent special schools and independent specialist colleges approved by the Secretary of State*
- *the development of a revised statutory Code of Practice to provide guidance on the new framework for SEN which will contain the same four areas of need identified in the 2002 Code (DfES, 2001), namely:*
  - *communication and interaction*
  - *cognition and learning*
  - *behaviour, emotional and social development*
  - *sensory and/or physical needs.*

(Gov.UK, 2014c)

### **Very low birth weight and severe prematurity**

According to PERISTAT (2010, Figure 7.11, p.149) the percentage of live births with a birth weight under 2,500 grams in England was 5.8%. The range is from 3.0% in Iceland to 8.8% in Cyprus (for an overview of European countries see table E1 in Appendix B). Evidence suggests that children in England with low birth weight (less than 2,500 grams) tend to have poorer developmental outcomes than those weighing more than 2,500g at birth. There is a strong link between social background and low birth weight (DPO, 2015). However, the gap in birth weight between more and less advantaged groups in England narrowed from 2.3 percentage points in 2005 to 1.3 in 2013 (DPO, 2013). Since maternal health and lifestyle, combined with access to and uptake of antenatal care, are seen as the key factors likely to reduce low birth weight, these factors have been targeted in the Health and Social Care Act 2012, which imposes new duties on access and outcomes in the National Health Service (NHS) (DPO, 2013).

### **Cognitive or sensory disabilities**

In England, 89% of children with moderate learning difficulties, 24% of children with severe learning difficulties and 18% of children with profound multiple learning difficulties are educated in mainstream schools. These rates are declining among children with severe learning difficulties (DfE, 2012b).

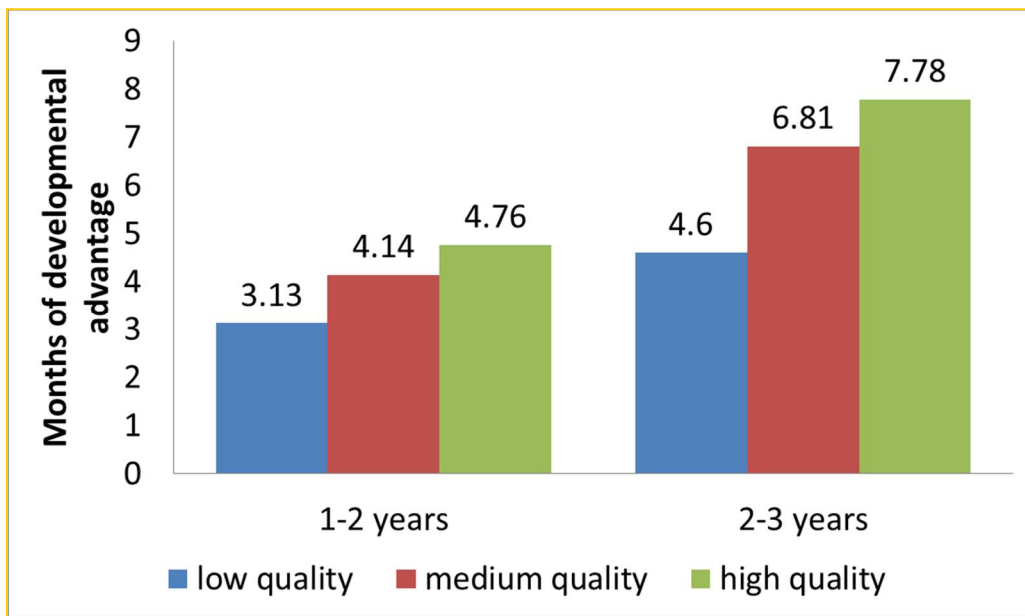
#### **5.3.3 Promoting preschool attendance, especially among disadvantaged children**

Figures correlating pre-school attendance with literacy scores are not available for England from PIRLS 2011. But the topic has been researched. As Taggart et al. (2015, p. 15) note:

- *Pre-school has a positive and long term impact on children's attainment, progress and social-behavioural development.*
- *At school entry (age 5), attending pre-school improved children's academic and social outcomes with an early start (before 3) and attending a high quality setting being particularly beneficial. Full-time attendance led to no better gains than part-time (half day) provision.*
- *Pre-school continued to influence outcomes throughout primary school, especially if it was of high quality. At age 11, high quality pre-school was especially important for boys, pupils with SEN and those from disadvantaged backgrounds. High quality pre-school enhanced the maths outcomes for disadvantaged pupils and for those of low qualified parents.*

Figure 5 below shows the advantage in terms of months of development of longer duration and higher quality on literacy at school entry. It shows that children who attended high-quality pre-school for 2-3 years were nearly 8 months ahead in their literacy development compared to children who had not attended pre-school.

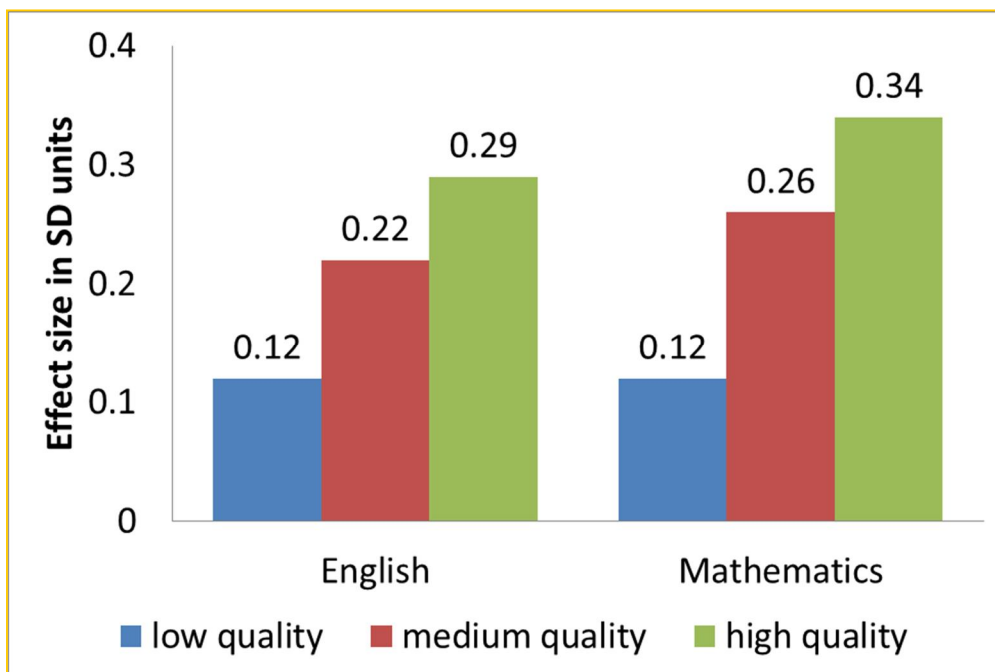
Figure 5: Development Advantage (in Months) for Duration and Quality of Pre-school on Literacy at School Entry (home as comparison)



Source: Taggart et al., 2015, p. 9

As Figure 6 shows, the benefits of both medium and high quality pre-school persisted to the end of KS2 (age 11) for attainment in Reading/English.

Figure 6: Influence of Pre-school Quality on Academic Outcomes at Age 11 (home as comparison)



Source: Taggart et al., 2015, p. 10

Pre-school education is clearly important. No child should be excluded from preschool because parents cannot afford to send their children to preschool/kindergarten institutions if they have to pay. While in half of the European countries the entire period of ECEC is free, in England non-fee-paying pre-school provision is available for all children from the age of 3 years, either in nursery classes or

nursery schools, typically for only part of the school day. Attendance is voluntary; in 2014, 97% of the eligible three and four-year-olds attended. 39% of the state-funded nursery places are supplied by private or voluntary providers (DfE, 2014c).

It should be noted that England's pre-school provision is much less in terms of hours than school provision: "All 3- to 4-year-olds in England can get 570 hours of free early education or childcare per year. This is usually taken as 15 hours each week for 38 weeks of the year" (Gov. UK, 2014a).

Two-year-olds from families with low incomes are also entitled to 15 hours per week of free early education. But currently only 58% are taking this up (Speight et al., 2015). England's Chief School Inspector, Sir Michael Wilshaw, has expressed concern about this situation and recommended that children with backgrounds of disadvantage should be given places in pre-school units attached to primary schools, where they and their parents would be most likely to have access to specialist help on topics such as speech and language therapy, behaviour management and parenting support (Gov.UK, 2015g).

### **5.3.4 Provisions for preschool children with language problems**

Literacy competence strongly builds on oral language proficiency, word knowledge, and syntactic knowledge. Measures must be taken by governments and institutions to ensure that children with poor language development (second-language speaking children and those from a low socio-cultural background, as well as others who experience difficulty in learning language) acquire adequate levels of oral language in kindergarten, preschool institutions and in school. It should be ensured that at age 4 at the latest all children are diagnosed in their oral language proficiency, and that there are obligatory courses for children falling behind in their acquisition of language competence. The aim should be that all children entering school can speak the language of the school so that they can profit from reading instruction.

Children with language difficulties are eligible for the SEN support set out above at 5.3.2. They may receive help from a speech and language therapist, an educational psychologist, a SENCO, a Special Needs advisory teacher, or a teaching assistant in the classroom.

As noted above, in England, in order to identify language development problems, there are two systematic assessments of children, which include language skills screening and consist of: a) a *Progress Check* at age 2, b) the *Early Years Foundation Stage Profile* at age 5 (EACEA, 2015a). Language support is provided as a result of this screening and any consequent *Statement of Special Education Needs*. This statement and the support that follows are designed to meet the needs of the individual child. There is provision for support from educational psychologists, speech and language therapists, and special education needs teachers, specialists in reading and other specialised professionals at a local level (EACEA, 2014, p. 109). Language impairments include problems with phonology, vocabulary, grammar and pragmatics.

However, it is not always easy for parents to access the necessary support for their children. Financial constraints on these public services mean that education and health services might not reveal all the possible sources of help (Afasic, 2015).

Children with poor language at school entry often fail to make the same progress as their more linguistically capable classmates, and achievement gaps on school entry become more marked over time (Dockrill et al., 2012). Language difficulties are related to social class. The major child study commissioned by the National Literacy Trust observes:

*Children of lower socioeconomic status are more likely to have emerging language and communication skills. Children of higher socioeconomic status are also more likely to have better than average (exceeding) reading, writing and understanding scores than children of lower socioeconomic status.*

(Formby, 2014)

### **5.3.5 Support for children and adolescents whose home language is not the language of school**

Census data from 2011 show that English (or Welsh in Wales) was not reported as the main language for 7.3% of the population of England and Wales (ONS, 2011).

In PIRLS 2011, 19.6% of students in Grade 4 in England reported that they sometimes speak a language other than the test language at home, while 1.1% reported that they never did so. Corresponding EU-24 averages are 17.3% and 3.0% respectively.

According to Twist et al.:

*Teaching is generally provided in English, but support is often provided for students who are learning English as an additional language depending on student's level of fluency.*

(Twist et al., 2012, p. 206)

Fluency is often assessed and described using a framework originally produced by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. Support may be provided by specialist teachers or bilingual teaching assistants. Those involved are expected to plan together to provide the most effective support, which often include the following: pre-teaching, to enable students to access the lesson; support during the lesson; and follow-up consolidation.

Policies on equal access and equal opportunities for all mean that the teaching of English as an additional language (EAL) takes place within the context of the mainstream curriculum (South, 2012). All teachers are expected to thoroughly understand the needs of EAL pupils and pupils with SEN (DfE, 2011a, 2014e). Teachers in Key Stages 1 and 2 (ages 5 to 11) “*must take account of the needs of pupils whose first language is not English*” (DfE, 2013a, p. 8) and those in Key Stages 3 and 4 should plan lessons in a way that helps pupils to develop their English language abilities as well as provide support needed to take part in all subjects (DfE, 2014e).

While most schools provide such support, the amount of the funding, the nature of the support and the provision of training programmes for teachers vary markedly, as these are now decided at a local level, even devolved to schools in some Local Authorities (Wardman, 2012). Such support that is provided is limited to three years for any primary school child (DfE, 2012a).

**Challenges:** Provision of support for migrant children and those whose home language is not that of the school seems to be less problematic than support for the socially and economically disadvantaged. This remains a substantial challenge in England, especially at secondary level.

### **5.3.6 Preventing early school leaving**

#### **Literacy provision and participation in secondary schooling: What is the rate of early school leavers?**

One important, but certainly not sufficient, precondition for raising performance levels in literacy for adolescents is literacy provision during secondary schooling, as functional literacy is mainly acquired in school-based learning. Thus, the provision of secondary education for all adolescents and the



prevention of early school leaving may serve as indicators of the opportunities for adolescents to improve their literacy performance, especially related to basic functional literacy.

The data detailed here were collected from a key study, *Reducing Early School Leaving* (European Commission, 2013).

