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Teachers and policy knowledge: a methodological and empirical study

Grahame Morgan

University of Wollongong

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TEACHERS AND POLICY KNOWLEDGE:
A METHODOLOGICAL AND EMPIRICAL STUDY

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of the degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

from

THE UNIVERSITY OF WOLLONGONG

by

Grahame Morgan
Dip Teach, B.A, M.A (Macquarie)

Faculty of Education
2000
ABSTRACT

Morgan, Grahame 2000. Teachers and Policy Knowledge: A Methodological and Empirical Study. A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree, Doctor of Education (Faculty of Education), at the University of Wollongong, NSW.

The New South Wales Department of Education and Training (DET) is a large and complex education authority employing some 50,000 teachers in school education and is responsible for the education of approximately 750,000 students of school age.

This investigation examined the role of teachers in educational policy-making and supported the contention that primary and secondary school teachers, as a large professional group within the New South Wales DET, did not have a significant role in educational policy decision-making. It was also established that little research effort had been directed towards the definition and analysis of the proper role of these teachers in the policy process.

The enquiry emphasised methodological and theoretical issues in the development of the research tools necessary to undertake this investigation. These tools were then applied throughout the investigation stage of the research and in proposing appropriate solutions to the problems identified.

The methodology developed and applied synthesised aspects of literature review methods (Cooper, 1988; Bruce, 1994; Helmericks et al., 1991) and interdisciplinary research methods (Klein, 1990; Bechtell, 1986) in order to construct a methodology suitable for application to the research questions. Other aspects of policy research and policy studies (Majchrzak, 1984; Ham and Hill, 1984; Fasano, 1993) also guide the development and application of the methodology. Focus group methodology was applied in order to test the theoretical findings against the expressed opinions of teachers.

The results of this study support the contention that school teachers should establish a more prominent role in policy decision-making in public education in NSW. In addition, the research suggested a solution in the form of a policy curriculum developed to improve teacher knowledge of the policy process and enhance access by teachers to policy-making.

The significance of this enquiry is in making a contribution to the field of policy studies through the development of methodology and in the analysis of the social problem posed by the lack of teacher involvement in policy decision-making in public school education in NSW.
Dedicated to:

The Family

&

Oscar - much loved and missed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the support and assistance received during the preparation of this study.

Firstly, I would like to thank the many teachers who were willing to share their views and expertise both formally and informally.

I would also like to thank the many professionals I have spoken to over the duration of this study.

I would like to thank my supervisors Emeritus Professor Carla Fasano and Professor Loretta Girocelli. Carla’s professionalism, willingness to share her knowledge, her skill and personal qualities will be valued long past the completion of this study. Thank you also to Loretta for her support and constructive critique of this thesis.

Thank you to Jessica and Olivia for their patience. I would especially like to thank Lana for making achievements worthwhile.
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<td>Australian Council for Educational Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>BOS</td>
<td>Board of Studies</td>
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<td>BST</td>
<td>Basic Skills Test</td>
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<td>CAE</td>
<td>College of Advanced Education</td>
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<td>DE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
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<td>DET</td>
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<td>DSE</td>
<td>Department of School Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELLA</td>
<td>English Language and Literacy Assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>ERIC</td>
<td>Educational Resources Information Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSC</td>
<td>Higher School Certificate</td>
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<tr>
<td>HSIE</td>
<td>Human Society and Its Environment</td>
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<td>IR</td>
<td>Intensive Reading</td>
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<td>NSW</td>
<td>New South Wales</td>
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<td>NSWTF</td>
<td>New South Wales Teachers Federation</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>PEO</td>
<td>Principal Education Officer</td>
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<td>SEO</td>
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<td>TARS</td>
<td>Teachers Assessment Review Schedule</td>
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INTRODUCTION

Context of the Enquiry

This research was prompted by observations of the Department of Education and Training\(^1\) in the Australian State of New South Wales. Observations by the researcher appeared to indicate that school teachers in primary and secondary government schools were excluded from educational policy decision-making within the NSW Public Education System. The policy decision-making referred to involves systemic policy decision-making at the State government level, rather than decision-making at intermediate school or district levels. The researcher made these observations whilst holding various positions within this Department over a period of 18 years. These positions included those of mainstream classroom teacher, special education teacher, specialist itinerant teacher, educational administrator and assistant principal and principal in both special and mainstream schools.

Education policy seemed to be of critical importance, as it appeared to have been instrumental in directing the provision of education and, consequently, the actions of teachers from shortly after the establishment of the Colony in

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\(^1\) The New South Wales Department of Education and Training (NSW DET) is one of three education systems within NSW. The two other systems are the Catholic Education system and the Independent Schools System. The NSW DET provides public education and is the largest education authority within the state. It is responsible for the education of over 750,000 school students in 2,222 schools and employs approximately 50,000 teachers. The non-government school systems have total enrolments of approximately 300,000. (NSW DET, 1998)
1788.² It was also inferred by the researcher that much of the decision-making about the role of teacher and the practice of teaching, in terms of content, methods of teaching and the resources made available to the education system by government, was expressed as policy.

It is potentially problematic that whilst policy influenced most aspects of teachers' professional lives, teachers did not appear to be considered legitimate stakeholders³ by existing policy decision-makers. It seemed that teachers were not able to contribute to policy decision-making affecting their area of professional responsibility. The type of input that might be desirable could include direct and indirect input through a strong professional association of teachers, who had established credibility as stakeholders in educational policy-making, and were able to influence policy-making at all levels.

It is a view held by many in the community that teachers occupy an important and perhaps essential position in modern society. The researcher speculated that if teachers were excluded from policy decision-making the knowledge and skills they possess might not be adequately utilised. This led to a

² In January 1788 Governor Arthur Phillip established a British settlement at Botany Bay. (Barcan, 1988) The settlement laid the foundations for the Australian nation and the State of NSW.
³ The concept of stakeholder is integral to policy studies. “The stakeholder concept is a central idea in understanding business and society relationships. The term grew out of the more familiar and traditional idea of stockholders - the investors in or owners of business”. (Carroll, 1988:59) Bryson (1988) regards stakeholders as any person, group, or organisation that can place a claim on an organisation's attention, resources, or output, or is affected by that output.
consideration of whether the expert opinion of teachers should find expression in policy decision-making.

The existing policy landscape in NSW appeared to be dominated by State governments and influenced by a wide variety of stakeholder groups. These groups included the Churches, the business community and the unions. More recently, other organisations including those representing the interests of ethnic minorities, people with disabilities, women and Aboriginal and Torres Straight Islanders appear to have won some influence with policy decision-makers. There seemed to be a long list of stakeholder groups with the immediate potential to influence educational policy decision-making through their publicly voiced opinions on policy matters. The researcher observed that teachers as a significant group within education appeared to be largely silent as professionals within the educational policy discourse. The teachers’ role in educational policy decision-making therefore appeared to be neglected in terms of their voice in the policy landscape, their practical involvement in policy decision-making in NSW and also in terms of the research effort that had been applied to this issue. Along with the apparent exclusion of teachers from policy decision-making, it appeared to the researcher that policy decision-making in education in NSW occurred in the context of an intensely political climate. This policy-making environment also seemed to have been

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4 The term ‘should’ is intended as a logical and / or desirable circumstance rather than a prescriptive direction. The term implies that it would be desirable for teachers to adopt both active and pro-active roles in policy decision-making.

5 The author acknowledges that the New South Wales Teachers Federation, (the primary teacher union in NSW which was established in 1918) has had a significant role in policy decision-making. This role appears to have focussed on industrial action and partisan political considerations. Problems of teacher unions representing teachers as professionals in policy decision-making, whilst maintaining an industrial posture, are discussed in more detail from page 216 of this thesis.
dominated in recent years by interests well beyond the bounds of the education portfolio. These interests included those represented by the stakeholder groups previously identified and also by an apparently increasing responsiveness of governments to global economic forces (Marginson, 1993; Dudley and Vidovich, 1995). Consideration was given as to whether the interests of students, teachers and the community were best served through current policy decision-making practices.

This investigation could be considered problematic in that some readers may have a philosophical opposition to teachers having any role in policy decision-making (Dudley and Vidovich, 1995) or consider that such a proposition would be fraught with practical difficulties. Despite these reservations the researcher was aware of discourses on the professionalisation of the teaching service (Retsinas, 1982; Croll et al, 1994) and political, cultural and social changes in society that appeared to be changing the teachers’ world. When one considered the State, national and international contexts, a picture of great complexity emerged. The teachers’ role appeared to be beset with innumerable influences which directly guided their action through government decision-making or indirectly guide these actions through a broader social agenda. The teachers’ role in terms of decision-making however, did not appear to change in response to these changing circumstances. Furthermore the teachers’ absence from the policy decision-making discourse had the potential to conflict with the rapid changes in society and the apparently increasing expectations of teachers. Specifically, the researcher wondered how

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6 Dudley and Vidovich (1995) discuss changing values and resultant government priorities.
7 Maslen (1995) cites findings of the Australian Industrial Relations Commission indicating changing teaching duties in response to societal expectations.
exclusion from policy decision-making influenced teachers’ motivation and performance in schools. What impact could such exclusion have on a group who are exposed to significant educational opportunities in pre-service and in-service training? The resources required to provide this level of education to the 50,000 teachers currently employed in NSW are extensive. Consideration was given as to whether the provision of such levels of training is compatible with the subsequent exclusion of teachers from using the knowledge and skills obtained in the formulation of education policy. It was postulated that such exclusion of educated professionals might lead to tension and conflict and perhaps a slump in morale in the teaching service. Such conflict and problems with morale seemed to be evident within the teaching service in public education in NSW. The researcher speculated that there were potentially negative consequences which may result from the exclusion of teachers from policy decision-making.

Further observations seemed to indicate that teachers did not have an adequate understanding of the policy-making issues which affected their working lives. Perhaps the acquisition of policy-related skills would assist teachers to operate more effectively in terms of their response to factors affecting their

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8 Pre-service training for NSW teachers usually involves a four-year University degree. Teachers are however eligible for employment within the NSW DET after the completion of three years training. In-service training provided by the NSW DET involves wide ranging course offerings including, but not exclusive to, aspects of curriculum, leadership, administration and information technology.

9 Formulation is a stage in the policy process recognised by some policy theorists. (Ham and Hill, 1984) It is the stage at which government acts to form or create policy.

10 Dandridge (1993) reports findings that indicate that teachers had important knowledge and skills which they were not given the opportunity to express or use.

11 Maslen (1995) reports findings of stress amongst teachers and Sharpe (1998) reports findings that indicate that occupational satisfaction amongst teachers is low.

12 Maeroff (1988) reports that access to knowledge necessary to participate in decision-making is an important element of teacher empowerment.
The researcher considered whether this was important, as it appeared that change in education often required teacher co-operation. If such co-operation was not forthcoming teachers had the potential to circumvent much needed change agendas through their actions at the school and classroom levels.