Until recently, compulsory full-time education in England ended at 16 years, with a further year of part-time education or training (EACEA, 2015c). England's ESL prevention strategy is currently shifting towards a more targeted approach. The effectiveness of ESL preventive practices is ensured by:

- timely intervention (emphasis on tracking and early intervention work e.g. transition mentoring, Derby; Entry to Learning/ E2L pilots),
- integrated and effective responses (NGOs play a very important role in identifying, reaching and thereby supporting those in greatest need of support through a 'whole-adolescent' approach – e.g. *Rathbone Youth Sector Organisation* (Rathbone, 2015), *National Black Boys Can Association* (Excell3, 2015), *World Living In* (Worth Unlimited, 2015).

Meanwhile, effective practice in reintegration has focused on individual action plans (Maguire, 2010).

The reform of education provision for young people aged 14-19 in England has focused on the development of vocational learning that includes workplace training for young people disengaged from standard learning pathways. There are four routes: apprenticeships, Foundation Learning, General Qualifications, and Diplomas. In 2015, the government published a final progress report on meeting the recommendations of Professor Wolf's independent review of vocational education, released in 2011 (DfE, 2015).

As well as developing strategies to reduce ESL, there is also a focus in England on those not in education, employment or training (termed NEETs). The *Investing in Potential Strategy* (DCSF, 2009), which dates from 2009, sets out how Government, local authorities and other partners can work together effectively to support young people during their crucial formative years, reducing the proportion of young people who are NEETs and helping to prepare for the raising of the participation age. The *September Guarantee* (Gov. UK, 2014b) aims to ensure that each and every student upon leaving school at 16 has an offer of a study place for the following academic year. The Participation Age was increased from 16 to 17 in 2013 and to 18 in 2015.

### **5.3.7 Addressing the gender gap among adolescents**

#### **What support measures are in place to specifically address the gender gap?**

The National Curriculum states that teachers should take account of their duties under equal opportunities legislation that covers gender, among other considerations (DfE, 2014e). The National Literacy Trust has also introduced some successful practices based on their research (Clark et al., 2012). These include: engaging boys in reading by making it purposeful, combining reading with appropriate texts and/or linking it to technology, supportive home environments, and male reading models. The report also mentions reading competitions, staff training, additional lessons or support, class visits to the school or public library and themed works linked to books (Clark et al., 2012). However, such provisions are not yet advised in steering documents, much less seen as statutory requirements.

The National Literacy Trust also runs several initiatives that motivate boys and men to engage with reading. *Reading Champions* (NLT, 2015a), for example, is a project run in both schools and prisons, where male reading role models have been used to boost the achievement of other boys and men.

*Premier League Reading Stars* (NLT, 2015b) and *Kick into Reading* (NLT, 2015c) use the motivational power of sport to promote literacy and hold great appeal for a male audience (NLT, 2015d).

# ADULTS

---

## 6 Performance data for adults in literacy

This section of the report draws on data from PIAAC the OECD's Survey of Adult Skills, to describe the reading performance of adults in the United Kingdom. In the United Kingdom, education is a devolved policy area and so education systems in the four countries, England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales are separate. Accordingly, the policy section of the report focuses entirely on England (there is no ELINET member from Northern Ireland). However, as PIAAC presented combined data for England and Northern Ireland, this data has been used here. Due to the comparative size of the populations in England and Northern Ireland, as well as their many similarities, we believe that the combined data provides an accurate picture of adult literacy performance in England.

Our focus here is on low achievers, those who scored on the lower levels of the survey: Level 1 (scores from 176 points to fewer than 226 points) and below Level 1 (scores below 176 points).

**At Level 1**, adults can read relatively short digital or print continuous, non-continuous, or mixed texts to locate a single piece of information, which is identical to or synonymous with the information given in the question or directive. These texts contain little competing information. Adults performing at this level can complete simple forms, understand basic vocabulary, determine the meaning of sentences, and read continuous texts with a degree of fluency.

**Below Level 1**, individuals can read brief texts on familiar topics and locate a single piece of specific information identical in form to information in the question or directive. They are not required to understand the structure of sentences or paragraphs and only basic vocabulary knowledge is required.

In this report, results are compared to the average of the 17 EU countries which took part in PIAAC.

### 6.1 Average Performance in Literacy

The United Kingdom performs similar to the EU-17 average of 271, scoring an average of 272.

Table 28: Average Literacy Performance

	Average	Standard Error
UK (England / N. Ireland*)	272	1.0
EU-17	271	-

\*We report about England/N. Ireland here as closest to United Kingdom in Elinet.

The lowest 10 percent of participants in the United Kingdom perform similar to the lowest 10 percent of the EU-17 average. On the other side, the best 10 percent of participants in the United Kingdom perform significantly better than the best of the EU-17 average. Accordingly, the gap between top and bottom performers is 124 points in the United Kingdom, wider than the EU-17 average of 117.

Table 29 presents the spread of literacy achievement of adults in the United Kingdom and EU-17 countries.

Table 29: Spread of Literacy Achievement

	10 <sup>th</sup> Percentile	Standard Error	90 <sup>th</sup> Percentile	Standard Error	Gap 10 <sup>th</sup> -90 <sup>th</sup>
United Kingdom	209	2.41	<b>333</b>	1.72	<b>124</b>
EU-17	210	0.49	327	0.33	<b>117</b>

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

## 6.2 Gaps - Low Literate Population

In the United Kingdom, 27% of the unemployed participants perform at or below Level 1. The proportions of adults performing at Level 1 or below do not differ between men and women. The proportion is far smaller among those who live with a spouse or partner than among those living alone. A very similar proportion of non-native speakers perform at or below Level 1 than on average across EU-17 countries, while age seems to matter very differently than on average of EU-17 countries.

### 6.2.1 Language

Migration has no causal relation with literacy. What is significant, however, is the oral language competence of the migrant. As part of the survey, participants were asked if their native language is the same as the test language. 32% of those with a different native language scored at or below Level 1, compared to nearly 15% whose native language was the same as the test language. The comparable figures for the EU-17 average are 34% and 14%.

Table 30: Test language and Native Language at Level 1 or below

	Test language <b>not same</b> as native language	Std. Error	Test language <b>same</b> as native language	Std. Error
United Kingdom	32.2 %	3.44	14.8 %	0.72
EU-17	33.6 %	0.79	14.3 %	0.17

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

### 6.2.2 Age

The percentage of adults in the United Kingdom scoring at or below Level 1 first decreases and then increases with age: from 19% among young adults (16-24 years old) to 14% among adults aged 35-44 years old, to again 19% among those aged 55 plus. The overall impression of these data show that in the United Kingdom, age seems to matter quite differently than in other countries. In the age groups of adults (25-44 years old), the share of Level 1 or below performers is lowest (14%).

Table 31: Age at Level 1 or below

Age	United Kingdom	Std. Error	EU-17	Std. Error
<b>24 or less</b>	<b>19 %</b>	2.13	12 %	0.33
<b>25-34</b>	<b>14 %</b>	1.54	12 %	0.32
<b>35-44</b>	14 %	1.35	14 %	0.32
<b>45-54</b>	18 %	1.45	18 %	0.36
<b>55 plus</b>	<b>19 %</b>	1.49	25 %	0.41

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

### 6.2.3 Gender

In the EU-17 average the sexes show nearly no significant differences, in the United Kingdom there is no significant difference, either. 16.9% of men and 16.4% of women scored at or below Level 1. The comparable figures for the EU-17 average are very similar with 16.6% of men and 16.3% of women.

Table 32: Gender at Level 1 or below

	Male	Std. Error	Female	Std. Error
United Kingdom	16.9 %	1.07	16.4 %	1.00
EU-17	16.6 %	0.23	16.3 %	0.22

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

### 6.2.4 Family

In the United Kingdom, 14% of those living with a spouse or partner scored at or below Level 1, compared to 19% of those living alone. The comparable figures for the EU-17 average are 16% and 15%.

Table 33: Living with spouse or partner among those who scored at Level 1 or below

	Living with spouse or partner	Percent	Std. Error
United Kingdom	Yes	<b>14 %</b>	0.91
	No	<b>19 %</b>	1.71
EU-17	Yes	16 %	0.21
	No	15 %	0.31

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

### 6.2.5 Employment

13% of the employed in the United Kingdom perform at or below Level 1, as do 27% of the unemployed, and 25% who are out of the labour force. The international comparison reveals that in the United Kingdom, the unemployed participants are significantly less literate than the EU-17 average (27% vs. 22%).

Table 34: Employment at Level 1 or below

	<b>Employed</b>	Std. Error	<b>Unemployed</b>	Std. Error	<b>Out of the labor force</b>	Std. Error
United Kingdom	13 %	0.83	<b>27 %</b>	3.35	25 %	1.68
EU-17	13 %	0.19	22 %	0.80	24 %	0.36

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

## 6.3 Skills Use

Participants in the Survey of Adult Skills were asked about their writing and reading at home, and at work, if employed. In the table below, a higher score shows more frequent use.

Table 35: Literacy Skills Used At Home and At Work

	<b>Writing Skills</b>				<b>Reading Skills</b>			
	<b>at Home</b>		<b>at Work</b>		<b>at Home</b>		<b>at Work</b>	
	Index of Use	Std. Error	Index of Use	Std. Error	Index of Use	Std. Error	Index of Use	Std. Error
United Kingdom	<b>2.09</b>	0.02	<b>2.14</b>	0.02	<b>2.27</b>	0.02	<b>2.09</b>	0.02
EU-17	1.99	0.00	1.95	0.00	2.02	0.00	1.97	0.00

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

Adults in the United Kingdom perform significantly better with regard to their use of *reading skills at home* than the EU-17 average, and also differ significantly and positively from the EU-17 average index of use of *reading skills at work*. Use of *writing skills at home* and *at work* also differs significantly and positively from the corresponding indexes of the EU-17 average. These indexes reveal that adults in the United Kingdom use their literacy skills more often than on average across EU-17 countries, especially their *reading skills at home* and their *writing skills at work*.

## 6.4 Literacy Gaps

### 6.4.1 Parental Education

Table 36 presents the spread of literacy achievement by adults reporting their parents' highest education level. Parental level of education is a significant factor in the United Kingdom, as in the rest of the EU countries that took part in PIAAC.

In the United Kingdom, there is a significant difference of 29 points between those reporting that neither parent attained upper secondary education and those reporting that at least one parent attained secondary education (252 vs. 281). Furthermore, those reporting that at least one parent completed tertiary level education perform significantly better than those whose parents attained secondary education (296 vs. 281). The gap between those reporting lower parental education and those reporting higher parental education is similar to the EU-17 gap of 41, scoring a gap of 44. Across

the EU-17 average, it is the same pattern on a significantly lower level for the last two groups (252 vs. 253; 281 vs. 277; 296 vs. 284).

The overall impression of these data is that, the higher the parental level of education, the better the literacy performance.

Table 36: Literacy Proficiency by Parents' Education

	<b>Lower Secondary or Below</b>	Std. Error	<b>At least one parent secondary/ post-secondary</b>	Std. Error	<b>At least one parent Tertiary</b>	Std. Error	<b>Gap</b>
United Kingdom	252	1.66	<b>281</b>	1.39	<b>296</b>	1.71	<b>44</b>
EU-17	253	0.38	277	0.32	294	0.44	<b>41</b>

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

#### 6.4.2 Books at Home

Table 37 shows the spread of achievement of adults by reported number of books at home. This is a common measure of cultural capital. In the United Kingdom, 62% of adults report having fewer than 100 books at home. On average, these achieve 262 points in PIAAC, 30 points worse than the adults reporting that they have more than 100 books at home (262 vs. 292). This gap is similar to the categories across the EU-17 average (30 vs. 31). Distribution on average across the EU-17 countries is similar, too. However, those having fewer than 100 books perform significantly better than the comparable EU-17 group (262 vs. 259) as do the ones with more than 100 books (292 vs. 290).

Table 37: Books at Home

	Average score of those with <b>less than 100 books</b>	Percent of Population	Std. Error	Average score of those with <b>more than 100 books</b>	Percent of Population	Std. Error	<b>Gap</b>
United Kingdom	<b>262</b>	62	1.18	<b>292</b>	38	1.29	<b>30</b>
EU-17	259	60	0.25	290	40	0.28	<b>31</b>

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**



### 6.4.3 Language

In the United Kingdom, there is one percent point more adults reporting that the test language is *not* their native language than on average across EU-17 countries. These adults, who do not speak English as their native language, achieve significantly fewer points in the PIAAC test than those who report that their native language is the same as the test language (248 vs. 275).

Table 38 shows the spread of literacy achievement referring to the test language and adults' native language.

Table 38: Native Language

	Language of the Test and Native Language						Gap
	Same			Not Same			
	Mean	Std. Error	%	Mean	Std. Error	%	
United Kingdom	275	1.02	90	248	4.13	10	<b>27</b>
EU-17	274	0.19	91	246	0.91	9	<b>28</b>

Significant differences between the country and EU-17 in **bold**

The distribution in the United Kingdom of native-speaking and non-native-speaking participants is similar to the EU-17 average. Those participants whose native language is the *same* as the test language perform nearly the same as the EU-17 average (274 vs. 275). Those whose native language is *not the same* scored also very similar to the average across EU-17 countries (248 vs. 246). Accordingly, the gap in the United Kingdom between the native and non-native speakers is 27 points, similar to the comparable EU-17 average (28 points).

## 6.5 Participation in Adult Education - Low Literate Population

In the United Kingdom, the rate of participation in formal or non-formal adult education by adults on Level 1 or below is significantly better than on average across the OECD-Countries (38% vs. 31%).

Table 39: Participation Rates in Formal and Non-Formal Adult Education on Level 1 or below

	Participation Rate	Standard Error
United Kingdom	<b>38 %</b>	2.3
OECD-Average*	31 %	0.5

\*For technical reasons we report the OECD average here.

Adults in the United Kingdom are most likely to participate in on the job training (organised by supervisors or similar facilitators) reaching 21% of those who perform at Level 1 or below and 50% of those performing at Level 4/5. Second frequently, adults in the United Kingdom attend seminars or workshops, with 10% of those performing at Level 1 or below and 47% of adults performing at Level 4/5. For private lessons and open or distance education, the figures are similar to the pattern of the OECD average for adults at or below Level 1 and lower for the ones on Level 4/5.

# 7 Adult Literacy Policy

Recent policy initiatives have highlighted the importance of adult literacy, which in English policy is now referred to as adult English. This shift in policy discourse was introduced by the current coalition government and is gradually taking hold amongst providers.

“In April 2013, the Coalition Government published *Rigour and Responsiveness in Skills*, setting out six areas of change to improve the vocational skills system, including the need to develop relevant, rigorous and recognised qualifications. Leading on from this, *Getting the Job Done: The Government’s Reform Plan for Vocational Qualifications*, proposed reforms to English and maths qualifications, stating that “our ambition is that once the new GCSEs are available they will replace other qualifications as the single gold-standard measuring achievement at Level 2 for all ages and ability levels”.

The national inspectorate OFSTED defines English in the following way:

*‘English is a general term that applies to all learning that aims primarily to improve a learner’s skills in this core subject. For some learners this will be entry level literacy; for others it will be the application of this core skill in a vocational context. For others, it might be achieving a GCSE in English’* (Ofsted, 2012b, p. 42)

## 7.1 Adult Literacy Provision

**What types of adult literacy provision are there? What do you consider to be adult literacy provision in your country?**

Adult literacy/English provision can be:

- discrete / stand-alone provision
- part of vocational education and training (VET) – particularly apprenticeships
- tailored to support for job seekers receiving government benefits

There is not a clear distinction between literacy provision for young people (post-16) and for adults. Such classes often have a mix of younger and older adults, pursuing the same qualification aims. In some types of provision, young adults are the majority.

Adult literacy provision is delivered in three main areas.

- **Further Education and Skills** includes: learners who are studying a course in a FE College, with a training provider or within their local community; and employees undertaking an Apprenticeship or other qualification in the workplace.
- **Workplace Learning** covers a broad range of training, including basic skills, Level 2, Level 3 and higher-level skills. This training is mainly delivered through the workplace (but excludes Apprenticeships). Between 2008/09 and 2010/11 this included the Train to Gain programme, Employability Skills Pilot and other programmes such as Programmes for the Unemployed. From 2011/12 this includes all training mainly delivered through the workplace (excluding Apprenticeships).
- **Community Learning** funds a wide range of informal courses, ranging from personal development through to older people’s learning, IT courses, employability skills, family learning and activities to promote civic engagement and community development. Courses

may be offered by local authorities, colleges, and voluntary and community groups, and include activities specifically targeted at deprived areas and disadvantaged groups.

## Qualifications

Adult learning in England is focused on the achievement of qualifications. For adult literacy, there are two main qualifications:

### *General Certificate of Secondary Education: English (GCSE)*

GCSEs are qualifications taken by 15-year-olds in school and are seen as the academic 'gold standard'. Currently there is a policy initiative to increase the number of adults taking GCSEs, rather than other qualifications, such as Functional Skills. This is despite the fact that GCSEs are not designed for adults.

### *Functional Skills in English*

Functional skills were introduced to address concerns about standards of English, mathematics and ICT for learners of all ages. They were developed to replace the existing adult English and maths qualifications which were introduced as part of the Skills for Life strategy. The qualifications have been designed to equip people to apply English in practical situations, choosing appropriate skills and techniques. They assess how well learners are able to apply skills in English to solving everyday problems at work, home and in society.

### *QCF units (QCF, 2015)*

These are also smaller units of learning, designed to develop the underpinning skills and knowledge required for learners to progress onto Functional Skills or GCSE qualifications. These units are based on the Adult Core Curriculum and are generally between 10 and 30 guided learning hours. They are assessed by an end test or a portfolio, for example Ascentis Awards (Ascentis, 2015).

Figure 7: Types of qualification and PIACC levels

<b>Type of qualification</b>	<b>Level</b>
GCSE English Language (A* to C)	level 2
Functional skills qualification in English	entry level, level 1 and level 2
QCF English and maths qualifications and units	entry level, level 1 and level 2

## 7.2 Quality monitoring in adult literacy

In terms of inspection, adult literacy falls under the remit of Ofsted, the national inspection authority. It sets and monitors the national standards for the quality of adult literacy providers and the national benchmarks for adult literacy performance. The overall aim of Ofsted inspections is to evaluate how efficiently and effectively the education and training provision meets learners' needs with a view to speeding up improvement in the quality of the further education and skills sector. Inspections also provide users with information about the quality of provision in England; to help inform them about the providers they use or about the providers they may use in the future. As defined in the Ofsted user and stakeholder strategy and deriving from section 117(4) of the Education and Inspections Act 2006:

*those who benefit, either directly or indirectly, from the services that Ofsted inspects or regulates: children and young people, parents and carers, adult learners and employers.*

Ofsted inspectors help bring about improvement by identifying strengths and areas for improvement, highlighting good practice and judging what steps need to be taken to improve provision further. Finally, they provide the relevant secretaries of state and other stakeholders with an independent public account of the quality of education and training, the standards achieved and how efficiently the provision is led and managed (Ofsted, 2012a, p. 5).

In this document, Literacy and English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) are referred to as English and ESOL. Each is inspected as a discrete subject in learning and skills post 16 provision

Learners' English and mathematics skills are also evaluated as part of the inspection of foundation learning, provision designed to get learners ready for level 2, a standard equivalent to GCSE. On prison inspections, inspectors evaluate how well prisoners' English skills are assessed initially and the progress they subsequently make in developing these skills and their plans for further training in prison and/or resettlement.

Ofsted produce regular thematic reports commenting on the quality of education provision, including adult literacy (Ofsted, 2011).

### **Are there national quality standards for the quality of adult literacy providers?**

Institutions providing adult literacy courses are monitored by Ofsted.

### **Are there national benchmarks/standards for adult literacy performance? How are adults' progress in reading and writing assessed/monitored?**

Once again, Ofsted is the prime organisation ensuring standards.

Progress during courses is monitored by practitioners through initial assessment, formative assessment and summative assessment

### **What accountability measures are in place for adult education institutions?**

Institutions are accountable to Ofsted, and also to institutional Quality Assurance (QA) systems.

## **7.3 Literacy curricula/reading instruction**

### **Is there a national literacy curriculum for adults? How is this linked to school curricula?**

The adult literacy standards<sup>8</sup> define the range of literacy skills and capabilities that adults need to function and progress at work and in society. The adult literacy and numeracy core curriculum<sup>9</sup> gives specific detail about what skills should be taught. The adult literacy and numeracy core curriculum was developed in 2001 to reflect the newly developed national standards and give specific detail about what skills should be taught.

Both the Standards and the Curriculum are organised into levels. These can be mapped from school to adult provision, but there is no direct link between the two and the national qualifications framework.

The national standards for adult literacy and numeracy are specified at three levels: Entry level, Level 1 and Level 2. Levels 1 and 2 are aligned to the key skills of communication and application of number

---

<sup>8</sup> <http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/node/20518> accessed on 07.10.2015

<sup>9</sup> <http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/sflcurriculum>, accessed on 07.10.2015

(this alignment is signposted on the left-hand page of the curriculum document at these levels). Entry level is further divided into three sub-levels: Entry 1, Entry 2 and Entry 3. Entry level has been set out in this way to describe in detail the small steps required for adults to make progress. This sub-division also signals a clear alignment of the skill levels with levels 1, 2 and 3 of the National Curriculum. The three levels of the national standards for adult literacy and numeracy correspond to the levels of demand of qualifications in the national qualifications framework for schools and the OECD PIAAC, illustrated in the table below.

Table 40: Alignment of National Curriculum levels with Adult Literacy levels and PIAAC levels

English schools	Adult Literacy	PIAAC
	Level 2	Level 3
National Curriculum Level 5	Level 1	Level 2
National Curriculum Level 4		
National Curriculum Level 3	Entry 3	Level 1
National Curriculum Level 2	Entry 2	
National Curriculum Level 1	Entry 1	

The Adult Literacy Core Curriculum describes the content of what should be taught in literacy programmes and sets out a clear set of skills required to meet national standards. It is divided into five levels and focuses on the following skills:

#### Speaking and Listening

- Listen and respond
- Speak to communicate
- Engage in discussion

#### Reading

- Read and understand
- Read and obtain information

#### Writing

- Write to communicate

The curriculum, with detailed criteria, exemplars and guidance, is available online, with extensive detail of skills, guidance and a huge number of printable documents. The curriculum describes in detail the content of what should be taught in literacy and numeracy (as well as ESOL and pre-entry) programmes, and sets out a clear set of skills required to meet the national standards.

There is also a curriculum for English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) and a pre-entry curriculum framework, **Access for All**<sup>10</sup>, which gives detailed guidance on making the curriculum accessible to learners with a range of learning difficulties and disabilities, such as being blind or partially sighted or having dyslexia. Adult literacy and numeracy standards range from Entry 1 to Level 2, mirroring the Qualifications and Curriculum Framework. They are assessed by national adult literacy and numeracy qualifications.

<sup>10</sup> <http://rwp.excellencegateway.org.uk/Access%20for%20All/> , accessed on 07.10.2015

### **What is the accepted methodology for the teaching of literacy to adults? Skills vs Social Practice conflict**

Individual teachers, curriculum managers and professionals within providers are free to use whatever methods and materials they think work best for individual learners or learner cohorts. For a comprehensive description of adult literacy teaching methodology see: Hughes, N. and Schwab, I. (2010) *Teaching Adult Literacy: Principles and Practice*. Oxford: OUP.

### **How do curricula and learning materials cater for diversity of learner groups and learning needs?**

See: Hughes, N. and Schwab, I. (2010) *Teaching Adult Literacy: Principles and Practice*. Oxford: OUP.

### **Is there a specific focus on literacy in VET provision for adults?**

In Vocational Education and Training (VET) programmes for adults, here is renewed policy focus on English as an integral part of VET within post-compulsory education. It is required for all those enrolling on apprenticeship programmes:

*...all new Apprentices that have already achieved Level 1 standard in English and/or maths prior to starting their Apprenticeship will be required to take up the offer of training to Level 2 standard. All Intermediate level Apprentices will still be required to achieve a minimum of Level 1 in English and maths.* (DBIS, 2013, p. 18)

A recent commission into Vocational Education (CVTL, 2013) highlighted the importance of English and maths. The Commission noted that vocational teachers lacked the confidence to teach English and Maths as part of their vocational teaching and saw this as a very serious problem.

*It is time for a concerted effort to ensure everyone involved in publicly-funded VET programmes can achieve the level of English and maths they need to progress within their occupational fields and to change jobs in the future. In order to achieve this, we need to create a cadre of specialist English and maths tutors in every college to be available as a resource shared between all vocational education and training providers within a given locality.* (CVTL, 2013, p. 20)

## **7.4 Screenings/assessments/support**

### **How are adults with literacy needs identified?**

Most adults are self identified and then have to find provision. Small numbers may be identified through the workplace, through jobcentre plus or other interventions.

The latest funding guidance from the ministry responsible for adult skills (Business, Innovation and Skills – BIS) states clearly the importance of accurately identifying adults' skills to ensure that they are placed on an appropriate learning programme:

*We will also continue to require learners to be enrolled on a course at a level above that at which they have been initially assessed. We expect initial and diagnostic assessments to be robust and thorough. The Skills Funding Agency has strengthened its assurance arrangements and from 2013/14 expect to see evidence of learners having been effectively assessed at the beginning of their learning and then placed on a higher level course.* (SFA, 2014b, p.19)

Unemployed adults are screened by job centres and those with poor spoken English are sent to providers for initial assessment and, if necessary, training.

### **How are adults' prior literacy knowledge and skills recognised and validated?**

Prior literacy knowledge is recognised and validated largely through initial and or diagnostic assessments and through interview when they enrol for a course. Recognition of Prior Learning is a method of assessment (leading to the award of credit) that considers whether a learner can demonstrate that they can meet the assessment requirements for a unit through the knowledge, understanding or skills that they already possess and so do not need to develop these through a course of learning.

### **Are there any standard tests to assess literacy needs or learning progress in literacy programmes?**

There are a range of Initial Assessment (IA) processes, both commercially available and custom designed for use by individual providers. They all have various strengths and weaknesses, but there is no 'quality kitemark' attached to them. The most widely used IAs are: Forskills (Skills builder), Move on, P-metrics, Tools library, Mindset 2000, BKSB, Guroo and Tribal Target Skills Gold.