The apparently marginal role of teachers in policy decision-making intrigued the researcher who wondered if teachers should be involved in policy decision-making. There were also the related concerns of whether they could and would be involved in policy decision-making if given the opportunity. Further exploration seemed warranted. However the focus of the investigation needed to move from personal observation and belief to rigorous analysis.

This thesis reflects the methodology and process whereby such analysis was constructed to achieve specific research aims. Although questions of teacher involvement in policy decision-making appeared to be a difficult research endeavour, the researcher turned to the literature to gather and analyse data that could support or refute an established hypothesis that teachers should be included in policy decision-making. From the initial hypothesis the research was then directed towards a consideration of whether teachers could and would participate in policy decision-making.

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13 Kirby et al (1994) indicate that teacher status is elevated with input into decision-making.  
14 Dandridge (1993) discusses the need to address issues of teacher professionalism in order to win their co-operation.  
15 Croll et al (1994) describe four models of teacher involvement in the policy process. The model relevant to this discussion describes teachers as 'opponents of government'.
The analytic framework and tools selected that were applied within this study were drawn from a *cohesive body of policy literature* which was examined in postgraduate policy courses\(^{16}\) completed by the researcher and a *literature review methodology* developed for the purposes of this research. The cohesive body of policy literature was integrated throughout the thesis. Any changes made to this body of literature are outlined in the relevant sections of the thesis. The product of the thesis was embodied in a literature review and a tentative policy curriculum that was submitted to a focus group of teachers for evaluation and feedback. Consideration of the relevance of the research to policy theory and practice concludes the study.

**Aims Of The Study**

In short, the empirical aims of the study were to:

1. Answer the research questions:

   *Should* teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in N.S.W?

   *Could* teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in N.S.W?

   *Would* teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in N.S.W?

\(^{16}\) EDGA 960 - Policy Studies and EDGA 961 Policy Research and Policy Analysis. These courses were conducted by Professor C. Fasano at the University of Wollongong NSW, Australia in 1994.
2. Contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the teachers' role in policy decision-making, and

3. Contribute to the methodology of policy studies.

As the research proceeded additional aims emerged. It became necessary to:

4. Develop a suitable methodology for the purposes of the study.

5. Validate the researcher's answers to the three research questions with groups of teachers which led to:

5.1 the development of a policy curriculum for teachers and,

5.2 the conduct and analysis of data from two focus groups of teachers.

Structure Of The Thesis

The aims of the study were pursued through a process reflected in the structure of this thesis as follows.
Chapter 1: Statement of the Problem

Chapter one is concerned with outlining the research problem. The problem is approached through a descriptive analysis of society's expectations of teachers. This includes the expectations as described by the teachers' employing authority, the NSW Department of Education and Training. The level of teacher involvement is then discussed to outline issues in respect of any mismatch between expectations of teachers and their level of involvement in policy decision-making. The statement of the problem in these terms leads to a description of the methodological problems and the means used to overcome them.

Chapter 2: Methodology

Chapter two is concerned with the construction and application of the methodology. The methods used to gather, analyse and interpret the relevant data are outlined (Table 2.2, p.104). As an initial literature search did not reveal a suitable methodology, a significant aspect of the thesis has involved the construction of a research methodology using aspects of literature review methods and interdisciplinarity encountered in the literature. A synthesis of available research on these elements resulted in the construction of the methodology presented in this chapter. An existing 'body of policy knowledge' is also integrated throughout the thesis. A focus group methodology is applied to analyse the findings of the literature review with reference to the expressed experience of teachers.
Chapter 3: Literature Review

The literature review presents the product of the literature review methodology and process. The review is structured around a conceptual framework which includes the elements of the policy process and related concepts and a theory of the state. The elements of the theory of the state include force representing power in policy-making, mechanisms representing the means of control in the state at both the abstract and concrete levels and time represented in the historical dimensions of policy-making. The conclusions synthesise the understandings obtained from the literature review and provides the researcher’s answers to the research questions. The literature review is also used to define material suitable for the construction of a policy curriculum for teachers.

Chapter 4: Policy Curriculum

From the literature review the substance of the policy curriculum is derived. The curriculum presents the proposed tools suitable for the analysis of the policy context. The policy curriculum also highlights the role of the teacher in educational policy-making in the NSW DET. The aim of the policy curriculum is to address a deficit in teacher knowledge regarding their place in the policy-making environment. It is postulated that knowledge of the content and contextual information regarding the teachers’ role in society and in policy-making can be integrated with the tools of analysis derived from policy studies. It is further argued that in the long term, with the acquisition of such
knowledge and skill, teachers may be able to establish credibility and legitimacy in policy decision-making in the NSW DET.

Chapter 5: Operationalisation and Data Analysis (Focus Groups)

The material obtained from the literature review is operationalised with reference to the research questions to form focus group questions (Appendix B). Focus groups were conducted to answer the research questions and to critique the policy curriculum produced. The purpose of the focus groups in this study is to provide links between the theoretical aspects of the study, the conclusions established by the researcher and teachers’ perceptions of their role and circumstances in respect of educational policy-making in NSW. In this way the evidence derived from the literature is tested against teachers’ expressed opinions. The data are analysed allowing for the confirmation or refutation of the theoretical findings.

Chapter 6: Research Report

The research report draws together the literature review material and the findings from the focus groups. The report is concerned with the findings of the research process, implications for policy theory and practice and evaluation of the research process. Proposals are also made for possible future research efforts.
Appendix A: Literature Review Process - A Case Study

Appendix A presents the literature review findings as data, reflecting the nature of the information obtained. There are two stages into which the various activities and understandings are identified. The first stage is *clarification*. This involved the identification of the relevant concepts in relation to the questions under investigation. Through this process a composite meaning is constructed. The second stage is *resolution*. At the resolution stage a meta-perspective is created to organise and synthesise conflict such that the literature can be viewed from an interdisciplinary perspective. The function of these activities is to synthesise literary resources on a particular topic which enabled further analysis and application in the form of a literature review in Chapter Three.

**Summary**

The following diagram (Figure 1.1 The Research Process) illustrates the approach adopted. Initially the perceived problem of teachers' exclusion from policy decision-making acted as a catalyst for the study. The problem led to the establishment of the research questions (*Chapter One*). The literature review methodology and interdisciplinarity evident in the literature are synthesised to construct a literature review methodology (*Chapter Two*). The literature review process (*Appendix A*) was conducted and resulted in a literature review (*Chapter Three*). From the literature review a policy curriculum for teachers was constructed (*Chapter Four*).
methodology was applied to the research questions and to critique the policy curriculum (Chapter Five). A research report was then produced which details the researcher's answers to the research questions (Chapter Six).
Figure 1.1 – The Research Process

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Chapter One

Statement of the Problem

Introduction

Chapter One is concerned with stating the research problem which is related to the formulation of education policy in NSW. While policy appears to be central in guiding the provision of education and directing the actions of teachers, the researcher identified a potential problem in the apparent exclusion of teachers from educational policy decision-making. Whilst teachers are considered to have an important and essential role within education the scope of this role is unclear. This research initially considers whether this role should also include legitimate input into policy decision-making.

The issue appeared all the more pressing, as the current political climate in NSW seemed to acknowledge and legitimise a wide variety of stakeholder groups in the formulation of education policy. Teachers, despite their essential position in education and their knowledge base and practical skills, did not seem to be one of these groups. If other groups had a legitimate voice in policy decision-making then teachers by virtue of their position, their knowledge base and their training also appeared to have a claim to a legitimate professional voice in policy decision-making.
In performing their role, teachers are exposed to all the varied influences and pressures of social change occurring in society and they are often required to translate these changes into practice in the classroom. Despite this, teachers’ opinions on appropriate educational change do not appear to be sought by policy decision-makers through clearly identified formal policy-making processes. Teachers appear to have policy thrust upon them. The researcher speculated that if teachers could not influence their circumstances in a professional manner, then this may indeed have a negative impact on the motivation and morale of the teaching service. Such problems in the teaching service in NSW seemed apparent.\(^1\) The researcher considered whether teachers needed to acquire policy-related skills in order to establish a legitimate role in policy decision-making. A tentative hypothesis that teachers had little if any effective role in educational policy formulation in NSW was formed by the researcher. Further, it was speculated that this situation had the potential to impact on the motivation, morale and professionalism of the teaching service. The considered opinion of the researcher was that there were potentially many different ways in which teachers could influence educational policy formulation. This thesis is directed towards an investigation of one of these ways, which may be characterised as an approach based on the acquisition of ‘policy knowledge’.\(^2\)

The problem appeared to require expeditious investigation as it related to society’s expectations of teachers which are on the rise. The level of compatibility between

\(^1\) The problems identified are described in the following section of this thesis.

\(^2\) The ‘policy knowledge’ referred to includes but is not exclusive to the ‘body of policy knowledge’ which has been integrated throughout the thesis.
these expectations and the role of teachers in policy-making seemed to be limited and problematic. Considering these particular questions resulted in a pressing need to address the methodological concerns posed by the conduct of the research.

**Society’s Expectations Of Teachers**

The Australian Industrial Relations Commission states that:

Teachers hold a very important position of trust in the community and carry a heavy responsibility with respect to the education and welfare of children. They have been acquiring additional duties over recent years in the pastoral care of students as a consequence of changes in social conditions and parental duties. The evidence is indicative of a changing role for teachers with a significant expansion of traditional teaching duties. (quoted in Maslen, 1995:17)

It is acknowledged that teachers hold an important position and that their role appears to be flexible and expanding. Maslen (1995:17) reiterates these findings when he indicates that teachers have to “…contend with society’s increasing expectations of schools”. These expectations include a number of professional and social obligations
including child protection initiatives and the management of apparently deteriorating student behaviour. There has also been an increase in training and development requirements. Other expectations include increasing parental demands and involvement in schools, adjusting to school and system reforms, responses to political demands, coping with media scrutiny, the inclusion of students with disabilities into mainstream classrooms and moves towards teacher professionalism (Turner, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 1990).

In discussing the professionalisation of teaching Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) highlight the four ages of professionalism. These being the pre-professional age, the age of the autonomous professional, the age of the collegial professional and the current movement towards the fourth professional age. These authors question whether the movement towards professionalism will prevail, “or will it witness the deprofessionalization of teaching as teachers crumble under multiple pressures, intensified work demands, and reduced opportunities to learn from colleagues?” (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2000:52)

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3 The Child Protection Initiative has been a recent major thrust within NSW public education. This resulted from a NSW Royal Commission (The Wood Royal Commission) into the NSW Police Force in 1996. This Commission also became aware of and investigated instances of the poor management of allegations of sexual misconduct by teachers towards students within the NSW DET. The response of the NSW DET involved extensive staff training, additional responsibilities and the imposition of additional guidelines.

4 Training and development requirements include mandatory CPR (Cardio-pulmonary Resuscitation) for teachers supervising students on excursions (this resulted from a coronial inquest into the drowning of a student on a school excursion). Additional training in Technology in Learning and Teaching (TILT) as a result of the introduction of information technology into schools, additional requirements in test administration and accountability to parents, notably the Basic Skills Test (BST) and the implementation of extensive changes in curriculum particularly in the area of literacy but also recently including mathematics, the creative arts and in reporting.
Whether policy-makers agree with teacher input into policy or not, it is necessary to consider whether the expectations of teachers are realistic in the current context of denying them a professional voice in the kind of policy decision-making that sets conditions and boundaries on teachers performing to expectations. This research considers what level of teacher involvement in policy decision-making is compatible with and supportive of teachers, given the high expectations placed on them.