### **How are adults with dyslexia identified and supported?**

Generally through self-referral or as a by-product of enrolling in a class.

## **7.5 Special support for second-language learners/migrants**

### **Is there provision for adult migrants whose home language is not the official language of the host country?**

Provision for adults who do not have English as a first language is termed ESOL in England. ESOL refers to English language provision for anyone who has come to the UK to settle and live permanently, who speaks a language or languages other than English. ESOL courses usually lead to a qualification and are described by levels: Entry 1, Entry 2, Entry 3, Level 1 and Level 2. The courses at Entry level may include elements of citizenship, so that learners may use the qualification to apply for UK settlement and naturalisation/citizenship. ESOL may also be embedded as part of another course.

ESOL learners do not usually come to the UK primarily in order to improve their English, but for a range of other reasons - political, economic or personal. They may be refugees or economic migrants; they may have arrived recently, or have been living in the UK for a long period; they may have a high level of previous education, or have never been to school.

Most ESOL learners are not learning English as an end in itself, but because they want to do other things which require an improved knowledge of English; such as work, study, participate more fully in UK life, and support their children's learning.

English language skills are essential in the community and for success in the job market. Learners who do not use English as their first language are expected to undertake ESOL learning which improves their prospects of getting a job and enables them to progress to Functional Skills in English and GCSE in English language (SFA, 2015).

### **Who pays for this provision?**

ESOL learners in general have to pay for their provision unless they qualify for free funding in specific circumstances e.g. for those who are on employment related benefit, have been in the UK for 3+ years, and have less than a level 2 qualification.

### **Does this provision employ specialist teachers?**

There are separate ITE courses for ESOL teachers as well as specific CPD programmes. However, there is no requirement on providers to use ESOL trained teachers, and in reality ESOL learners are often taught alongside literacy learners by literacy teachers.

### **Is there specialist provision for those who have poor literacy skills?**

There have been attempts to recognise and meet the needs of learners who lack literacy in their mother tongue and therefore require more time to progress than those who are already literate in their mother tongue. Training for teachers was developed and a small number of teachers were trained.

When the national adult curriculum was updated in 2010, the Entry level 1 Reading and Entry level 1 Writing sections were split into two parts, one for learners who read and write in other languages, including other scripts, and the other for basic literacy learners who do not read and write in any language. This was in recognition of the distinct needs of such learners.

### **Is there a separate curriculum for this type of provision?**

The Adult ESOL Core Curriculum (Excellence Gateway, 2015) describes the content of what should be taught in ESOL programmes and sets out a clear set of skills required to meet national standards. It is divided into five levels and focuses on the following skills::

#### Speaking and Listening

- Listen and respond
- Speak to communicate
- Engage in discussion

#### Reading

- Read and understand
- Read and obtain information

#### Writing

- Write to communicate

## **7.6 Reading environments to stimulate reading motivation**

### **Are there schemes to promote reading for pleasure among adults?**

There are no formal government programmes to incentivise and support reading for pleasure. However, there are organisations that promote adult literacy and reading for pleasure, such as *National Literacy Trust*, *NIACE*, the *Reading Agency* and *Booktrust*.



Examples of current promotions include *Quick Reads* (Quick Reads, 2015) and *Reading Ahead* (formerly called the *Six Book Challenge*) (Reading Agency, 2015c) and the *Find a Read* database of recommended reads for emergent readers (Reading Agency, 2015d):

NRDC carried out an evaluation of reading for pleasure for adults at the lowest literacy levels for the *Reading Agency* in 2011 (Clarke and Treagust, 2011).

A small number of specialist publishers focus on producing books for beginner or reluctant readers. A notable example is *Gatehouse Books* (Gatehouse Books, 2015), which publishes and distributes books and resources for use in post-14 and adult basic education.

### **Is there systematic cooperation with civil society – e.g. libraries, bookstores, literature institutions, theatres, media, newspapers, publishers etc. in reading promotion for adults?**

Cooperation with libraries by bookstores, literature institutions, theatres, media, newspapers, and publishers is key to many of the initiatives cited above.

### **Are there family literacy programmes with a focus on supporting adult literacy?**

Family literacy programmes are provided by local authorities and in general are located in schools. Although originally designed to help progress the skills of both parents and children, family provision currently tends to focus on the child's literacy skills. However, for parents with low skills, the programmes do assist adults with their literacy skills and practice as well. NRDC has carried out a number of research projects in this area (NRDC, 2015).

## **7.7 Digital environments/use of technology in education**

### **Is there a digital gap? How are adults supported in acquiring digital skills / digital literacy?**

In a speech to the House of Lords in January 2014, Martha Lane Fox (the Government's Digital Champion) said:

*There are 11 million adults who lack four basic online skills – the ability to communicate, search and share information and to do these things safely. 0% are over 65 but 50% are of working age in a country where 90% of new jobs require basic online skills and many vacancies are only advertised online. (Lane Fox, 2014)*

A higher figure of 16 million is used in a 2013 report from the Department for Culture, Media and Sport – Connectivity, Content and Consumers: Britain's Digital Platform for Growth (DCMS, 2013).

In England the government's position (Gov.UK, 2013d) is to make the country become 'digital by default' by offering many public services online. This comes from a review of DirectGov carried out by Lane Fox in 2010 (Transform, 2010).

These exclusion figures come from *Go On UK*, the charity that aims to make the UK the world's most digitally skilled nation (Go On UK, 2015). *Go On* works in partnership with the government and is the UK's Digital Skills Alliance. *Go On Local Beta* offers local assistance.

### **Which population groups are excluded from access to ICTs?**

A breakdown of statistics on those lacking basic online skills can be found in Ipsos MORI, (2014), which comes from the BBC Digital Capabilities Update, 6th- 15th September 2013. The following categories were strongly represented:

- Older people
- People with low SES
- Unemployed people
- People who live in social housing

Further information can be found in a 2009 report from British Telecom, *An Insight into Closing the Digital Divide* (BT, 2009), and, for a focus on older people and digital inclusion see a 2013 report from Age UK – *Digital inclusion Evidence Review* (Green and Rossall, 2013).

### **Are there any web-based programmes for adults to improve their literacy & numeracy skills?**

*Learndirect* (2015) is the UK's largest provider of skills, training and employment services. It provides

- qualifications in everyday skills such as maths, English and IT;
- vocational qualifications and Apprenticeships in many industries (See also elearnuk, 2015).

The government is launching a pilot initiative to offer young job-seekers (aged 18-21), where mandatory training using the latest online technologies will be provided to those who lack qualifications in English and in Maths.

The BBC *Skillswise* site (BBC, 2015b) is designed to help all adults below level 2 with materials adults can use themselves, or which can be used with a teacher in a group.

### **What classroom resources (E-books, notebooks, internet, mobile phones...) are used to support the development of adults' literacy?**

There is no centralised approach to using learning technologies in the delivery of adult literacy provision. The implementation of these resources will take place at the individual classroom or institutional level.

A recent NIACE report (NIACE, 2011) gives some information on the use of technology

- There is widespread use of familiar technologies such as Microsoft Office, the Internet and video and still cameras. Much of this linked to existing teaching methods.
- Roughly a third of practitioners are using technologies that have potential to change classroom practices such as Interactive Whiteboards and Classroom Response voting systems.
- A relatively small proportion of practice involves really innovative technologies and methods, but the pioneering practitioners and providers do have leading edge approaches, which should be more widely adopted.
- Three nationally provided online resources stand out as being most frequently used. These are BBC Skillswise, (BBC, 2015b) Skills Workshop (Skills Workshop 2015) and Move On (Excellence Gateway, 2015a).
- Examples of online delivery were identified from the UK and abroad. There are good examples of both professionally developed materials, as well as locally tutor-created content. These resources give greatest value where they are designed to be used both as a stand-alone distance course and also as activities within a taught course.

- Games are not used widely, with the exception of those that are incorporated in specific sites such as BBC Skillswise.
- There is surprisingly little use so far of e-book readers, but practitioners told us they expect that this may change.
- Technology is used widely for initial and diagnostic assessment, usually using assessment products.
- Technology it is also widely used to deliver the summative national tests, but these have been in place for some time and should now be reviewed.
- Where technology is used for formative assessment, it is most effective when technology is combined with verbal or face-to-face feedback, and the setting of new learning goals.

## 7.8 Teachers

### **What are the professional roles within adult education?**

The terms teacher and tutor are both used, depending on the institution.

### **What is the status/reputation of teachers and other professionals who work in adult education?**

In general, teaching in the adult or FE sector is considered to be of lower status than teaching in schools. This is partly because so many teachers in the sector work part time (sessional) or do the job alongside other work or roles. It is also seen as offering less good working conditions and pay rates than the schools sector.

### **What are their working conditions?**

Working conditions vary greatly, reflecting the diverse nature of adult education providers in England. While some teachers have full time contracts, others are hourly paid and have to prepare their classes and mark work in their own time.

### **How do salaries compare to the national average?**

Each provider is its own business and is free to set its own rates of pay, working hours, provision of training etc. Teachers also work a wide range of sessional hours, which again are treated in different ways by different employers. A fully qualified teacher in the adult sector in a full time role in London would expect to earn around £30,000 - £35,000 a year. The inner London median household income in 2015 was £39,100 (GLA, 2015).

## 7.9 Teacher education

### **What are the statutory qualification requirements for adult literacy teachers?**

From September 2013 new qualifications became available for teaching in the FE sector (Gov.UK, 2013e). The new qualifications are:

#### **Generic qualifications**

Level 3 Award in Education and Training 12 credits

Level 4 Certificate in Education and Training 36 credits

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training 120 credits

## **Specialist qualifications**

There are 3 types of specialist qualification, all at Level 5 for those teaching, or aspiring to teach, disabled learners, English (literacy), English (ESOL), English (literacy and ESOL) and Mathematics (numeracy)

### **a. Generic qualifications including a specialist pathway**

These are diploma qualifications of 120 credits, where part of the qualification and practice is taken in the context of one of the specialist areas.

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training including a specialist pathway 120 credits

### **b. Integrated specialist qualifications**

These are diploma qualifications of 120 credits (135 for English: literacy and ESOL), where all of the qualification and practice is taken in the context of one of the specialist areas.

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (English: Literacy)

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (English: ESOL)

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (English: Literacy and ESOL)

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (Mathematics: Numeracy)

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (Disabled Learners)

### **c. Standalone specialist diplomas**

In these 45 credit diplomas (60 credits for ESOL and literacy combined) the qualification and practice is taken in the context of one of the specialist areas. The titles differ from the 'full' qualifications to differentiate between them.

Level 5 Diploma in Teaching English: Literacy

Level 5 Diploma in Teaching English: ESOL

Level 5 Diploma in Teaching English: Literacy and ESOL

Level 5 Diploma in Teaching Mathematics: Numeracy

Level 5 Diploma in Teaching Disabled Learners

## **Are there specialist qualification routes for adult literacy teachers?**

Teachers of literacy, numeracy or English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), as well as those working with learners with learning difficulties, needed to complete a Level 5 subject-specific qualification in the subject they want to teach, as well as the generic teaching award. This can be achieved through an integrated programme, which gives both the teaching qualification and the subject specialism, such as:

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (English: Literacy)

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (Disabled Learners)

(NB: Teachers of other subjects can complete a generic Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training. In addition to a generic teaching qualification, all teachers were also required to hold at least a Level 3 qualification in the area they wish to teach e.g. an 'A' Level or equivalent e.g. extensive professional experience.)

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (English: ESOL)

Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training (English: Literacy and ESOL)

## **What are the entry requirements for ITE?**

Entry Criteria for English (Literacy and ESOL)

Potential trainees must be able to:

- apply English language skills to complex and non-routine contexts
- transfer their English language skills from familiar contexts to new situations that may require the adaptation and extension of these skills in order to attempt the task
- make appropriate choices, independently, concerning the most effective communication methods and language skills to be used in any given situation
- exercise autonomy and judgement in completing tasks and procedures
- reflect on and evaluate language use in a range of situations.

Potential teacher trainees must demonstrate content knowledge in English. They must evidence each of the elements and all the associated extent.

Use of content knowledge in English (speaking, listening, reading and writing) should be evidenced through tasks which require the application of that content knowledge, rather than through discrete item testing. These should provide evidence of content knowledge beyond the requirement of study in all existing level 2 English qualifications.

Having appropriate content knowledge in English will enable trainees not only to benefit from their teacher training programme, but also to build on and develop their skills in English throughout their programme of study.

## **Who pays for training?**

The trainee teacher pays for the training, but there are bursaries available from central government to encourage uptake of teachers with qualifications or experience, seen as in high demand. Currently, bursaries are available for those with very good degrees in English or related subjects.

## **Are there compulsory (or optional) language and literacy modules in all adult education ITE?**

There is considerable input about literacy and numeracy in all generic adult teaching courses, and there may be optional modules available, but there is no requirement for a module in adult literacy or numeracy.