A number of perceived problems for teachers including those of teacher stress, low morale and cynicism have been identified in the literature (Maslen, 1995; Sharpe, 1998; Simpson, 1996). It is possible that these problems are exacerbated by denying teachers a say in how they perform their role through a legitimate influence in policy decision-making.

Past and present evidence to support problems facing teachers in all states of Australia is not difficult to find. Maslen (1995:17) reports findings that half the teachers surveyed in Queensland at primary and secondary level “…rated their jobs as extremely stressful”. Amongst the factors listed were those associated with workload, student behaviour and bureaucratic requirements. In June 1994 a Victorian survey also revealed psychological distress amongst teachers as a significant problem (Maslen, 1995). Further evidence is cited by Sharpe, focussing on the NSW context who reports that:

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5 The Queensland public education system was responsible for the education for 472,728 students in 2000. (http://education.qld.gov.au)

6 The Victorian public education system was responsible for 531,934 students in 2000. (Victorian Department of Education, Employment and Training, Annual Report 2000-01)
Recent research on Australian teachers has found that ‘overall levels of occupational satisfaction’ are ‘disturbingly low’ (Dinham and Scott, 1996:vii) and that many teachers perceive themselves to be under considerable occupational stress. (Sharpe, 1998:14)

While some may argue that this is a pessimistic view, the evidence presented suggests that significant problems exist in the teaching service. A discussion with senior NSW DET policy officers7 highlighted the belief that there has been a crisis in the morale of teachers for at least 10 years. A Senate enquiry reinforces the anecdotal reports, finding “the nations 250,000 teachers face a serious crisis of morale”. (Crowley, 1998)

In the United States context in the 1970's Howard (1970:8) warned of the potential of the policy processes to create a “...denial and alienation of highly educated people”. Howard (1970:8) further points out that a reason for teacher alienation relates to a lack of 'meaningful involvement', defined as a teacher’s “...feeling that his point of view is heard, respected, can result in change”. The issue of meaningful involvement remains relevant in NSW education while teachers, who are seeking recognition for their professional status, “…remain outside the mainstream of educational planning and policy making”. (Howard, 1970:8)

Anecdotally, a colleague of the researcher with 25 years experience remarked that he

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7 Informal discussion held in December 1998 between NSW DET policy officers and the researcher.
was disheartened by the ‘pervasive cynicism’ he observed amongst highly-motivated and intelligent senior school staff within the NSW education system. Another teacher and principal of many years experience indicated “cynicism was the growth industry…” (Simpson, 1996:12) in education in the late eighties.

These findings, observations and anecdotal reports suggest a significant and ongoing problem with teachers’ perceptions of their role in society. Could these problems of cynicism, low morale and stress be a reflection of a society and a system of education which have increased their expectations of teachers? Further, could these problems be exacerbated through a failure to provide these professionals with a viable means of expressing their opinion on policy decision-making? Although a link between the apparent problems in the teaching service in NSW and exclusion from policy decision-making cannot be fully investigated here, the possibility that exclusion from decision-making has a negative impact on teachers cannot be discounted.

NSW teachers do not operate in a social or political vacuum. Torres (1996) argues that education has become inseparable from political processes. The policy issues which appear to impact so heavily on teachers in the way they go about their role have the potential to bring teachers into conflict with political processes. Sharpe indicates that:

... they [teachers] attribute their dissatisfaction and stress to factors which lie outside of the classroom and the school and which are therefore away from their influence, including rapid external changes imposed on
schools by systems and governments at State and national levels.

(Sharpe, 1998:14)

Education is not unique among other public State organisations and institutions in its susceptibility to external influences. There is a growing complexity in the management of public education through increasing societal and political demands. However, there does not appear to be a consideration of teachers' responses to or their needs when confronted with such circumstances. While the literature identifies and acknowledges the problems within the teaching service including that of low morale, it appears to be bereft of solutions. How are teachers to make sense of this political world and respond to the inherently complex environment in which they operate? Are teachers to be passive recipients of policy determined by others? What are the advantages and disadvantages of such a circumstance? These questions emerge when giving consideration to the teacher’s role in policy-making. Part of the research effort was therefore directed towards proposing solutions to the problems identified.

It is postulated by the researcher that a significant factor contributing to the situation of low morale, stress and cynicism (Maslen, 1995; Sharpe, 1998; Simpson, 1996) in the NSW teaching service is an organisational structure within the NSW DET which does not provide an adequate means for teachers’ professional input into education policy. Teachers perhaps believe that they cannot influence their circumstances and that the inherently political climate penalises those who do not have a clear
understanding of the 'rules of the game'\textsuperscript{8} under which policy is made. Teachers not only seem to have few opportunities but also appear to lack the knowledge required to affect the policy conditions under which they operate.

In investigating the problem of teacher involvement in policy decision-making the researcher was also concerned that whilst teachers may have a general knowledge of policy through their day-to-day observation of policy-at-work, the knowledge that may equip teachers to have input into policy formation and formulation appeared to be unfamiliar to teachers. This situation of limited teacher input into policy decision-making and lack of policy knowledge had the potential to cause "...confusion about the source of changes and how schools should react to them". (Sharpe, 1998:14) It is possible that teachers have little knowledge about the process of policy-making which impacts on their lives and that this has consequences for education systems. Sharpe (1998:14) outlines one of these consequences when he indicates the danger that "schools may choose to turn their back on their external environment and become more inward-looking." Such a response would not be likely to please policy-makers or other stakeholders who might anticipate that schools are more responsive to emerging social needs and the expressed agendas of these groups.

For many teachers, a major focus of responsibility for the growing number of problems that affect schools is identified as their employing authority. This authority

\textsuperscript{8} 'Rules of the game' refers to practical experience of the political process and more specifically knowledge of policy-making.
for public school teachers is commonly referred to as ‘The Department’. Through such a reference there is an indication that teachers may see themselves as external to the system to which they belong. A cursory read of the NSW Teachers Federation magazine ‘Education’ supports this view. ‘Education’ provides a forum for teacher comments and indicates that some teachers not only feel separated from the system and its policies but also view them with hostility. Why would such individuals work to achieve the policy objectives of the Department of Education and Training in this context? It appeared to the researcher that a dichotomy was evident. Within NSW public education there appeared to be a dichotomy between those who were able to make and / or significantly influence policy these included politicians and senior bureaucrats, and those who were largely confined to policy implementation, including District Superintendents, Principals and teachers. At the local level policy implementation as opposed to formulation occurs. Through this structure the stages of the policy process are fundamentally disconnected in that those responsible for implementation do not have a role in the formation or formulation of education policy.

Teachers in this context may perceive themselves as separate from decision-making processes. In this scenario ‘goal fusion’ is unlikely to occur. On this theme the Karmel Report (1973:5.6) speaks of the responsibility of schools to “...harness for

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9 ‘The Department’ is commonly used by teachers in NSW government schools to refer to the NSW Department of Education and Training (NSW DET).
10 The local level refers to schools and also District Offices where the monitoring of policy implementation and adherence occurs.
11 Implementation is a stage in the policy process when government acts on policy to put it into practice. (Palumbo and Calista, 1990; Winter, 1990)
12 Goal fusion refers to a situation where the goals of an organisation are accepted by individual members of the organisation such that organisational goals are integrated with personal goals. This results in higher levels of motivation and job performance by individuals. (Paolillo, Jackson and Lorenzi, 1986)
educational purposes the potential of people who operate them". The NSW education system does not appear to have achieved this objective. The inability of teachers to influence education appeared to the researcher to extend to activities beyond traditional teaching duties.

The circumstances described seemed to establish a vicious circle. Teachers who lack the knowledge of policy decision-making and have no appropriate channel or mechanism to direct their responses to policy are in danger of developing cynicism towards the policies emerging from the political process. In such a circumstance if the NSW DET imposes policies they may be viewed with suspicion. A reluctance and scepticism about many initiatives and, at worst, opposition in a passive or active form could appear. Under these conditions the NSW DET must impose policy. This leads to a confirmation of teachers' suspicions about the DET's view of teachers. That is, that teachers are implementers who require direction and perhaps coercion in order to fulfil their professional obligations. These obligations are then defined and re-defined by the education bureaucracy and the government. Teachers therefore appear continually in a situation where they are powerless to change policy that affects their lives. In this situation one of the few options available to teachers is to direct their responses industrially\textsuperscript{13} through the NSW Teachers Federation. Through this mechanism teachers may be unable to respond professionally to professional issues as

\textsuperscript{13} Notable recent disputes include Annual Reporting (Boston, 1997), Supervision (Boston, 1998), Federation State Election Campaign (Irving, 1998), Policy and Legislative Changes Affecting Teachers (Kelly, 1998), New Teachers Award (Boston, 1999) and ELLA test ban (Inform 2000).

Chapter One - Statement of the Problem
industrial action and the partisan politics of the NSWTF\textsuperscript{14} would seem to be incompatible with a professional teacher and government / DET policy dialogue, focussing on professional rather than political issues.

It is the contention of the researcher that policy knowledge would allow teachers access to a range of understandings and responses when confronted with concerns in their professional lives. Sharpe states that:

\begin{quote}
The healthy organizational response is one based on knowledge and understanding of the wider forces impinging on schools, open acceptance of, or confrontation with, the issues and co-operation with the change process. This calls for educational leaders who themselves understand the forces impacting on schools and who can help school communities interpret their meaning and positively manage their impact on the school and the profession. (Sharpe, 1998:14)
\end{quote}

But why should this knowledge be restricted to educational leaders? It may not be sufficient for educational leaders to understand the forces impacting on schools if teachers do not share in such knowledge. Evidence on effective communication (Berlo, 1960) indicates that a shared field of experience or knowledge of relevant factors is essential to effective communication. Therefore teachers would also require

\textsuperscript{14} NSW politics has been dominated by two major political parties: the left of politics in the form of Labor governments and the right of politics in the form of conservative Liberal coalition governments. The NSWTF has identified and aligned itself with the left of politics in NSW through strong links with the Labor Party. (O'Brien, 1984)
the knowledge\textsuperscript{15} and skills that Sharpe indicates are a requirement of effective principals. Sharpe (1998:14) also indicates it is necessary to “…link the school community with the past, the future and the wider present (the social and political forces affecting education), and the professional considerations impinging on teachers’ lives”. Teachers would seem to be an integral element in any such endeavour.

In light of societal expectations and teachers ever increasing level of professional expertise the researcher believes it is important to consider the teacher’s role and policy making.

Teachers and Policy-making

In modern society we have educated and accredited teachers who are responsible for implementing education policy. Included amongst the expectations of teachers are their professional responsibilities. These include the requirement to keep abreast of the latest teaching theories and practice. As discussed, the need to undertake training to maintain skills has become necessary with an expanding and rapidly changing curriculum. Reinforcing the expectation for training, the NSW DET indicates that all staff should “ii. Develop their professional knowledge…”\textsuperscript{16}. Given that teachers are expected to teach in a professional manner and direct energy towards their own

\textsuperscript{15} The knowledge includes the ‘body of policy knowledge’ referred to on page 7 of this thesis.

knowledge base, it is also reasonable to assume that teachers have a role to play in adding to the collective wisdom of the profession. The expectations regarding training and development are clearly enunciated by the NSW DET. The expectation that teachers would add to the body of knowledge regarding their profession would seem to be self-evident. Walker (1989:7) supports this notion when he states, “It is almost certain that most practical experience will reside with educational practitioners... we need to consider the legitimate role of professional authority in educational policy”. If teachers are considered to be legitimate stakeholders in the policy landscape, they will logically be entitled to have input into the policies which affect their practice. This is the issue at the heart of this research effort.

A senior NSW DET officer\textsuperscript{17} shares the view that teachers should indeed participate in policy decision-making:

\ldots we need a strong and participatory profession of educators, who understand the legitimacy and limitations of the policy process and who have credibility to the point where they win legitimate influence with governments, communities and in the marketplace. (McMorrow, 1998:7)

In contrast with this opinion, Dudley and Vidovich (1995) indicate that a more prevalent view is that education policy is determined by governments who are

\textsuperscript{17} Dr Jim McMorrow Deputy Director-General, NSW DET 1998-2002.
primarily guided by broad economic considerations. "Other interests such as parents, teachers, professional educators, academics,... [were]... not accepted as legitimate and, indeed, were deemed not rational...". (Dudley and Vidovich, 1995:47)

There are still others who claim that teachers do have a say in policy decision-making. Crump (1992) indicates that teachers can influence policy, primarily through their powerful trade union, the New South Wales Teachers Federation (NSWTF). A notable example of this influence occurred in March 2000 when the NSWTF banned the conduct of the English Language and Literacy Assessment (ELLA) in high schools. The NSWTF claimed the tests were being used to redistribute Support Teacher Learning (STL) resources across the state. The NSWTF disagreed with the ELLA test being used for this purpose and caused its cancellation.

The adversarial nature of such influence involving the use of union power on policy rather than industrial issues would seem to be unwelcome by governments as evidenced in their sometimes vigorous opposition. Crump (1992) cites the example of teachers acting collectively to change the emphasis of the Fair Discipline Code away from corporal punishment towards a more positive approach. As Crump (1992) indicates, the modification to this policy was unexpected and unwelcome. While teachers, as members of a Union and acting collectively in the instances cited by Crump (1992), have influenced policy, this may not always be perceived as legitimate by government policy decision-makers. Such influence does not seem to have the

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18 The Fair Discipline Code was implemented across NSW public schools in 1990 in order to improve student behaviour in schools.

Chapter One - Statement of the Problem
character of systematic and accepted input into the policy process of NSW public education. While teachers are frequently represented on boards and committees, including the Board of Studies, their influence on policy formulation remains restricted to the relative influence provided by these opportunities. Thus, the ability of teachers to refocus some specific policies which are already formulated, is far removed from systematic input into the formation and formulation stage of policy development through structured, agreed and consistent mechanisms.

As previously stated, observations of the NSW education system by the researcher appeared to indicate that teachers have little part as active decision-makers in the policy process. The research literature cited here appeared to support this view. What is the appropriate role of teachers in the education policy landscape? Currently teachers appear only in a reactive role, adapting and perhaps distorting policy objectives at the school and classroom levels. Teacher prominence in the lives of students at the implementation stage of policy (in the classroom), and societal expectations mean that the absence of teachers as decision-makers at other stages of the policy process\(^{19}\) may not be compatible with improving education.

Perhaps teachers should be pro-active and able to respond to policy in a manner commensurate with their professional knowledge. This anomaly in the overall

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\(^{19}\) The policy process has been described by various authors (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984; Rist, 1994; Brewer and deLeon, 1983; Dye, 1987; Fasano, 1993). The policy process is considered to be distinct from a single decision in terms of its complexity and the extended time frames over which policy is developed.
involvement of teachers in the education system relates to the first research question in this investigation.

The logical sequitur to this is the question as to whether teachers could become involved in policy decision-making. It seemed to the researcher that teachers were unlikely to view the significance of policy knowledge from their current positions. Sharpe (1998:14) indicates that there is antipathy by many teachers to "...the impact of forces from the wider world on the daily life of schools". While knowledge of policy issues may be an important element in teacher participation in policy decision-making, the application of theoretical policy knowledge in a professional context is likely to present some practical difficulties.

Despite these difficulties, the notion of access to knowledge is cited by Maeroff (1988) as an important factor in the empowerment of teachers. He refers to the ability of teachers to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to fully participate in the decision-making processes, rather than the knowledge of content and the teaching / learning process alone. Thus, it may be that policy knowledge is a prerequisite for the effective teacher practitioner if they are to operate in a political climate and develop credibility with policy makers. Sharpe (1998:15) states that it is important to have professional principals "...who are not satisfied to be the passive recipients of these policies". Perhaps teachers should also be active and pro-active in respect of education policy and that they could undertake such responsibilities given the acquisition of adequate knowledge and skills.
This analysis is problematic in that it leads to a consideration of the circumstances under which teachers would have an input into policy. This is the third research question in this investigation, in respect to which there appeared to be a paucity of evidence in the literature. The researcher could only speculate that the circumstances under which teachers would become involved in policy decision-making may include increased teacher knowledge and professionalism. This movement towards professionalism may however preclude some current and long-established work practices evident within the NSW DET. Teachers may find it difficult to continue to operate under existing working conditions and also to claim the further privileges of a profession and ultimately legitimacy as stakeholders in the policy landscape. It is also likely that current policy decision-makers including those in government and education bureaucracies have vested interests in maintaining current power structures and they may find it difficult to share decision-making power with teachers, even in exchange for increased professional responsibility.

Teachers by virtue of their position in the classroom are necessarily involved in aspects of the policy process at the implementation stage. The researcher speculated that their responsiveness to social changes and political agendas and their continuing

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20 Such work practices include transfer rights for teachers as opposed to merit selection, maintaining job security in particular schools (this results in low teacher mobility in desirable teaching locations with a consequence of an aging teaching population and few opportunities for younger teachers in these areas), working hours (approximately 6 ½ hours per day including recess and lunch breaks), holidays (in excess of 11 weeks paid holiday leave) and leave conditions (including 22 sick days fully paid and 22 sick days on half pay per annum and Long Service Leave (LSL) entitlements of 2 months on full pay after 10 years service with an additional 15 days on full pay credited for each subsequent year of service), job security (it is very difficult to remove permanent teachers from the service) and the absence of teacher performance measures (the current Teachers Assessment Review Schedule, TARS) is completed on an exceptions basis and only affects teachers whose performance is judged to be inefficient. During 2000 and again in 2001 the TARS process was strengthened.
training might make it difficult to sustain their exclusion from an input into policy
decision-making in public education in NSW if society and policy-makers also expect
improved levels of performance, motivation and commitment from the profession.

Methodological Concerns

In investigating the teachers' role in policy-making, important methodological
considerations became unexpectedly prominent within the research. While a wide
range of available material was evident in the literature the synthesis and analysis of
this evidence was problematic. Data on the topic appeared in the literature from
philosophical, historical and political perspectives and various management and
policy-related literature also had important contributions to make to the topic in
question however, a suitable methodology capable of synthesising this literature was
not apparent. Specifically, the available literature review methodology was
classified by incompleteness.

The purposes of this research required the synthesis of material across several
paradigms and disciplines and thus the researcher sought to resolve this
methodological dilemma. A survey of qualitative research texts\textsuperscript{21} revealed only scant
treatment of literature review methods. Thus, methodological issues were given

\textsuperscript{21} Texts surveyed included Patton (1990); Denzin and Lincon (1994); Kellehear (1993); Bouma (1993);
Stewart (1984); Strauss (1987); Glesue and Puskin (1992); Balian (1994); Sarantakos (1993); Dane, 1990.
significant emphasis throughout the course of the research. These methodological concerns emerged from the nature of the topic selected.

In particular, the researcher identified and listed potential problems including, the lack of a guiding methodology, the lack of a cohesive body of research, a limited focus or gap in the policy space, a limited number of applicable models or theories, the fragmentation of knowledge and a poor level of research legitimacy.

The lack of a guiding methodology presented problems in that methodology tells the researcher how to investigate a given problem. A methodology is a process which usually involves a series of steps leading to findings. The material reviewed through an initial literature search provided no adequate methodology and therefore the question of 'how to' investigate the problem of teacher involvement in policy decision-making needed to be addressed. The lack of a cohesive body of research presented problems in terms of adequate content. The research available tended to address single issues as aspects of the topic. Walker (1989) for example, treated the philosophy of teacher involvement in policy setting from a political perspective, yet there were few proposed models of teacher involvement and thus the literature tended to lack context. The body of relevant research spanned a number of disciplinary boundaries and thus was disjointed in using different methodology and terminology to present the findings.

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22 The policy space has been characterised as a heuristic (Hogwood and Gunn, 1983:13) and is a tool used to guide analysis in policy research. Further details of the policy space are provided on page 126 of this thesis.

23 These included philosophical, historical, political, sociological, management and policy research.
There was also an apparently limited focus reflected as a gap in the literature. Research on how teachers could or would participate in the policy decision-making process was not evident in the literature and hence there was little accumulated information on teachers' involvement in the policy process. This had implications for the development of models or theories on the topic.

There were limited models or theories apparent in respect of teachers and the policy process. The models that were available were restricted to very few references (Croll et al, 1994) which tended to be isolated and did not necessarily address the current state of teachers' involvement in policy-making. There were no models found which addressed the 'how to' or the could or would of teacher involvement in policy decision-making.

A fragmentation of knowledge was apparent. While there was limited although significant research available on the issue, it was fragmented within and between disciplines (Helmericks et al, 1991) and embedded within particular aspects of other research topics.

Finally there was a lack of research legitimacy. Teachers' involvement in policy formation and formulation was not a line of inquiry being pursued by many
researchers. Due to limited work in the topic area, the researcher wondered if legitimacy tended to be questionable.

Despite the problems identified, possible answers to the research questions seemed to exist although they appeared to be scattered across the literature with no apparent binding methodology. The research effort which was initially directed to finding answers to the research questions was temporarily diverted to solve the methodological dilemma that presented itself.

It was necessary to create order from the literature available in order to effectively utilise the literature resources to answer the research questions. A methodology was developed to achieve this new and unexpected research objective. This methodology was developed as a result of an investigation of current literature review methodology and interdisciplinary research methods, focusing on aspects of borrowing24 (Chapter Two). With this task completed the research effort returned to the original research questions.