## **What is the length of the required training?**

For the Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training with a specialist pathway, as well as the academic criteria, there is a minimum practice requirement of 100 hours teaching, 50 of which must be in the specialist area, with 8 assessed observations of teaching, 4 in the specialist area. For the Level 5 integrated specialist diplomas there is a minimum practice requirement of 100 hours teaching in the specialist area, with 8 assessed observations of teaching, all in the specialist area

## **Is there a curriculum/quality standards?**

There is no nationally agreed curriculum or set of quality standards. Each awarding body and provider is free to create its own qualifications within strict guidelines. Adult teacher training is, however, inspected by Ofsted, the national education quality assurance agency.

### **Is there continuous professional development (in-service training) for teachers which focuses on literacy development**

CPD is available for teachers of adult literacy, but there is no requirement to undertake such training. *The Society for Education and Training* (SET, 2015) (the successor to the *Institute for Learning*) acts as a professional body for adult teachers, and it is a requirement of membership of this body that teachers undertake a minimum of 30 hours CPD per year, but that does not have to be in their specialised subject area. Membership of SET is not a requirement for teaching in the sector.

### **What is the take-up among teachers?**

CPD programmes are generally over-subscribed. The main barriers to teachers accessing CPD are finance and cover (the availability of substitute teachers for their classes)

### **Who delivers this training?**

CPD is provided by a large range of organisations, but mostly by the providers themselves: Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) such as London's Institute of Education, specialist subject groups and a range of small private training providers.

### **How is it quality assured?**

Unless the provision falls under the remit of OFSTED, then there is no formal QA process.

## **7.10 Policy-making**

Information in this section has been provided by the Department for Business Innovation and Skills (DBIS).

### **Does government promote adult literacy in its lifelong learning policy?**

Enabling people with poor literacy to improve their skills up to and including NQF level 2 is a priority for Government.

### **Which policies promote for the provision of broad and varied access to adult literacy education?**

The policies promoting a broad and varied access to adult literacy education are as follows:

DBIS fully subsidises the cost of English courses (but not English for Speakers of Other Languages) for any adult at all levels up to and including level 2 where these have not already been achieved. They also fully fund the cost of GCSE English Language for those who have not previously attained a grade C or above in this subject.

They support a range of qualifications, designed to meet the different needs of the adult learner population: GCSE, Functional Skills and QCF English Certificates and Awards.

A wide range of organisations are able to, and do, access public support for adult literacy education. This includes FE colleges, independent training providers, third sector organisations, prisons and local authorities providing for a wide range of learners including apprentices, unemployed people, offenders and simply those who want to improve their skills. Some literacy courses are stand alone; many are built into wider programmes designed to meet the needs of the learners, including programmes that involve interventions and support other than training. Training organisations must be registered and

approved to offer courses supported by public funding but the registration, reporting and audit arrangements have been significantly simplified in recent years to reduce bureaucracy and maximise the amount of public money that goes into the training. Providers have flexible budgets that enable them to direct their funding towards the provision that they think is most in demand and in which they specialise.

English (and maths) are a requirement within Apprenticeship frameworks and traineeships to ensure that people on those programmes attain at least the expected minimum standard. Employers are able to set higher requirements if that is appropriate in their sector, for example, as happens in some of the Engineering frameworks.

DBIS encourages the FE sector to identify and build on best practice in teaching and learning through the Education and Training Foundation and provide some public support for this. In 2014 it introduced a range of initiatives to upskill the adult literacy teaching workforce and increase the number of well-qualified people (ie, those with directly relevant degrees) training as FE teachers through programmes of CPD (continuing professional development) and bursaries for initial teacher training.

DBIS supports an extensive research programme to assess the impact of Government initiatives, develop new approaches and understand the implications of poor skills and what makes for effective interventions to improve adult literacy.

### **How are the motivation, interests and needs of adults taken into account in the policy-making processes?**

DBIS regularly conducts surveys with learners to understand their attitudes to and requirements from education. They also consult, formally and informally, with a range of stakeholders who themselves have direct links to adults or close links to organisations that do.

### **Who is involved in policy-making for adult literacy education?**

Government policy is formulated by government ministers, MPs (especially through Select Committees and All Party Groups), officials in government departments and agencies and stakeholders.

### **How is inter-sectoral and interministerial cooperation promoted and coordinated?**

Inter-sectoral and interministerial cooperation is promoted and coordinated through the Cabinet Committee structure and through regular bilateral arrangements between education ministers and other ministerial colleagues.

### **What financing mechanisms exist that facilitate inter-sectoral cooperation?**

The majority of funding for adult literacy training goes directly from the central funding agency to individual training providers. These organisations can, and often do, draw on a range of funding streams to support services for their customers. DBIS believes that enabling individual organisations, rather than government agencies, to tailor support is the better way of ensuring that funding is well targeted on the needs of learners. Some public funding for skills training - the European Social Fund and capital funding - is devolved to Local Enterprise Partnerships for them to determine how it should be used in their areas. Some is provided directly to employers through the *Employer Ownership Pilots*.

## 8 References

- Afasic (2015) *Help for Your Child*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.afasic.org.uk/help-for-your-child/>
- Ascentis (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.ascentis.co.uk/provision.asp?qualcats\\_id=45](http://www.ascentis.co.uk/provision.asp?qualcats_id=45)
- BBC (2015a) *BBC Webwise Resources Directory* Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/webwise/0/20595791>
- BBC (2015b) *BBC Skillswise*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/skillswise/0/>
- Big Lottery Fund (2015) *Basic Online Skills*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.biglotteryfund.org.uk/global-content/programmes/uk-wide/digital-skills>
- Bolton, P. (2015) *Grammar School Statistics: Briefing Paper no. 1398*. London: House of Commons. Accessed 31.12.2015 at:
- Book Trust (2015a) *Bookfinder*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.booktrust.org.uk/books/bookfinder/>
- Book Trust (2015b) *Bookstart Corner*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.bookstart.org.uk/bookstart-corner/what-is-bookstart-corner>
- Book Trust (2015c) *Bookstart: Family reading habits and the impact of Bookstart*. London: Book Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.booktrust.org.uk/about-us/how-booktrust-makes-a-difference/research-reports/early-years/bookstart/>
- British Telecom (BT) (2009) *An Insight into Closing the Digital Divide*. London: British Telecom. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.btplc.com/thegroup/btukandworldwide/btregions/england/factsandfigures/aninsightintoclosingthedigitaldivide-april2009.pdf>
- Brooks, G. (2013) *What Works for Children and Young People with Literacy Difficulties? The effectiveness of intervention schemes. (4<sup>th</sup> edition)* London: Dyslexia SpLD Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.interventionsforliteracy.org.uk/widgets\\_GregBrooks/What\\_works\\_for\\_children\\_fourth\\_ed.pdf](http://www.interventionsforliteracy.org.uk/widgets_GregBrooks/What_works_for_children_fourth_ed.pdf) and at [www.interventionsforliteracy.org.uk](http://www.interventionsforliteracy.org.uk)
- Cassen, R.& Kingdon, G. (2007) *Tackling Low Educational Achievement*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.jrf.org.uk/sites/default/files/jrf/migrated/files/2063-education-schools-achievement.pdf>
- Castles, A. (2006) The dual route model and the developmental dyslexias. *London Review of Education*. 4, 1, pp. 49-61. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.ingentaconnect.com/search/article?option2=author&value2=Castles&pageSize=10&index=2>
- Centre for Literacy in Primary Education (CLPE) (2016) *Literacy Beyond Levels*. <https://www.clpe.org.uk/professional-development/courses/literacy-beyond-levels-conference> Accessed 31.12.15 at: <https://www.clpe.org.uk/professional-development/courses/literacy-beyond-levels-conference>
- Clark, C. & Burke, (2012) *Boys' Reading Commission 2012: A review of existing research to underpin the Commission*. London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0001/4047/BRC-\\_Research\\_overview\\_-\\_Final.pdf](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0001/4047/BRC-_Research_overview_-_Final.pdf)



- Clark, C. & Foster, A. (2005) *Children and Young People's Reading Habits and Preferences: The who, what, why, where and when*. London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0000/0577/Reading\\_Connects\\_Survey\\_2005.pdf](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0000/0577/Reading_Connects_Survey_2005.pdf)
- Clark, C. & Hawkins, S. (2011) *Public Libraries and Literacy: Young people's reading habits and attitudes to public libraries, and an exploration of the relationship between public library use and school attainment*. London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/research/nlt\\_research/2985\\_public\\_libraries\\_and\\_literacy](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/research/nlt_research/2985_public_libraries_and_literacy)
- Clark, C. (2012) *Children and Young People's Reading Today*. London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0001/4543/Young\\_people\\_s\\_reading\\_FINAL\\_REPORT.pdf](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0001/4543/Young_people_s_reading_FINAL_REPORT.pdf)
- Clarke, G. & Treagust, M. (2011) *Words for Life: Reading for pleasure for adults at the lowest level of literacy*. London: The Reading Agency. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://readingagency.org.uk/about/Words%20for%20Life%20report.pdf>
- Coltheart, M., Curtis, B., Atkins, P. & Haller, M. (1993) Models of reading aloud: dual route and parallel-distributed-processing approaches, *Psychological Review*, 100, pp. 589–608.
- Commission on Adult Vocational Teaching and Learning (CAVTL) (2013) *It's about Work: Excellent adult vocational teaching and learning: The summary report of the Commission on Adult Vocational Teaching and Learning*. London: Excellence Gateway. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://repository.excellencegateway.org.uk/fedora/objects/eg:5937/datastreams/DOC/content>
- Council of the European Union (2009) *Commission Recommendation on Media Literacy in the Digital Environment for a More Competitive Audiovisual and Content Industry and Inclusive Knowledge Society*. (20.8.2009). Brussels: Council of the European Union. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/doc/srv?!=EN&f=ST%2012747%202009%20INIT>
- Davies, S. (2013) *The Public Library Service Under Attack: How cuts are putting individuals and communities at risk and damaging local businesses and economies*. London: Unison. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.unison.org.uk/content/uploads/2013/06/On-line-Catalogue-215893.pdf>
- Department for Business Innovation and Skills (DBIS) (2013) *Rigour and Responsiveness in Skills*. London: DBIS. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/186830/13-960-rigour-and-responsiveness-in-skills-amended.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/186830/13-960-rigour-and-responsiveness-in-skills-amended.pdf)
- Department for Business Innovation and Skills (DBIS) (2014) *Getting the Job Done: The government's reform plan for vocational qualifications*. London: DBIS. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/286749/bis-14-577-vocational-qualification-reform-plan.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/286749/bis-14-577-vocational-qualification-reform-plan.pdf)
- Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) (2009) *Investing in Potential: Our strategy to increase the proportion of 16-24-year olds in education, employment or training*. London: Department for Children, Schools and Families. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/01145-2009DOM-EN.pdf>

- Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) (2013) *Special Educational Needs Code of Practice 2002*. London: Department for Culture, Media and Sport. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/225783/Connectivity\\_Content\\_and\\_Consumers\\_2013.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/225783/Connectivity_Content_and_Consumers_2013.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2011a). *Teachers' Standards Guidance for school leaders, school staff and governing bodies*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/301107/Teachers\\_Standards.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/301107/Teachers_Standards.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2011b). *Support and Aspiration: A New Approach to Special Educational Needs and Disability: A consultation*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eorderingdownload/green-paper-sen.pdf>
- Department for Education (DfE) (2012a). *School Funding Reform: Arrangements for 2013-2014*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://media.education.gov.uk/assets/files/pdf/s/school%20funding%20reform%20-%20final%202013-14%20arrangements.pdf>
- Department for Education (DfE) (2012b). *Learning Disability Statistics: Education* London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.learningdisabilities.org.uk/help-information/Learning-Disability-Statistics-/187708/>
- Department for Education (DfE) (2013a). *Statistical First Release: Special Educational Needs in England: January 2013*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/225699/SFR30-2013\\_Text.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/225699/SFR30-2013_Text.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2013b). *The National Curriculum in England: Key Stages 1 and 2 framework document*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/425601/PRIMARY\\_national\\_curriculum.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/425601/PRIMARY_national_curriculum.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014a) *English Programmes of Study: Key stages 1 and 2: National Curriculum in England (rev. 2014)* London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/335186/PRIMARY\\_national\\_curriculum\\_-\\_English\\_220714.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/335186/PRIMARY_national_curriculum_-_English_220714.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014b) *Early Years Foundation Stage: Setting the standards for learning, development and care from birth to five*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/335504/EYFS\\_framework\\_from\\_1\\_September\\_2014\\_with\\_clarification\\_note.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/335504/EYFS_framework_from_1_September_2014_with_clarification_note.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014c) *Statistical First Release: Provision for children under five years of age in England: January 2014*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/324065/SFR20-2014\\_Text1.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/324065/SFR20-2014_Text1.pdf)

- Department for Education (DfE) (2014d) *Academies/Free Schools*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/416332/Master-indicator-23-25-Nov-2014.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/416332/Master-indicator-23-25-Nov-2014.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014e) *The National Curriculum in England for Key Stages 3 and 4: Framework Document December 2014*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/381754/SECON DARY\\_national\\_curriculum.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/381754/SECON DARY_national_curriculum.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014f) *Statistical Release: Children with Special Educational Needs 2014: An Analysis*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/350129/SFR31\\_2014.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/350129/SFR31_2014.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014g) *Guidance: Sure Start Children's Centres: Local authorities' duties*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/sure-start-childrens-centres-local-authorities-duties>
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014h) *Draft Educational Needs and Disability Code of Practice: Statutory guidance for organisations who work with and support children and young people with special needs and disabilities*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.education.gov.uk/consultations/downloadableDocs/SEN%20Code%20of%20Practic e1.pdf>
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014i) *Special Educational Needs and Disability Code of Practice 0 to 25 years: Government consultation response*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/319071/SEND\\_code\\_of\\_practice\\_0\\_to\\_25\\_years\\_response.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/319071/SEND_code_of_practice_0_to_25_years_response.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2015a) *Statistical Release: GCSE and Equivalent Attainment by Pupil Characteristics, 2013 to 2014 (Revised)*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/399005/SFR06\\_2015\\_Text.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/399005/SFR06_2015_Text.pdf)
- Department for Education (DfE) (2015b) *End of Key Stage 1 Assessment Arrangements*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/key-stage-1-assessment-and-reporting-arrangements-ara/end-of-key-stage-1-assessment-arrangements>
- Department for Education (DfE) (2015c) *Provisional GCSE and equivalent results in England*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/provisional-gcse-and-equivalent-results-in-england-2014-to-2015>
- Department for Education (DfE) (2015d) *2016 Key Stage 1: Assessment and reporting arrangements (ARA)*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/guidance/2016-key-stage-1-assessment-and-reporting-arrangements-ara/section-2-key-changes>
- Department for Education (DfE) (2015e) *2016 Key Stage 2: Assessment and reporting arrangements (ARA)*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/>

guidance/2016-key-stage-2-assessment-and-reporting-arrangements-ara/section-4-2016-national-curriculum-tests

Department for Education (DfE) (2015f). *Teachers' Standards: Guidance for school staff and governing bodies*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/301107/Teachers\\_Standards.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/301107/Teachers_Standards.pdf)

Department for Education (DfE) (2015g) *Phonics Reading Check and Key Stage 1 Assessments: England 2015*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/phonics-screening-check-and-key-stage-1-assessments-england-2015>

Department for Education (DfE) (2015h) *National Curriculum Assessments at Key Stage 2: 2015 (Revised)*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/national-curriculum-assessments-at-key-stage-2-2015-revised>

Department for Education (DfE) (2015i) *Get into Teaching*. London: Department for Education. Accessed at: <https://getintoteaching.education.gov.uk/become-an-early-years-teacher>

Department for Education (DfE) (2015j) *Call for Evidence: A Standard for Teachers' Professional Development*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/458073/Teachers\\_professional\\_development\\_standard\\_call\\_for\\_evidence.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/458073/Teachers_professional_development_standard_call_for_evidence.pdf)

Department for Education (DfE) (2015k). *School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document 2015 and Guidance on School Teachers' Pay and Conditions*. United Kingdom: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/school-teachers-pay-and-conditions-2015>

Department for Education (DfE) (2015l). *Review of Vocational Education, 2011: The Wolf Report: Recommendations final progress report*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/405986/Wolf\\_Recommendations\\_Progress\\_Report\\_February\\_2015\\_v01.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/405986/Wolf_Recommendations_Progress_Report_February_2015_v01.pdf)

Department for Education (DfE) (2015m). *Initial Teacher Training Criteria*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/434608/ITT\\_criteria.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/434608/ITT_criteria.pdf)

Department for Education (DfE) (2015n). *Special Needs and Disability Code of Practice: 0-25 Years: Statutory guidance for organisations which work with and support children and young people who have special needs or disabilities*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/398815/SEND\\_Code\\_of\\_Practice\\_January\\_2015.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/398815/SEND_Code_of_Practice_January_2015.pdf)

Department for Education (DfE) (2015o) *Schools Causing Concern: Statutory guidance for local authorities*. Pp. 8, 15-21. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/434047/Schools\\_Causing\\_Concern\\_Jan2015\\_FINAL\\_24Mar.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/434047/Schools_Causing_Concern_Jan2015_FINAL_24Mar.pdf)

Department for Education and Skills (DfES) (2001) *Special Educational Needs Code of Practice 2002*. London: Department for Education and Skills. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eorderingdownload/dfes%200581%20200mig2228.pdf>

- Department of Health (DH) (2007) *Teenage Parents Next Steps: Guidance for Local Authorities and Primary Care Trusts*. London: Department of Health. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/00597-2007BKT-EN.pdf>
- Deputy Prime Minister's Office (DPO) (2015) *Social Mobility Indicators*. London: The deputy Prime Minister's Office. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/social-mobility-indicators/social-mobility-indicators#contents>
- Dickson, M., Gregg, P. & Robinson, H. (2013) *Early, Late or Never? When does parental education impact child outcomes?* Bristol: Centre for Market and public Organisation, Bristol Institute of Public Affairs, University of Bristol. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.bristol.ac.uk/media-library/sites/cmop/migrated/documents/wp298.pdf>
- Dockrill, J., Ricketts, J. Palikara, O., Charman, T. & Lindsay, G. (2012) *Profiles of Need and Provision for Children with Language Impairments and Autism Spectrum Disorders in Mainstream Schools: A prospective study. DfE Research Report 247*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/219635/DFE-RR247-BCRP9.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/219635/DFE-RR247-BCRP9.pdf)
- Dombey, H., Ellis, V. & Grainger-Clemson, S. (2014) *So Much More than Decoding: A brief guide to working with adolescent struggling readers*. Uxbridge: Brunel University and the Higher Education Academy. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://vivellisdotorg.files.wordpress.com/2014/01/so-much-more-than.pdf>
- Dustmann, C., Frattini, T. & Lanzara, G. (2011) *Educational Achievement of Second Generation Immigrants: An international comparison. CREAM Discussion Paper no. 16/11*. London: Centre for Research and Analysis of Migration, University College. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.ucl.ac.uk/~uctpb21/Cpapers/CDP\\_16\\_11.pdf](http://www.ucl.ac.uk/~uctpb21/Cpapers/CDP_16_11.pdf)
- Education Endowment Foundation (EEF) (2015) *The Education Endowment Foundation*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://educationendowmentfoundation.org.uk>
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice). (2011a). *Teaching Reading in Europe: Contexts, policies and practices*. Brussels: EACEA. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/thematic\\_reports/130en.pdf](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/thematic_reports/130en.pdf)
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice) (2011b). *Key Data on Learning and Innovation through ICT at School in Europe*. Brussels: EACEA. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key\\_data\\_series/129en.pdf](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key_data_series/129en.pdf)
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice) (2012). *Key Data on Education in Europe 2012*. Brussels: EACEA. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key\\_data\\_series/134en.pdf](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key_data_series/134en.pdf)
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice) (2013). *Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe*. Brussels: EACEA. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key\\_data\\_series/151en.pdf](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key_data_series/151en.pdf)
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice) (2014a) *Key Data on Early Childhood Education and Care in Europe. 2014 Edition*. Eurydice and Eurostat Report.

- Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/Eurydice/documents/key\\_data\\_series/166EN.pdf](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/Eurydice/documents/key_data_series/166EN.pdf)
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice) (2014b) *United Kingdom: Organisation of Programmes for Children over 2 to 3 Years*. . Eurydice and Eurostat Report. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-Kingdom-England:Organisation\\_of\\_Programmes\\_for\\_Children\\_over\\_2-3\\_years](https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-Kingdom-England:Organisation_of_Programmes_for_Children_over_2-3_years)
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice) (2015a) *United Kingdom: Assessment in Programmes for Children over 2-3 Years*. Eurydice and Eurostat Report. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-Kingdom-England:Assessment\\_in\\_Programmes\\_for\\_Children\\_over\\_2-3\\_years](https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-Kingdom-England:Assessment_in_Programmes_for_Children_over_2-3_years)
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice) (2015b) *United Kingdom: Early Childhood Education and Care*. Eurydice and Eurostat Report. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-Kingdom-England:Early\\_Childhood\\_Education\\_and\\_Care](https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/United-Kingdom-England:Early_Childhood_Education_and_Care)
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice) (2015c) *Compulsory Education in Europe*. Eurydice and Eurostat Report. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/Eurydice/documents/facts\\_and\\_figures/compulsory\\_education\\_EN.pdf](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/Eurydice/documents/facts_and_figures/compulsory_education_EN.pdf)
- Elearnuk (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.elearnuk.co.uk/course/literacy-adult-basic-skills>
- Elijio, A. (2012). Lithuania. In I.V.S. Mullis, M.O. Martin, C.A. Minnich, K.T. Drucker, & M.A. Ragan (Eds.), *PIRLS 2011 encyclopaedia. Educational policy and curriculum in reading (Vol. 2 L-Z)*, pp. 387-394). Boston: Lynch School of Education, Boston College, TIMSS and PIRLS International Study Centre. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/pirls2011/downloads/PIRLS2011\\_Enc-v1.pdf](http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/pirls2011/downloads/PIRLS2011_Enc-v1.pdf)
- EPPE (1999) *The Effective Provision of Pre-School Education Project*. Technical Paper no. 4– Parent family and child characteristics in relation to type of pre-school and socio-economic differences. London: Institute of Education and Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.ioe.ac.uk/EPPE\\_TechnicalPaper\\_04\\_1999.pdf](http://www.ioe.ac.uk/EPPE_TechnicalPaper_04_1999.pdf)
- European Commission (2013). *Reducing early school leaving: Key messages and policy support, Final Report of the Thematic Working Group on Early School Leaving*. Brussels: European Commission . Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework/doc/esl-group-report\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework/doc/esl-group-report_en.pdf)
- Eurostat (2014) *Education and Training in the EU: Facts and figures*. Brussels: Eurostat. Accessed at: [http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Education\\_and\\_training\\_in\\_the\\_EU\\_-\\_facts\\_and\\_figures](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Education_and_training_in_the_EU_-_facts_and_figures)
- Evans, J. & Slowley, M. (2010) *Not the End of the Story: Supporting teenage mothers back into education*. Ilford: Barnardo's. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.barnardos.org.uk/not\\_the\\_end\\_of\\_the\\_story\\_-\\_march\\_2010\\_pdf.pdf](http://www.barnardos.org.uk/not_the_end_of_the_story_-_march_2010_pdf.pdf)
- Excellence Gateway (2015a) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/search?content=Move+On>

- Excellence Gateway (2015b) *Access for All*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/content/etf1280>
- Excellence Gateway (2015c) *About the New Excellence Gateway*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/about/http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/about/>
- Excellence Gateway (2015c) *Adult ESOL Core Curriculum*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/content/etf1198>
- Families and Schools Together (FAST) (2015) *Families and Schools Together (FAST)*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://familiesandschoolstogether.com>
- Fernald,A., Marchman, V. & Weisleder, A. (2013) SES differences in language processing skill and vocabulary are evident at 18 months. *Developmental Science*, 16, 2, pp. 234-248. Accessed on 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3582035/pdf/nihms-411497.pdf>
- Formby, S. (2014). *Children's Early Literacy Practices at Home and in Early Years Settings: Second annual survey of parents and practitioners*. London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0002/4082/EY\\_Final\\_report\\_2014.pdf](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0002/4082/EY_Final_report_2014.pdf)
- Gants Hill Partnership Teaching Alliance GHPTA (2015) *Reciprocal Reading*. London: Gants Hill Partnership Teaching Alliance. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.ghpta.co.uk/research/reciprocal-reading>
- Gatehouse Books (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.gatehousebooks.co.uk>
- GHK Consulting Ltd., Nevala, A-M. & Haeley, J. ( 2011) *Reducing Early School Leaving in the EU*. Brussels: European Parliament: Directorate General for Internal Policies. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.google.co.uk/search?client=safari&rls=en&q=Reducing+Early+School+Leaving+in+the+EU&ie=UTF-8&oe=UTF-8&gfe\\_rd=cr&ei=r1eJVuWGJPCq8webz5fwAw](https://www.google.co.uk/search?client=safari&rls=en&q=Reducing+Early+School+Leaving+in+the+EU&ie=UTF-8&oe=UTF-8&gfe_rd=cr&ei=r1eJVuWGJPCq8webz5fwAw)
- Go On Local Beta (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://local.go-on.co.uk>
- Go On UK (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.go-on.co.uk>
- Goodall, J., Day, C., Lindsay, G., Muijs, D. & Harris, (2005) *Evaluating the Impact of Continuing Professional Development (CPD)*. London: Department for Education and Skills. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/RR659.pdf>
- Gov. UK (1996) *Education Act 1996*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1996/56/contents>
- Gov. UK (2001) *Special Needs and Disability Act 2001*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2001/10/contents>
- Gov. UK (2012) *Automatic Library Membership for Young People*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/automatic-library-membership-for-young-people>
- Gov. UK (2013a) *Law and the Justice System – Guidance: Equality Act, 2010*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/guidance/equality-act-2010-guidance>