The apparent absence of teachers from the formation and formulation stage of policy-making presented the 'social problem'25 that this policy related research is attempting to explore. This social problem prompted the research questions:

Should teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?;

24 Borrowing refers to the use of research paradigms, methods, tools and theories across disciplines. (Klein, 1990)

25 A 'social problem' is considered by Majchrzak (1984) to be the typical subject of policy research.
Could teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?; and

Would teachers be involved in the policy decision making process in education in NSW?

Summary

The research problems under investigation arose as teachers did not appear to have a significant role in policy decision-making in the NSW public education system. This seemed problematic when the researcher considered the social and professional expectations placed on teachers. It appeared that teachers were increasingly being asked to respond to emerging social needs, the outcomes of political decision-making and the demands of a rapidly changing and expanding curriculum. Along with these changes teachers were being encouraged and/or required to increase their levels of knowledge and skills through additional training. Despite these changes the place of teachers in policy decision-making did not appear to change in response to increasing expectations. Teachers were being asked to learn and do more but their opinion was not being sought in policy decision-making.

The researcher considered whether such a situation was likely to lead to problems within the teaching profession and whether the increasing expectations on teachers were compatible with denying them a role in policy decision-making. If teachers
were marginalised then this may also have consequences in terms of low motivation and commitment to their roles. Hence, when teachers are exposed to policies in schools, they may defeat the purpose of the policy through failure to respond appropriately at the level of implementation. The researcher asked how teachers could established a legitimate role in policy decision-making.

This thesis focuses on one possible method of establishing a role for teachers in policy decision-making in public education in NSW. This method relies upon the acquisition by teachers of knowledge enabling teachers to more effectively address the policy issues which have a bearing on their role.

The articulation of this problem led to further methodological considerations. How could such a problem, which required the synthesis of information scattered across the literature, be addressed?

A suitable methodology (Chapter Two) was constructed using literature review methodology and aspects of interdisciplinarity evident in the literature. This methodology, documented in Chapter 2, is transportable across literature reviews covering different sets of paradigms. Its application to the issue of concern in this Thesis is documented in Appendix A.

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26 Aspects of this knowledge are evident in "the body of policy knowledge" integrated throughout this thesis. For a more detailed description see Chapter 3 pp.122-130.
Introduction

The methodology to be adopted in this research had to address the three research questions:

Should teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?

Could teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?

Would teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?

Such methodology was arrived at through a series of steps outlined in the sections of this chapter.

- Section 1 - Literature review methods
- Section 2 - Interdisciplinary research methods
Section one, 'literature review methods' began with a 'mapping of literature search literature'. This effort highlighted the treatment of the topic in the literature. The investigation then centred on the 'nature of literature reviews', focusing on their purpose and function. The 'state of the art' was then explored and the most significant research on the topic was selected. The state of the art included sections on 'conceptualisation' (Bruce, 1994), 'taxonomy' (Cooper, 1988) and 'process' (Helmericks et al, 1991) as aspects of literature reviews. The section then addressed the next step of 'creating a literature review methodology' from the current methodology available. Issues related to the 'application of literature review methodology' are then discussed.

Section two is concerned with 'interdisciplinary research methods' and 'borrowing in a methodological context' which is explored as an aspect of interdisciplinary research method. The 'nature of borrowing' is presented in terms of its function, assumptions and limitations. The 'reasons for borrowing' provided justification for use of the technique. 'Problems associated with borrowing' are highlighted in order to provide a clear analysis of limitations in its application. Finally discussion centres on 'a framework for interdisciplinary investigations'. This framework identifies an interdisciplinary methodology in terms of the four-step process of clarification, resolution, operationalisation and data analysis.
Section three, 'a synthesis of research methods', integrates the two distinct methodologies explored. This includes a justification for the selection of aspects of literature review methodology to fit particular stages of interdisciplinary investigations. Finally a two-stage methodology is presented. The stages are the literature review stage and the research stage. The literature review stage includes the steps of 'clarification' and 'resolution' and the research stage has the further steps of 'operationalisation' and 'data analysis'. This results in a two stage, four-step methodology for application in policy research in general and specifically to answer the initial research questions asked (Table 2.3, p. 106).

Section four, 'focus group methodology', outlines the application of this methodology to the research questions and the policy curriculum.
SECTION ONE - LITERATURE REVIEW METHODS

"I will only read a few thousand books in my lifetime, about a tenth of one percent of the contents of the richest libraries...the trick is to know which books to read."

Dr. Carl Sagan (Balian, 1994)

The most obvious problem that presents itself when undertaking a literature review is that there is a vast amount of material appearing to be relevant to any topic. Confronted with this reality the researcher requires a framework or methodology necessary to conduct an exploration. This framework will restrict options to achieve the aims of research within reasonable time frames, while safeguarding epistemological requirements. Researchers approach the literature with some clear ideas about topics and methods to investigate them. In other words most researchers undertaking a literature review engage themselves in what they believe is a focused and purposeful process. For the purposes of this research the focus and purpose of exploration were soon revealed to be somewhat problematic in terms of the methodological issues confronting the researcher.

Mapping the Literature Search Literature

The obvious assumption at the outset of this research was that the literature on literature reviews would provide options in terms of methodology. That is, it would
provide the researcher with the ‘state of the art’ and the ‘map of knowledge’ in terms of the required research methodology. As the work proceeded these assumptions did not hold true. What does the literature on literature reviews tell us? The surprising answer appears to be not much! Despite the fact that literature reviews are an established and essential element of research, “…little research has been done into aspects of the genre itself”. (Bruce, 1994:217) Cooper (1984:9) describes a situation where there is a “…remarkable lack of attention to how an inquirer finds, evaluates, and integrates past research”.

An examination of current texts on qualitative research reveals the paucity of knowledge on literature reviews and associated methodology. For example, Patton (1990) in an extensive text, discusses literature reviews only briefly. Morse (in Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:231), in his contribution to an even more extensive handbook on qualitative research, makes the only reference to literature reviews, describing them as a “…cognitive process of synthesizing others articles”. Other authors who were expected to cover the topic (Kellehear, 1993; Bouma, 1993; Stewart, 1984; Strauss, 1987; Glesue and Peshkin, 1992) make only limited or no reference to literature reviews. While many texts indicate the importance of literature reviews, there appear to be few that give weight to the importance of the literature review methodology. Balian (1994) in a chapter on literature reviews provides a recipe-style treatment of the topic without any description of the theoretical underpinnings of the methodology. Sarantakos (1993) places the literature review under the heading of ‘documentary methods’ and provides little in the way of further analysis. Sarantakos (1993), while
describing briefly a four-stage methodology\(^1\), importantly highlights the limitations of such methodology. These limitations include a lack of representativeness of material selected, difficulties in accessing material, out of date material, questionable reliability of some documents, inability to compare some material, methodological problems associated with presentation and document or author bias. This treatment of literature reviews serves to highlight the lack of knowledge associated with literature review methodology but leaves the researcher none the wiser in terms of finding solutions. Dane (1990) provides a more thorough treatment devoting a chapter to the topic of literature reviews.

Dane (1990:62) focuses on techniques and describes a good literature review as one that achieves the three goals of, "...obtaining a scientific perspective, avoiding duplication of effort, and avoiding conceptual and procedural problems". Dane categorises the information sought through the literature review into information concerning theory, methods and data analysis. Dane then discusses key topics, key authors and key studies. The treatment of literature reviews by Dane, although more extensive than in other texts examined, takes on the character of a "how to" manual for students. The discussion does not delve deeply into the fundamental lack of methodology or outline, or systematically address the methodological limitations of literature reviews.

\(^1\) Sarantakos (1993,pp.207-208) Stage 1 identification of relevant documents, stage 2 organization and analysis of the documents, stage 3 evaluation of the information and stage 4 interpretation of the data.
Cooper (1984) provides a more thorough treatment of literature reviews and associated methodology. A significant contribution by Cooper is in describing and categorising different types of reviews and arguing that "...techniques specific to their purpose..." (Cooper, 1984:10) should be employed and that research reviews should use 'rigorous methodology' (Cooper, 1984) as required in other aspects of research.

Given that literature reviews are such a critical element of most research work, the lack of a coherent methodology is indeed a surprising discovery. An extensive computer literature search of journal articles also reveals only limited material on literature review methods.

Can it therefore be assumed that the literature review as a research topic in its own right is not important? Or alternatively, that the field is so well known that everyone is well versed in the process? Or, is it a phenomenon not amenable to investigation? None of these explanations seems plausible. Reviews of the literature are clearly vital, and one would assume they present no greater problems for research than many other areas of investigation.

Perhaps literature reviews are considered experiential phenomena. That is, people learn how to conduct a literature review by trial and error. Thus the conduct of a review may take on the status of an apprenticeship, for those who are learning the art and, once the art is mastered, systematising the process might appear cumbersome. Perhaps through this method of learning or apprenticeship researchers conduct the
literature review individually and thus what is considered important and judged is the end product rather than the process. The argument that literature reviews are an individualised process would seem to have some merit given that each reviewer interacts with different aspects of and in different ways with the literature. In the area of research however, this would seem an unacceptably haphazard approach.

There is a clear need, identified through a gap in the literature, to build an understanding of literature reviews. How we view, conceptualise and approach the review of the literature is an important area of investigation. In essence, many researchers need guidance. Given that it is not possible to note all material on most topics, this guidance will provide clues as to how to sample and go on to justify the selection of the sample. In broader terms Cooper (1984:9) describes this as “...orderly knowledge building”. Surveying the literature can and should be treated like any other aspect of research as attempts are made to reduce subjectivity and bias and to provide a valid basis for findings. This will become increasingly important as literary resources continue to expand and even the most well-read researcher samples less and less of the total pool of research in a particular area.

The lack of knowledge on literature reviews may be summarised as a need to address the following key points that involve how the researcher and reader conceptualise reviews, categorise reviews and draw together available knowledge to provide a coherent methodology for the conduct of literature reviews.
The Nature of the Literature Review

Cooper (1984:21) has stated that "research reviews usually involve many empirical realizations", however when researchers conduct literature reviews they need to ask questions about what they are trying to do, not just what they are trying to find. Attempting to 'find' information is a superficial process and may be characterised as a means to an end. What researchers attempt to 'do' with the material involves the fundamental purpose of research. It may be characterised as the end product or achievement of the research effort as a whole. It is apparent that the literature review has a number of purposes and premises. One important premise underlying the conduct of literature reviews is an assumption of relative ignorance. Logically, there is not much to be gained from gathering information a researcher is already familiar with. Ignorance is relative in that we all bring with us a range of knowledge, skills and attitudes to any activity we undertake. Thus, researchers have some base on which to build. Researchers faced with the problem of ignorance have a tradition of literature review which has as one of its aims the accumulation of wisdom on a particular topic.

Literature reviews are focused, as they do not generally range freely without some delineation of what will be included and what will be excluded. Thus parameters are evident in the conduct of the literature review. The broad topic of study forms an important focus and the narrowing of this focus occurs as the research comes closer to a clear definition of the research topic. While the researcher is trying to find and bring
together what is already known about a topic, he or she is trying to achieve much more than this.

In conducting literature reviews, there is a need to extract salient concepts, to categorise these concepts, to justify the selections made, and to present the material selected in a rational framework, which may lend support to or refute an argument or theory. In achieving this end an effective literature review is not only trying to find out what is known but also what is not known. Through this understanding it is possible to establish where the gaps in the literature lie and then address the problem if one exists. Researchers also want to avoid covering the same ground as other researchers accidentally, although replicating work may be appropriate for circumstances associated with confirmation or refutation.

An effective literature review can also be used to "...avoid or solve problems that others have encountered". (Dane, 1990:62) Further to this point, a literature review forms a point of reference or criteria against which to judge what a researcher is doing. A common strategy is to use the weight of what has gone before and reflect this against what is discovered. Thus, to seek to add to the body of knowledge, researchers examine the relevant body of knowledge and contrast and compare it with what they are doing. This provides not only a map of knowledge on a topic but also a point of reference for research work. The reflection allows the researcher to make some judgements as to whether what he or she is doing is valid, useful and original.
Through literature reviews the researcher considers the problem, determines the current state of knowledge, and makes a clear proposal. Because this is the practice of many researchers, change in literature is incremental over time. What is good is retained, what is not is excluded from current thinking. The process of holding up and reflecting work against what is known is therefore an important activity and purpose of the literature review.

A literature review can also be expressed in terms of a desired outcome. In conducting a literature review the reviewer wants relevant topics, the most up-to-date information or the ‘state of the art’, and a variety of opinions to cross-reference. In achieving this end, it is necessary in one form or another to systematise the conduct of the literature review so that actions taken are logical. In systematising, researchers can begin the justification of selections. By doing so researchers establish the validity and reliability of the selection process. In achieving these ends the literature review will tell the researcher what is important and what is not. It will indicate why certain things are more important and why some opinions or knowledge are of greater weight or value than others. Establishing validity allows for the rationalisation and justification of choices and allows for judgements to be made about the choices that were made.

Significantly affecting validity and a methodological dilemma is the fact that the conduct of a literature review is not a passive process. It is, in fact, interactive. Not only does the reviewer construct the review according to his or her knowledge and skills base, the review changes the nature of the researcher’s thinking as knowledge is
gained. It is of course necessary to construct and manipulate the literature review to suit a researcher’s purpose and ultimately achieve the research goals. The manipulation of the review involves a process. The reviewer is constantly engaged in this process, which shapes the review in a particular form and direction. This may be as simple as decisions regarding headings or as complex as constructing conceptual links between related information. In reviewing the literature, knowledge and understandings are gained, cognitive processes are changed and this affects what researchers do next in respect of their research. It is, in effect, a value-added process. Although some literature reviews are conducted after data collection, the effect on the reviewer is the same as a researcher’s endeavour to place his / her findings in a context.

In conducting a literature review the researcher forms a unique construction, that is, no two literature reviews can be the same. Two literature reviews conducted by the same person on the same topic can select different material. Thus the researcher seeks out an appropriate process to achieve his / her research goals and importantly makes note of serendipitous discovery.

The knowledge produced by many researchers is reductionist in nature. Many researchers tend to narrow their focus to produce definitive statements that are often increasingly less encompassing. Thus a researcher exploring the curriculum in schools may narrow the focus from the whole curriculum, to English, to specific aspects of literacy, to particular individual teaching methodology. In this way smaller units of understanding are created. The literature review’s value is in attempting to reassemble
the bigger picture which is often disassembled through the natural process of reduction. Through this process it is possible to position a study in the wider body of knowledge.

The final product of the literature review should be an elegant and well-written report. A review of quality will be premised on the understanding that the abundance of literature on most topics will necessitate a selection process. It will attempt to control the subjectivity in selection by systematising what is done in relation to the purpose it is trying to achieve. The journey involved in any literature review will be unique as the material steers the researcher on a particular course. Researchers require models, which 'conceptualise', possibly categorise through a 'taxonomy' and provide the researcher with a 'process' through which literature reviews can be undertaken in a systematics way.

The State Of The Art

Conceptualisations of Literature Reviews

In attempting to achieve the first goal of conceptualisation, Bruce (1994) identifies six conceptualisations or ways that a researcher may experience a literature review. These are as a list, as a search, as a survey, as a vehicle for learning, as a research facilitator and as a report. The six conceptualisations are considered to be progressively encompassing.
The list represents the simplest understanding of a literature review and is self-explanatory. Lists are compiled in the initial stages of literature review through the use of such fundamental tools as key words for computer and logic searches, such as those required for databases like ERIC. The production of a list includes books, journals and other resources and the names of authors and dates are attached to references. The search involves finding specific and related information about a topic. Useful information is identified through this process. As a survey, the literature review acts as an investigation of a knowledge base in the area being investigated. At this stage the current level of knowledge is established, models and methodologies in the field are identified and examined.

Dunkin provides a cautionary remark, however, when he states that:

Approaches to gleaning the accumulated findings of that research have varied from the narrative through vote counting or box scores to meta-analysis. Some of these approaches make more demands on the conceptual and interpretative skills of the synthesizer than others, and, therefore, contain more scope for error and bias than others, although all approaches are subject to the fallibility of the synthesizers and those upon whom they necessarily rely. (Dunkin, 1996:87)
In proposing a typology of errors Dunkin provides guidance for a reviewer conducting a search. The errors of concern at the search stage are described by Dunkin as ‘primary stage errors’ and may involve selecting for inclusion only part of a research finding and omitting the rest or giving equal weight to research findings regardless of their quality. The two error types at this stage are described by Dunkin as Type 1 ‘unexplained selectivity’ which involves excluding research which is pertinent to the topic without explanation (perhaps contradictory findings) and Type 2 error or ‘lack of discrimination’ which involves giving equal status to all research. Dunkin (1996:89) indicates that the use of “journal articles that have survived rigorous refereeing and editing processes” is one way of attempting to distinguish among qualities of research efforts.

The search stage of the process, although potentially open to reviewer bias, is one way in which researchers can make individual judgements about the relative importance of research material. Using the material presented by Dunkin (1996) allows the reviewer to refine the process and minimises the chance of error at this stage of research.

The literature review as a vehicle for learning includes the process by which the researcher is affected by the literature. Through the process, the researcher gains knowledge and understandings of the topic, which then affects the course of the research as a whole. The literature review can also act as a research facilitator, “the literature review is conceived as supporting, influencing, directing, shaping or changing...” (Bruce, 1994:223) the research being undertaken.
The final conceptualisation of the literature review is as a report. The culmination of the review is a report in which a synthesis of the understandings gained and critical issues discovered takes place. The report of the literature review is generally considered to be a critical element of thesis writing.

Bruce contends that each of these steps represents, “different relationships between student researchers and the literature”. (Bruce, 1994:217) In the literature, while there may in fact be numerous definitions which include “an interpretation and synthesis of published research” (Merriam, 1988:6), “a research project in its own right” (Brent, 1986:137), “a task that continues throughout the duration of the thesis” (Anderson et al, 1970:17) and “shows how the problem under investigation relates to the previous research” (Leedy, 1989:6), these definitions are limited in explaining all concepts associated with a literature review. The understandings of the literature review presented by Bruce describe a hierarchical ordering in which the different understandings represent an increasingly sophisticated relationship between the literature and the reviewer.

Cooper (1984) argues that a literature review needs to be defined in terms of process and product and thus understandings about literature reviews are only valid when one considers the review’s purpose.
There is a range of possible processes available in conducting a literature review. The process is considered to be a comparison of the researcher’s findings with those of others. Product on the other hand is, “...the synthesis of the work of others in a form which demonstrates the accomplishment of the explanatory process”. (Bruce, 1994:218) Phillips and Pugh (1987:53) indicate this is simply to, “demonstrate a professional grasp of the background theory”. Definitions, which are considered in light of these conceptualisations, become more wide-ranging and less specific. These include, the “space over which the students' thoughts ranged” (Renstorm et al, 1990:558) and a “map of the territory in terms of which we can interpret how people conceive reality”. (Salijo, 1988:44)

In describing the characteristics of the literature review report, Bruce (1994:226) highlights that the “…final product is a coherent synthesis of past and present research”. On the other hand, Cooper (1984) emphasises that literature reviews need to contain statements as to how the process was undertaken. These approaches and emphases highlight different, yet important, views of the literature review.

**Categorisation of Literature Reviews**

Central to Cooper’s (1984) understanding of literature reviews is that they are not homogeneous. They are undertaken for a variety of purposes and an examination of these purposes can provide the researcher with tools in the form of a taxonomy. In working towards this goal, Cooper (1984) proposes a taxonomy of characteristics of
literature reviews which has six elements: focus, goal, perspective, coverage, organisation and audience.

Focus concerns the material that is of central interest and includes the research findings and methods, theories and practices. A literature review often has more than a single focus and the focus may be defined in the research questions.

The second element of a literature review is concerned with what the reviewer intends as an outcome of the review. Thus a common goal is that of synthesis of previous literature. Strike and Posner (in Cooper, 1984) identify activities that work towards an integration and synthesis in literature reviews.

These activities include:

... formulating general statements from multiple specific instances, resolving the conflict between contradictory ideas and statements of fact by proposing a new conception that accounts for the inconsistency, [and]... bridging the gap between theories and disciplines by creating a common linguistic framework. (Cooper, 1984:9)

Apart from synthesis, the goal of a review can be critical and judgemental. By holding up evidence against a criterion the reviewer aims to demonstrate that past conclusions are erroneous.

Chapter Two – Methodology
A third goal of the review can be to identify issues that are central to the area under investigation and include, "(a) questions that have dominated past endeavours; (b) questions that should dominate future endeavours; or (c) methodological problems that have prevented a topic from progressing". (Cooper, 1988:109)

The review of literature can have multiple goals and the categories reviewed can occur in combination with different emphasis.

Perspective relates directly to how the point of view or bias of the researcher influences the outcome and process of the literature review. Cooper (1988:110) identifies two such roles as 'neutral representation' and 'espousal of position'.

From the perspective of neutral representation the researcher attempts to approach the literature from a neutral perspective choosing interpretations both for and against particular conceptions. There is an attempt through this process to present all sides of the argument. Theories, methods issues and outcomes are presented in terms of the relative merit they are afforded in the literature. Authors such as Phillips (1983) and Eisner (1983) have discussed whether a reviewer can be truly neutral. Despite the initial neutral position adopted by the reviewer a strong position is generally adopted based on the evidence accumulated during the course of the review. The "...distinction relates more to how the works of others are treated, than to the presence or absence of conclusions...". (Cooper, 1988:110)
The espousal method seeks simply to conduct the literature review with a view to advocating one particular aspect of the literature over all others.