- Gov. UK (2013b) *Free School Lunch for Every Child in Infant School*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/free-school-lunch-for-every-child-in-infant-school>
- Gov. UK (2013c) *Too many of England's Poorest Children Continue to be Let Down by the Education System*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/too-many-of-englands-poorest-let-down-by-education-system>
- Gov. UK (2013d) *Government Digital Strategy, December 2013*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/government-digital-strategy/government-digital-strategy>
- Gov. UK (2013e) *The Further Education Teachers' Qualifications (England) (Revocation) Regulations 2013*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/uksi/2013/1976/made>
- Gov. UK (2014a) *Help Paying for Childcare*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/help-with-childcare-costs/free-childcare-and-education-for-2-to-4-year-olds>
- Gov. UK (2014b) *September Guarantee: Education and Training for Young People*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/september-guarantee-offers-of-education-or-training-for-16-to-17-year-olds>
- Gov. UK (2014c) *Children and Families Act 2014* London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2014/6/contents/enacted>
- Gov. UK (2015a) *School Leaving Age*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/know-when-you-can-leave-school>
- Gov. UK (2015b) *Guidance: Phonics Screening Check: 2015 materials*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/phonics-screening-check-2015-materials>
- Gov. UK (2015c) *Closed Consultation: Teachers' Professional Development Standards: Call for Evidence*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/consultations/teachers-professional-development-standard-call-for-evidence>
- Gov. UK (2015d) *The Children Act 1989 (currently subject to changes)*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1989/41/contents>
- Gov. UK (2015e) *Standards and Social Care Act* London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2012/7/contents/enacted>
- Gov. UK (2015f) *Children and Families Act 2014*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2014/6/contents/enacted>
- Gov. UK (2015g) *Early Education is better than Ever, but Attainment Gap Remains*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/early-education-is-better-than-ever-but-attainment-gap-remains>



- Gov. UK (2015h) *Pupil Premium: Funding and accountability for schools*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/pupil-premium-information-for-schools-and-alternative-provision-settings>
- Gov. UK (2015i) *Statutory Guidance: Initial teacher training criteria*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/initial-teacher-training-criteria>
- Gov. UK (2015j) *Apply for Free School Meals*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.15 at: <https://www.gov.uk/apply-free-school-meals>
- Greater London Authority (GLA) (2015) *GLA Household Income Estimates 2015*. London: London Datastore, GLA. Accessed 31.12.15 at: <http://data.london.gov.uk/apps/gla-household-income-estimates/>
- Green, M. & Rossall, P. (2013) *Age UK's Digital Inclusion Evidence Review*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.ageuk.org.uk/Documents/EN-GB/For-professionals/Research/Age%20UK%20Digital%20Inclusion%20Evidence%20Review%202013.pdf?dtrk=true>
- Henshaw, P. (2015) Expert group to create new CPD standards for teachers. *Headteacher Update*. 24.3.2015 Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.headteacher-update.com/news/expert-group-to-create-new-cpd-standards-for-teachers-1/75313/>
- Her Majesty's Government (HMG) (2015) *English Apprenticeships: Our 2020 vision*. London: Department for Business, Innovation and Skills. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/482754/BIS-15-604-english-apprenticeships-our-2020-vision.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/482754/BIS-15-604-english-apprenticeships-our-2020-vision.pdf)
- High Level Group (HLG) (2012) *EU High Level Group of Experts on Literacy: Final Report*. Brussels: European Commission. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/school/doc/literacy-report\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/school/doc/literacy-report_en.pdf)
- Hopwood, V., O'Neill, L., Castro, G. & Hodgson, B. (2007) *The Prevalence of Home education in England: A feasibility study*. London: Department for Education and Skills. Accessed 31.12.15 at: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/RR827.pdf>
- [http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCYQFjAAahUKEwjD6\\_aDu87IAhVNgA0KHbXYAdw&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.parliament.uk%2Fbriefing-papers%2FSN01398.pdf&usg=AFQjCNHCSe9TkCkQjYszEUG1jg1JeEsTCg&sig2=6IEYrJutEyDgjZ8NI4TH2A](http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCYQFjAAahUKEwjD6_aDu87IAhVNgA0KHbXYAdw&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.parliament.uk%2Fbriefing-papers%2FSN01398.pdf&usg=AFQjCNHCSe9TkCkQjYszEUG1jg1JeEsTCg&sig2=6IEYrJutEyDgjZ8NI4TH2A)
- Hughes, N. & Schwab, I. (2010) *Teaching Adult Literacy: Principles and Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Independent Schools Council (ISC) (2015) *Research*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.isc.co.uk/research/>
- Innovative Technologies for an Engaging Classroom (iTEC) (2014) *Designing the Future Classroom*. Brussels: European School Net (EUN). Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://itec.eun.org/web/guest/about>

- International Literacy Centre (ILC) (2014) *Reading Recovery Annual Report for the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland 2013-2014*. London: UCL Institute of Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://ilc.ioe.ac.uk/rr/documents/Reading\\_Recovery\\_in\\_the\\_United\\_Kingdom\\_and\\_the\\_Republic\\_of\\_Ireland\\_2013-14.pdf](http://ilc.ioe.ac.uk/rr/documents/Reading_Recovery_in_the_United_Kingdom_and_the_Republic_of_Ireland_2013-14.pdf)
- International Literacy Centre (ILC) (2015) *Reading Recovery*. London: UCL Institute of Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://ilc.ioe.ac.uk/rr.html>
- International Publishers Association (IPA) (2014) *Annual Report and Global Publishing Statistics*. Geneva: IPA. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.internationalpublishers.org/market-insights/data-and-statistics/255-ipa-releases-annual-report-and-2014-global-publishing-statistics>
- Ipsos MORI (2014) *Media Literacy: Understanding digital capabilities follow-up*. London: BBC Marketing and Audiences. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.bbc.co.uk/learning/overview/assets/digital\\_capabilities\\_2014.pdf](http://www.bbc.co.uk/learning/overview/assets/digital_capabilities_2014.pdf)
- ITPRO (2014) *Tablets now Used in almost 70% of UK Schools*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.itpro.co.uk/tablets/23654/tablets-now-used-in-almost-70-per-cent-of-uk-schools>
- Lane Fox, M. (2014) Speech to the House of Lords. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://marthalanefoxblog.wordpress.com/2014/01/16/25th-anniversary-of-the-world-wide-web/>
- Lankes, E.M. & Carstensen, C.H. (2007). Der Leseunterricht aus der Sicht der Lehrkräfte. In W. Bos, S. Hornberg, K.-H. Arnold, G. Faust, L. Fried, E.M. Lankes, K. Schwippert, & R. Valtin (Hrsg.). IGLU 2006 *Lesekompetenzen von Grundschulkindern in Deutschland im internationalen Vergleich*, S. 161–193. Münster: Waxmann.
- Learndirect (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.learndirect.com>
- Local Government Association (LGA) (2012) *Troubled Families – Working in partnership*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.local.gov.uk/localism/-/journal\\_content/56/10180/3491811/ARTICLE](http://www.local.gov.uk/localism/-/journal_content/56/10180/3491811/ARTICLE)
- Maguire, S. (2010) *Activity Agreement Pilots: Trialling different approaches to re-engaging young people not in education, employment or training (NEET): Evaluation of the 2009-2010 extension*. Research Report DFE-RR086. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/182308/DFE-RR086.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/182308/DFE-RR086.pdf)
- Maisey, R., Speight, S. & Marsh, V. (2013) *The Early Education Pilot for Two Year Old Children: Age Five Follow-up Research Report*. London: Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/221778/DFE-RR225.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/221778/DFE-RR225.pdf)
- Matrix Standard (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://matrixstandard.com>
- McDonald, C. (2014) *A Leading Digital Nation by 2020: Calculating the cost of delivering online skills for all*. Sheffield: The Tinder Foundation. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.tinderfoundation.org/sites/default/files/research-publications/a\\_leading\\_digital\\_nation\\_by\\_2020\\_0.pdf](http://www.tinderfoundation.org/sites/default/files/research-publications/a_leading_digital_nation_by_2020_0.pdf)
- McKinsey (2007) *How the World's Best Performing School Systems Come out on Top*. Washington DC: McKinsey on Society. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.smhc-cpre.org/wp->

content/uploads/2008/07/how-the-worlds-best-performing-school-systems-come-out-on-top-sept-072.pdf

- Mercer, N. & Howe, C. (2012) Explaining the dialogic processes of teaching and learning: the value of sociocultural theory. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, 1, 1, pp. 12–21
- Mercer, N. & Littleton, K. (2007) *Dialogue and the Development of Children's Thinking: A sociocultural approach*. London: Routledge
- Morgan, R.T.T. (1976) 'Paired Reading' tuition: a preliminary report on a technique for cases of reading deficit. *Child Care Health and Development*, 2, pp. 13-28.
- Morris, E., Blanshard, C., Cooper, M., Gross, J., Shields, S., Tyerman, K. & Wanless, P. (2010) *School Libraries: A plan for improvement*. London: The National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0000/5718/School\\_Libraries\\_A\\_Plan\\_for\\_Improvement.pdf](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0000/5718/School_Libraries_A_Plan_for_Improvement.pdf)
- Moss, G., Jewitt, C., Levaàic, R., Armstrong, V., Cardin, A. & Castle, F. (2007) *The Interactive Whiteboards, Pedagogy and Pupil Performance Evaluation: An evaluation of the School Whiteboards Expansion project: London Challenge. RR816*. London: Department for Education and Skills and Institute of Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.ioe.ac.uk/Full\\_report.pdf](https://www.ioe.ac.uk/Full_report.pdf)
- Mullis, I.V.S., Martin, M.O. Minnich, C.A., Drucker, K.T., & Ragan, M.A. (Eds.), (2012a) *PIRLS 2011 International Results in Reading*. Boston: Lynch School of Education, Boston College, TIMSS and PIRLS International Study Centre. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/pirls2011/downloads/P11\\_IR\\_FullBook.pdf](http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/pirls2011/downloads/P11_IR_FullBook.pdf)
- Mullis, I.V.S., Martin, M.O. Minnich, C.A., Drucker, K.T., & Ragan, M.A. (Eds.), (2012b) *PIRLS 2011 Encyclopaedia. Educational Policy and Curriculum In Reading (Vols 1 and 2)*. Boston: Lynch School of Education, Boston College, TIMSS and PIRLS International Study Centre. Accessed at: [http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/pirls2011/downloads/PIRLS2011\\_Enc-v1.pdf](http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/pirls2011/downloads/PIRLS2011_Enc-v1.pdf)
- National Black Boys Can Association (Excell3) (2015) *Empowering Communities to Equip and Empower Young People*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://excell3.co.uk/black-boys-can/>
- National Careers Service (NCS) (2015a) Information and Advice to Help You Get On in Work and in Life. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://nationalcareersservice.direct.gov.uk/advice/Pages/default.aspx>
- National Careers Service (NCS) (2015b) Career Advice Online. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://nationalcareersservice.direct.gov.uk/advice/Pages/default.aspx>
- National Health Service (NHS) (2015) *Family Nurse Partnership (FNP)* Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://fnp.nhs.uk>
- National Literacy Trust (NLT) (2014) *Early Words Together*. London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/early\\_words\\_together](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/early_words_together)
- National Literacy Trust (NLT) (2015a) *Reading Champions*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/reading\\_champions](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/reading_champions)
- National Literacy Trust (NLT) (2015b) *Premier League Reading Stars*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/premier\\_league\\_reading\\_stars](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/premier_league_reading_stars)
- National Literacy Trust (NLT) (2015c) *Kick into Reading*. London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/research/nlt\\_research/2912\\_kick\\_into\\_reading\\_part\\_of\\_sports\\_stories\\_interim\\_report](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/research/nlt_research/2912_kick_into_reading_part_of_sports_stories_interim_report)

- National Literacy Trust (NLT) (2015d) *Gender and Literacy*. London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/resources/practical\\_resources\\_info/1058\\_gender\\_and\\_literacy](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/resources/practical_resources_info/1058_gender_and_literacy)
- National Research and Development Centre for Adult Literacy and Numeracy (NRDC) (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.nrdc.org.uk/?cat=7>
- NIACE (2011) *Work, Society and Lifelong Literacy*. Leicester: NIACE. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.niace.org.uk/sites/default/files/resources/Inquiry%20into%20Adult%20Literacy%20in%20England%20-%20Executive%20Summary.pdf>
- Office for National Statistics (2011) *Statistical Bulletin: 2011 Census: Quick statistics for England and Wales*. London: Office for National Statistics. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/census/2011-census/key-statistics-and-quick-statistics-forwards-and-output-areas-in-england-and-wales/STB-2011-census--quick-statistics-for-england-and-wales--march-2011.html>
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2006). *The logical chain: continuing professional development in effective schools*. HMI 2639. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20141124154759/http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/Ofsted-home/Publications-and-research/Browse-all-by/Education/Leadership/Management/The-logical-chain-continuing-professional-development-in-effective-schools>
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2011) *Literacy, Numeracy and English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL): Ofsted reports about adult literacy, numeracy and English for speakers of other languages (ESOL)*. Manchester: Ofsted. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20141124154759/http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/inspection-reports/our-expert-knowledge/literacy-numeracy-and-english-for-speakers-of-other-languages-esol>
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2012a) *Handbook for Inspection of Further Education and Skills*. Manchester: Ofsted. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/sites/default/files/documents/inspection--forms-and-guides/h/Handbook%20for%20the%20inspection%20of%20further%20education%20and%20skills%20from%20September%202012.doc>
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2012b) *From Training to Teaching Early Language and Literacy: The effectiveness of training to teach language and literacy in primary schools*. Manchester: Ofsted. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/413204/From\\_training\\_to\\_teaching\\_early\\_language\\_and\\_literacy.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/413204/From_training_to_teaching_early_language_and_literacy.pdf)
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2012c) *Moving English Forward: Action to raise standards in English*. Manchester: Ofsted. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/181204/110118.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/181204/110118.pdf)
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2013) *Unseen Children: Access and achievement 20 years on: Evidence report*. Manchester: Ofsted. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/379157/Unseen\\_20children\\_20\\_20access\\_20and\\_20achievement\\_20\\_20years\\_20on.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/379157/Unseen_20children_20_20access_20and_20achievement_20_20years_20on.pdf)

- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2014) *RAISEonline*. Manchester: Ofsted. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.raiseonline.org/login.aspx?ReturnUrl=%2findex.aspx>
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2015a) *Common Inspection Framework: Education, Skills and Early Years from September 2015*. Manchester: Ofsted. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/common-inspection-framework-education-skills-and-early-years-from-september-2015>
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2015b) *Early Years: The Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Manchester: Ofsted. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/445730/Early\\_years\\_report\\_2015.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/445730/Early_years_report_2015.pdf)
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2012) *Starting Strong: A quality toolbox for early childhood education and care*. Paris: OECD. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/startingstrongiii-aqualitytoolboxforearlychildhoodeducationandcare.htm>
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2014a) *Family Database*. Paris: OECD. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.oecd.org/els/family/database.htm>
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2014b) *Education at a Glance 2014: OECD indicators*. Paris: OECD. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.oecd.org/edu/Education-at-a-Glance-2014.pdf>
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2015) *Students, Computers and Learning: Making the Connection*. Paris: OECD. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/students-computers-and-learning\\_9789264239555-en](http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/students-computers-and-learning_9789264239555-en)
- Palincsar, A. & Brown, A. (1984) Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 1, 2, pp. 117-175. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://eclass.uoa.gr/modules/document/file.php/PHS122/Αρθρα/Reciprocal%20teaching.pdf>
- Passmore, E. (2014) *Common Breaches of the Schools Admission Code Clarified*. London: Office of the School Adjudicator. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.optimus-education.com/sites/optimus-education.com/files/keynote\\_1\\_-\\_elizabeth\\_passmore.pdf](http://www.optimus-education.com/sites/optimus-education.com/files/keynote_1_-_elizabeth_passmore.pdf)
- Qualifications and Credit Framework (QCF) (2015) Accessed 31.12.15 at: <http://www.accreditedqualifications.org.uk/qualifications-and-credit-framework-qcf.html>
- Quick Reads (2015) Accessed 31.12.15 at: <http://www.quickreads.org.uk>
- Rathbone Centres (2015) Rathbone: Positive life choices for young people. Manchester: Rathbone. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.rathboneuk.org/Pages/about-us/default.aspx>
- Rizza, C. (2011). *ICT and Initial Teacher Education: National Policies*. OECD Education Working Papers, N.º 61. Paris: OECD Publishing. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/publicdisplaydocumentpdf/?cote=EDU/WKP\(2011\)1&docLanguage=En](http://www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/publicdisplaydocumentpdf/?cote=EDU/WKP(2011)1&docLanguage=En)
- School Library Association (SLA) (2015) *SLA Standards for Secondary School Libraries*. Swindon, UK: SLA. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.sla.org.uk/standards.php>
- Sharples, J., Slavin, R., Chambers, B. & Sharp, C. (2011) *Effective Classroom Strategies for Closing the Gap in Educational Achievement for Children and Young People Living in Poverty, Including White*

- Working Class Boys*. York: Centre for Excellence in Outcomes for Children and Young People's Services (C4EO), University of York. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.york.ac.uk/media/iee/documents/Closing%20the%20Gap.pdf>
- Skills Funding Agency (SFA)(2014) *Statistical First Release Further Education & Skills: Learner Participation, Outcomes and Level of Highest Qualification Held*. London: DBIS. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/323137/learner-participation-outcomes-and-level-of-highest-qualification-release-march14-june-update.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/323137/learner-participation-outcomes-and-level-of-highest-qualification-release-march14-june-update.pdf)
- Skills Funding Agency (SFA)(2014b) *Skills Funding Statement 2013-2016*. London: DBIS. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/278529/bis-14-p172a-skills-funding-statement-2013-2016.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/278529/bis-14-p172a-skills-funding-statement-2013-2016.pdf)
- Skills Workshop (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.skillsworkshop.org>
- Skipp, A., Vignoles, A., Jesson, D., Sadro, F., Cribb, J. & Sibieta, L. (2013) *Poor Grammar: Entry into grammar schools: disadvantaged pupils in England*. London: The Sutton Trust. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.suttontrust.com/researcharchive/poor-grammar-entry-grammar-schools-disadvantaged-pupils-england/>
- Society for Education and Training (SET) (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://set-foundation.co.uk/membership/>
- South, H. (2012) *EAL Specialist Teachers and Support Staff*. Reading: National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.naldic.org.uk/eal-teaching-and-learning/outline-guidance/eal/>
- Speight, S., Macey, R., Chanfreau, J., Haywood, S., Lord, C. & Hussey, D. (2015) *Study of Early Education and Development: Baseline survey of Families. Research Report*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/444852/DFE-RR480\\_Study\\_of\\_early\\_education\\_and\\_development\\_survey\\_of\\_families.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/444852/DFE-RR480_Study_of_early_education_and_development_survey_of_families.pdf)
- Standards and Testing Agency (STA) (2013) *Early Years Foundation Stage Profile: Handbook*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/301256/2014\\_EYFS\\_handbook.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/301256/2014_EYFS_handbook.pdf)
- Standards and Testing Agency (STA) (2014) *Guidance: National Curriculum Tests from 2016*. London: Her Majesty's Government. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-tests-changes-from-2016/national-curriculum-tests-from-2016>
- Standards and Testing Agency (STA) (2015) *Statutory Guidance*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/key-stage-1-assessment-and-reporting-arrangements-ara/end-of-key-stage-1-assessment-arrangements>
- Suggate, S., Schaughency, E. & Reese, E. (2013) Children learning to read later catch up children learning to read earlier. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*. 28, pp. 33-48. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://web.uvic.ca/~gtreloar/Articles/Language%20Arts/Children%20learning%20to%20read%20later%20catch%20up%20to%20children%20reading%20earlier.pdf>,
- Sylva, K., Melhuish, E., Sammons, P., Siraj-Blatchford, I. & Taggart, B. (2004) *The Effective Provision of Pre-School Education Project*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at:

- <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eorderingdownload/ssu-sf-2004-01.pdf>
- TACTYC (Association for Professional Development in Early Years) and British Association for Early Childhood Education (BAECE) (2015) *Guide on Baseline Assessment in England*. Leicester: TACTYC. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://www.early-education.org.uk/sites/default/files/Baseline%20Assessment%20Guidance.pdf>
- Taggart, B., Sylva, K., Melhuish, E., Sammons, P. & Siraj, I. (2015) *Effective Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education Project (EPPSE 3-16+): How pre-school influences children and young people's attainment and developmental outcomes over time. Research Brief June 2015*. London: Department for Education. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/455670/RB455\\_Effective\\_pre-school\\_primary\\_and\\_secondary\\_education\\_project.pdf.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/455670/RB455_Effective_pre-school_primary_and_secondary_education_project.pdf.pdf)
- The Reading Agency (2015a) *The Summer Reading Challenge*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://summerreadingchallenge.org.uk>
- The Reading Agency (2015b) *The Reading Hack*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://readingagency.org.uk/young-people/004-get-involved/readinghack-project/what-is-reading-hack-autumn-2015-update.html>
- The Reading Agency (2015c) *Reading Ahead*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://readingahead.org.uk>
- The Reading Agency (2015d) *Find a Read*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://readingahead.org.uk/find-a-read>
- The Reading Agency (2015e) *Chatterbooks*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://readingagency.org.uk/children/quick-guides/chatterbooks/>
- Thinking Together (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <https://thinkingtogether.educ.cam.ac.uk>
- Transform (2010) *Directgov Strategic Review: Executive Summary*. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/60995/Directgov\\_v\\_20Executive\\_20Sum\\_20FINAL.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/60995/Directgov_v_20Executive_20Sum_20FINAL.pdf)
- Twist, L, Sizmur, J., Bartlett, S. & Lynn, L. (2012) *PIRLS 2011: Reading Achievement in England*. Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.nfer.ac.uk/publications/PRTZ01/PRTZ01\\_home.cfm](http://www.nfer.ac.uk/publications/PRTZ01/PRTZ01_home.cfm)
- Tymms, P. Merrell, C. Thurston, A., Andor, J. Topping, K. & Miller, D. (2011) Improving attainment across a whole district: school reform through peer tutoring in a randomized controlled trial. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 22, 3, pp. 265-289. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09243453.2011.589859>
- UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) (2011) *International Standard Classification of Education Classification ISCED 2011*. Paris: UNESCO. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/isced-2011-en.pdf>
- United Kingdom Literacy Association (UKLA). (2013). *UKLA analysis of responses to the Year 1 Phonics Screening Check*. Leicester: United Kingdom Literacy Association. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [file:///C:/Users/samsung3/Downloads/Final\\_version\\_UKLA\\_Phonics\\_data\\_analysis%20\(1\).pdf](file:///C:/Users/samsung3/Downloads/Final_version_UKLA_Phonics_data_analysis%20(1).pdf)

- Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET), National Association of School Based Teacher Trainers (NASBITT) and the Higher Education Academy (HEA) (2012) *Working with Teachers' Standards in Initial Teacher Education: Guidance to support assessment for Qualified Teacher Status*. York: HEA. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.heacademy.ac.uk/sites/default/files/working\\_with\\_the\\_teachers\\_standards\\_in\\_ite.pdf](https://www.heacademy.ac.uk/sites/default/files/working_with_the_teachers_standards_in_ite.pdf)
- University Vocational Awards Council (2010) *Progression from Vocational and Applied Learning to Higher Education across the UK*. London: UK Commission for Employment and Skills. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.bbk.ac.uk/linkinglondon/resources/iag-and-progression-1/report\\_June2010\\_Progression%20from%20Voc%20Quals%20to%20HE%20Review\\_UKCES-1.pdf](http://www.bbk.ac.uk/linkinglondon/resources/iag-and-progression-1/report_June2010_Progression%20from%20Voc%20Quals%20to%20HE%20Review_UKCES-1.pdf)
- Voices for the Library (2015) Ten Things you Need to Know about Library Closures and Campaigns. Voices for the Library. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.voicesforthelibrary.org.uk/campaigns/10-things-you-need-to-know-about-library-closurescampaigns/>
- Walker, M., Bartlett, S., Betts, H., Sainsbury, M. & Worth, J. (2014) *Phonics Screening Check Evaluation*. Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/434821/RR418\\_A\\_Phonics\\_screening\\_check\\_evaluation.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/434821/RR418_A_Phonics_screening_check_evaluation.pdf)
- Walker, M., Jeffes, J., Hart, R., Lord, P. & Kinder, K. (2010) *Making the Links between Teachers' Professional Standards, Induction, Performance Management and Continuing Professional Development*. Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/182227/DFE-RR075.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/182227/DFE-RR075.pdf)
- Wardman, C. (2012) *Pulling the Threads Together: Current theories and current practice affecting UK primary school children who have English as an additional language*. *ELT Research Papers 12-04*. York: University of York. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/sites/ec/files/B387%20ELTRP%20Report%20-%20Wardman\\_v6.pdf](http://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/sites/ec/files/B387%20ELTRP%20Report%20-%20Wardman_v6.pdf)
- Warwick, P. & Kershner, K. (2008) Primary teachers' understanding of the interactive whiteboard as a tool for children's collaborative learning and knowledge-building. *Learning, Media and Technology*, 33, 4, pp. 269-287.
- Whichbook (2015) Accessed 31.12.2015 at: <http://www.openingthebook.com/whichbook/>
- Wood, C., Vardy, E. & Tarczynski-Bowles, L. (2015) *Final Report: Early Words Together: Impact on families and children*. Coventry: University of Coventry and London: National Literacy Trust. Accessed at: [http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0002/6473/EWT\\_Final\\_Report-Impact\\_on\\_families\\_and\\_children.pdf](http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0002/6473/EWT_Final_Report-Impact_on_families_and_children.pdf)
- Worth Unlimited (2015) *World Worth Living In: My changing world*. London: Worth Unlimited. Accessed 31.12.2015 at: [http://www.worthunlimited.co.uk/wwli\\_changingworld.html](http://www.worthunlimited.co.uk/wwli_changingworld.html)
- Ziegler, J., & Goswami, U. (2005). Reading Acquisition, Developmental Dyslexia, and Skilled Reading Across Languages: A Psycholinguistic Grain Size Theory. *Psychological Bulletin*, 131, 1, pp. 3-29.