Coverage is related to the extent to which the reviewer locates and includes relevant literature in the review. “How reviewers search the literature and how they make decisions about the suitability and quality of material involves methods and analytic processes that are unique to this form of scholarship”. (Cooper, 1988:110) In analysing coverage Cooper identifies four methods. The first method is ‘exhaustive coverage’, in which the reviewer attempts to present all the relevant material in depth. While the attempt is made it is understood that most authors must exclude a large amount of material by virtue of the extent of material available. A second method is based on an ‘exhaustive analysis’ of the literature with the presentation of a selected sample. The reader of such a review is not in a position to judge the representativeness of the selected sample. A third coverage also ‘samples the literature’ and relates to the frequency with which particular material appears in the literature. The author of such a review has the responsibility of demonstrating why the selected sample is representative. The final coverage strategy involves the reviewer focusing on ‘works that are central or pivotal’ to the selected topic. This review describes work that has provided direction in the field of investigation and includes, “material that initiated a line of investigation or thinking, changed how questions were framed, introduced new methods, engendered important debates, or performed a heuristic function for other
scholars". (Cooper, 1988:111) Reviews have the potential to provide more than one of the coverage strategies described above.

The fourth characteristic of the literature review identified in Cooper's taxonomy is organisation. Several types of organisation are possible including historical, with work presented in chronological order, conceptual, where work is presented that relates to the same ideas, and methodological, where similar research methods are grouped as sub-topics. A combination of the above methodologies is also possible.

The final characteristic in Cooper's taxonomy relates to audience. Different reviews will have different audiences. These audiences may include a group of specialised researchers in a particular field, general researchers, practitioners, policy makers and the general public. The audience for a literature review will affect its presentation. The further the audience moves from the specialist researcher the less technical and jargonistic the work will appear.

Through the taxonomy, Cooper (1988:107) argues that a general definition of the literature review is not viable in examining the process and that one needs to "distinguish among different types of literature reviews". While literature reviews seek to collect and synthesise scholarship and bring into being an integrative theoretical position, such concepts are abstract in nature. Cooper (1984) argues that there is no reason to believe that any one of the organisations listed above has any inherent validity which would make it a better choice than any other. There needs to be
a method for judging the quality of a literature review. Strike and Posner (1983) have outlined two elements of a quality literature review and they relate to synthesis and intellectual quality and utility. Strike and Posner argue that in terms of synthesis, good reviews resolve and do not obscure inconsistency. Good reviews result in progressive problem shifts that “increase explanatory and predictive power and expand empirical content and scope of application”. (Cooper, 1988:122) Cooper also considers that a good review will be ‘parsimonious and elegant’. The second element outlined is utility and is the extent to which the review answers the research question.

The Process of Conducting a Literature Review

There are two problems in assessing quality of literature reviews. One is that different reviews serve different functions and thus questions need to relate to not only the quality of the review but the quality of the selection of the type of review. That is, the judgement of the reviewer in selecting his or her analytical tools. The other is the fundamental problem of subjectivity in distinguishing between the relative merits of reviews. Helmericks et al (1991) begin to address this issue through an exploration of issues related to systematising literature searches. These authors propose a procedure for ensuring the representativeness of published material occurring in a review.

The reasons for undertaking a review of literature vary and include curiosity, studying previous research, examining the evolution of ideas, determining contributions to
topics and integrating theories. Helmericks et al contend that the early stages of the research are important in linking the researcher to the topic. They state, "literature involves the identification of a cluster of ideas from which critical elements are distinguished, conceptualised, and linked as an organized statement on the existing body of knowledge for a given topic". (Helmericks et al 1991:286) The problem that presents itself in achieving this end product is that, in researching in some fields, there is reliance upon other disciplines. One such field of study is policy research. Even within disciplines a multitude of frameworks and perspectives exist. Given this, the research is "fragmented both within a discipline and between disciplines". (Helmericks, et al 1991:286) Turner (1987:15) points out that this fragmentation results in "some arbitrariness in the selection of theories for analysis". Others (Berando, 1989 and Dean, 1989) contend that arbitrariness in literature selection is normal practice in much review work. Helmericks et al state "...no systematic procedure for guiding literature searches exists...". (1991:286) The representativeness of the literature review must therefore be assumed. There are some circumstances that clearly warrant a method of ensuring the adequacy of the literature review undertaken. These include situations where, "(a) The area or problem is new to the researcher; (b) a novel perspective is to be applied; (c) there is a new development in a particular topical area; (d) there is uncertainty as to what aspects of a topic are important". (Helmericks, et al 1991:287)

The traditional methods of computer searches, consulting experts and accidental encounter are important, although not considered adequate to ensure that the coverage
of the topic is comprehensive. For this reason a framework needs to be applied to the conduct of literature reviews under the circumstances described. While there is obviously not the time available for any one person to read all that is available on most topics, the process of selection and therefore exclusion must take place. A process is needed to assist and make rational this selection of literature. A major consideration in this endeavour is to ensure that significant contributions are not excluded. Helmericks et al (1991:287-228) suggest that a guide to such a procedure may be drawn from “the logic underlying qualitative social science research involving 'fieldwork' [in that] ... the logic and procedures of fieldwork, and qualitative methods generally, fit the demands and conditions of literature searches”. The groundwork for this process has been established by Glassner and Corzine (1982) who indicate that each publication is equal to a research site, the authors of the publications are considered to be informants, the research site is considered to be sampled. There is a requirement for a sampling frame, data base, or map that identifies the range of possible sites and informants. The objective of the process is to identify the key sites, the key informants as the major sources of information. The sampling frames are bibliographic lists which, when compiled, produce a map of relevant and significant contributions to the topic under investigation. The sample frame is constructed through such tools as bibliographic lists from different sources. The computer search is one efficient method of obtaining material. This process is applied until repetition of material occurs and nothing new is produced from further searches. The process has a disadvantage in that it relies on the validity of such tools as key words in literature searches.
In exploring this process, further validation is required in determining key informants and research sites. Helmericks et al (1991:289) propose two types of validation. These are ‘consensual’ and ‘gatekeeper’. Consensual validation involves a simple tally of the number of times an author is cited by others. The assumption here is that the most frequently cited authors have the most significant contribution to make. Gatekeeper validation is based on the value judgement that some publications are more prestigious than others and are of higher quality. Exploring these publications involves looking at material that has presumably gone through a rigorous selection process. “When both consensual and gatekeeper validation reveal the same sites..., it is easy to conclude that the most important material has been sampled”. (Helmericks, et al, 1991:290) The suggested process proposed by Helmericks et al (1991) involves the following steps,

1. A topic of research interest is specified as a sensitising concept to orient a search of relevant literature,
   - Topic selection.
   - Refine topic.

2. Publications are identified as potential research sites and authors are determined as authors for each site,
   - General searches.
   - Specific search.
3. Publications and appropriate references cited in the publications are collected into a sampling frame following procedures similar to snowball sampling, which continues on until no new information is apparent,

- Define concepts.
- Ensuring coverage.
- Categorising review.

4. Key sites are identified using predetermined validation procedures,

- Define critical literature.
- Validation techniques.

5. The points of view of key informants, with emphasis on key sites is subject to careful reading this resembles content analysis, which can be generalized to the focal topic because valid and reliable procedures were employed through the process,

- Extracting concepts.
- Categorising concepts.
- Synthesis.
- Report as a product.
- Serendipity.

The process described is a step away from the arbitrary literature search. Despite advocating this process, the author cautions the researcher against overlooking the possible importance of serendipitous discovery in research.

Creating a Literature Review Methodology

The three conceptual frameworks highlighted in the previous sections yield the following synthesis with three distinct elements. These are the conceptualisation of literature review (Bruce, 1994), the literature review categories or taxonomy (Cooper, 1988) and the literature review process (Helmericks, et al 1991). These three elements of conceptualisations, categories and process combine in systematising the conduct and analysis of literature reviews to improve the quality of topic investigation. Thus the clear understandings derived are related to how the end product of the literature review was achieved. Bringing together current state of the art views on literature reviews provides some methodological tools.

Establishing the conceptualisations of a literature review allows the researcher to clarify understandings of the review, whether it is as a cohesive knowledge base or as a collection of unorganised material. It allows the expression of the way the researcher experiences a literature review and thereby defines the relationship between the reviewer and the literature. In doing this the researcher can add an important definition of the literature review for the reader. Ultimately as a report the literature review demonstrates an accomplishment by the reviewer to an audience.
The use of categories or taxonomy of a literature review importantly relates the review to the purpose or goals of the reviewer. In doing so it allows the reader to appropriately judge the review against stated criteria. The reader can then relate the review to the goals and thus determine to what extent these goals were achieved. In doing this reviewers must distinguish among different types of reviews.

In working through the taxonomy the reviewer acknowledges a number of definable elements which contain options and thereby choices. Readers can assess the quality of these choices if the process is explicit. Most importantly the taxonomy acknowledges that one definition is not satisfactory and thus makes allowance for the variety of purposes to which a review might be applied.

In exploring the process of the literature review a number of important objectives are achieved. A stated process allows for systematisation and thereby reduces the arbitrariness of the actions of the reviewer. In working towards this end, validity is more easily determined and the chances of replicability are enhanced. In reducing subjectivity, potential sources of bias can be excluded or acknowledged allowing the reader to more objectively judge the quality of a particular literature review and subsequently the quality of the arguments that support the research questions.
Applying Literature Review Models

Conceptualisations

The six conceptualisations of the literature review outlined by Bruce (1994) are all covered in the current research. Each of the conceptualisations however is conducted at different stages of the research process and represents a progressively more sophisticated understanding of the literature in terms of the problem being investigated. The culmination of these conceptualisations, the report, is the focus of the current research efforts.

Categories / taxonomy

Applying the Cooper (1988) taxonomy to the current research yields the following results. The focus of the research relates primarily to research methods and theories. The goal of the research is one of integration through establishing supported generalisations, resolving conflict and the building of linguistic bridges. The perspective of the review should be neutral in that there should be no clear position to support at the outset of the research that would exclude other possibilities. The coverage technique adopts an analysis of the central or pivotal issues through the validation techniques employed. The organisation of the review will combine historical, theoretical and methodological perspectives with a bias towards a
methodological orientation. Finally in terms of Cooper's taxonomy the audiences targeted are primarily policy-makers and researchers.

**Process**

The process adopted in the completion of the literature review involves the following stages.

- Topic selection.
- General searches with a broad focus.
- Refining topic parameters.
- Specific searches.
- Defining concepts.
- Categorising the review according to its purpose.
- Ensuring coverage.
- Defining critical literature, journals and authors.
- Using validation techniques such as consensual and gatekeeper validation.
- Extracting important concepts.
- Categorising concepts.
- Synthesis.
- Preparing the report.
- Noting accidental discovery – serendipity.
Strengths and Weaknesses of Literature Review Methodology

Weaknesses

Possible weaknesses associated with literature reviews can be addressed in terms of the shortcomings of the process adopted. Such shortcomings can be considered in terms of the general paucity of methodology available in respect of literature reviews. Given this, there are methodological problems that need to be identified. These problems include:

- Lack of a guiding methodology.
- The variety of purposes that need to be achieved.
- The range of skills which different reviewers possess.
- The fact that the review itself has an impact on the reviewer.
- Time constraints that need to apply.
- The individuality of the process.
- Problems associated with selection.
- Problems associated with lack of representation of the material selected.
- Lack of the reliability of the material selected through such problems as author bias.
- Determining the relative merit of different literature contributions.
- Problems associated with the synthesis of material.
- The fact that each literature review forms a unique construction.
Many of these weaknesses can be addressed through the adoption of a guiding methodology.

**Strengths**

The strengths of the literature review methodology adopted lie in its minimisation of the weaknesses already outlined. The critical issues which need to be addressed include selection bias, subjectivity of the processes and the range of purposes which need to be achieved. These can be partly addressed through the adoption of the methodology outlined. Non-systematic reviews are potentially open to all the methodological problems to an unknown extent.

The literature review methodology outlined represents progress on current available methodology. Refining the methodology in future research efforts may need to take place to more thoroughly address the problems identified.
Conclusions

It is clear from the discussion thus far that the topic of how to conduct literature reviews has not been well covered in the research literature. This is despite the fact that such reviews form a vital element of almost all research efforts. The following table 2.1 describes the elements central to the literature review methodology established here. The elements identified represent understandings or processes at stages of the literature review.
Table 2.1 – Elements of the literature review

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<td>Perspective</td>
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<td>Vehicle for learning</td>
<td>Coverage</td>
<td>Specific search</td>
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<td>Research facilitator</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
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Section Two – Interdisciplinary Research Methods

"The need for interdisciplinarity has been reflected in epistemological writings ever since the origins of Western Science". George Gusdorf (in Klein, 1990:19)

An initial examination of the literature on teacher involvement in the policy process revealed material scattered across a number of disciplines. Interdisciplinary methods make use of more than one discipline in attempting to answer research questions. The implications of such use for methodology are extensive. Common themes of interdisciplinarity include unity, convergence, synthesis, holistic models and practical applications. The interdisciplinary researcher is generally engaged in activities dealing with real-world issues, which are not necessarily amenable to discipline-dependent investigation. Interdisciplinarity is not new, indeed, "Plato was the first to advocate philosophy as a unified science and, correspondingly, named the philosopher as the one who is capable of synthesising knowledge". (Klein, 1990:19) Borrowing finds its way into scientific investigation through the use of interdisciplinary methodology. Borrowing may be defined as use, “without being the original owner or inventor”. (Pocket Oxford Dictionary, 1970) Borrowing is an example of the type of activity that characterises interdisciplinarity; it is in fact a necessary process in interdisciplinary
research. Borrowing, in essence, uses tools in such forms as paradigms and methodologies across disciplinary boundaries.

**Borrowing in a Methodological Context**

Borrowing has its philosophical core in ideas such as unified science, synthesis and the integration of knowledge. To adopt borrowed tools the researcher also places value on concepts of divergent thinking and the use of a variety of perspectives on problems under investigation. As Bechtel (1986:6) indicates, “...science does not work in a social vacuum...”. Science has discovered that the boundaries of knowledge do not always hold firm as researchers begin to explore the most complex issues within disciplines. On this theme Klein (1990) points out that mechanical models have been applied to economics and economic models have been applied in the area of electoral analysis. Indeed, significant scientific discoveries have involved borrowing: “...Darwin's use of geological evidence in the theory of biological evolution, the use of thermodynamics in the theory of chemical reactions,...[and]... the role of quantum mechanics and crystallography in the discovery of DNA”. (Kelin, 1990:85) Klein (1990:11) through these examples, points out that, “there is a subtle restructuring of knowledge in the late twentieth century” and that through such processes “new divisions of intellectual labour...” Klein (1990:11) have been created. Chaos theory, for example, has emerged and gained wide recognition. This theory is “reflecting a concern for not only pattern but also randomness and complexity in systems, chaos
theory is evident in mathematics, biology, and physics, as well as astronomy, business, political theory, and other disciplines”. (Klein, 1990: 33)

Such discoveries as those outlined tell the interdisciplinary researcher that our understandings of the world are not necessarily best represented by the categories already selected in the form of existing disciplines. This presents the researcher with an imperative to redefine categories according to the needs of the problem under investigation. This redefinition will often involve the use of borrowing across disciplines and acknowledges that all the methodologies that may be useful in solving a problem are not necessarily contained in one discipline.

It is also apparent that as researchers begin to explore problems with a multitude of variables such as those that occur in policy studies, the limitations of mono-disciplinary inquiry become increasingly obvious. This occurs to the point where some mono-disciplinary dependent studies of problems can lack any utility. An example of such an inadequate investigation would involve a disciplinary study by an economist on the effects of government monetary policy on the poor. Such a study could only be meaningful in the real world if cross-disciplinary paradigms and methodologies are used, as human dimensions cannot be adequately defined in monetary terms. Interdisciplinarity is therefore used “to answer complex questions; to address broad issues; to explore disciplinary and professional relationships; to solve problems beyond the scope of any one discipline; to achieve unity of knowledge, whether on a limited or grand scale”. (Klein, 1990:11)
Klein (1990) argues that the advent and development of specialisation in research created boundaries were based on particular human abstractions of the world. This specialisation progressed to a point where knowledge became increasingly particular. A reductionist philosophy moves the researcher further from real world issues and the synthesis of knowledge becomes an increasingly difficult task. This fragmentation of knowledge affects its utility to solve and understand real-world problems. Given that knowledge is not linear and cannot be conceptualised adequately in a disciplinary form, Klein (1990:22) argues that, “the modern concept of interdisciplinarity is centred on this problem of knowledge”. She further states that modern interdisciplinarity addresses this fundamental problem;

1. by attempts to retain and, in many cases, reinstall historical ideas of unity and synthesis;

2. by the emergence of organised programs in research and education;

3. by the broadening of traditional disciplines;

4. by the emergence of identifiable interdisciplinary movements. (Klein, 1990:22-23)
The goal of such interdisciplinary agendas is to address problems larger in scope than individual disciplines can effectively analyse. This allows problems to be treated in a more effective and utilitarian manner. The correlations and connections among different areas of investigation therefore become central to solving broader concerns.

Borrowing the tools necessary to conduct research such as surveys, questionnaires, interviews and direct observations has become vital to the methodological repertoire of the interdisciplinary researcher. Although interdisciplinarity has been described as a practical approach to dealing with everyday problems, theoretical frameworks are necessary to provide this form of research with credibility. Klein (1990:52) states that there is “...multitudinous borrowing of tools, methods, concepts, theories, and paradigms that are being used across disciplines”. However there is little guidance to indicate how such a process can be validated or used in a systematic manner.

The methodologies associated with borrowing are not well developed and the reasons for this perhaps lie in the fact that interdisciplinary studies involve convergence. The convergence of methodologies and paradigms involves not only the addition of ideas and increasing their importance, but also the removal of other ideas and a reduction of their perceived value. Because of this fact there is competition for the attention given to methodologies and paradigms in the intellectual discourse. Given that individuals within disciplines have strong interests in promoting the predominance of their paradigms and tools, conflict is sure to arise when such paradigms are discarded or given less importance. For the professional “...there is a general disinclination to place
individual activities within a larger conceptual framework or wider body of knowledge". (Klein, 1990:13) The interdisciplinary researcher must have the capacity to give other paradigms kudos and to acknowledge that their own disciplinary resources may provide only a small piece of the puzzle. Complicating this are the politics and power struggles of vested interests intent on maintaining the status quo. Despite the attempts to maintain the integrity of disciplines, there remains the "...inexorable logic that real problems of society do not come in discipline-shaped blocks". (Roy in Klein: 1990:35)

While there is criticism of the ability of disciplines to deal with real world issues it must be remembered that, "...disciplines are the fundamental tool for interdisciplinary work...". (Klein, 1990:106) It is also true that there is criticism of interdisciplinarity. De Mey (in Betchtel, 1986:3) states, “for practical problems it is considered valid and unavoidable but for theoretical purposes in science, interdisciplinarity is handled with great caution and even with suspicion”. The goal of interdisciplinary methodology is to create a coherent framework for the diversity of research method and knowledge. Therefore, it is not appropriate for an interdisciplinary approach to discard or devalue its own resources in the form of disciplines.

The issue of interdisciplinarity raises a concern regarding the use of methods and concepts across disciplinary boundaries. The term ‘borrowing’ can be used to describe such use.
The Nature of Borrowing

Klein (1990:93) examines the metaphorical nature of borrowing: “Metaphors may be didactic or illustrative devices, models, paradigms, or root images that generate new models. Some metaphors are heuristic, whereas others constitute new meaning...”. She argues that borrowing may alert scholars to areas of inquiry not normally considered within a particular discipline. Borrowing may lead to interpretations, insights and explanations of problems within frameworks and models not held within disciplinary boundaries.

Borrowing clearly has several important functions including assisting with incomplete paradigms, probing to facilitate the production of new understandings or in the provision of “...observational categories and meanings, juxtaposing the familiar with the unfamiliar while exposing similarities and differences...”. (Klein, 1990:93) Steiner (in Klein, 1990:93) describes borrowing as a translation and clarification of one discipline to another. Borrowing is described as:

... a fourfold act of the elucidation and transfer of meaning. It begins with an initiative trust. All understanding is an act of trust that derives from phenomenological assumptions about the coherence of the world, meaning in semantic systems, and the
validity of analogy and parallel. Trust is followed by aggression, by an *incursive* and *extractive* act that suggests comprehension is the appropriation of another entity: 'The translator invades, extracts, and brings home'. The third act is *incorporative*, as the newly acquired, imported meaning or form is assimilated and placed, an act that may result in the dislocation or relocation of the original... The fourth stage of translation is one of *comprehension*, of exchange and restored parity. (Klein, 1990, pp. 93-94)

Klein (1990:94) points out that there are no standards of quality associated with borrowing, "...Schneider's criteria for excellence in interdisciplinary research are highly appropriate". Three criteria are proposed which include,

...disciplinary clarity, the clarity of cross-disciplinary communications and the utilization and combination of existing knowledge to help solve a problem or to raise or advance knowledge about a new issue. Ultimately, then, the quality of borrowing depends upon the quality of both disciplinary and interdisciplinary communication, on a fuller reciprocity of "text" and translator. (Klein, 1990:94)
Borrowing then can be considered to have great value in creating a bridge between and within disciplines and thereby assisting with "...the comprehension of existing knowledge and the creation of new knowledge". (Klein, 1990: 94)

In summary, borrowing rests on four assumptions. Firstly, there is an assumption that the borrowed material will be useful; that it will provide new insights that would otherwise not be apparent to the researcher. Secondly, there is an assumption that a borrower has a purpose in mind, that the borrowed material will be put to a specified use. Therefore it is a necessity that the researcher must understand how the borrowed material can and cannot be applied. Thirdly, a clear assumption exists in borrowing that what is being borrowed is better than what is available; that is, the borrower is seeking tools that are not readily available, to apply them to problems which have not been adequately investigated, or are beyond the scope of a discipline. Tools are therefore applied in a new and unique way. Fourthly, borrowing has the connotation that the researcher takes and returns, however, the borrowed material can become integrated into a new field in which it was found to be useful. Borrowing is a characteristic of interdisciplinarity and its application calls into question the existing structures of knowledge.

Reasons for Borrowing

Klein (1990) indicates that borrowing, or the transfer of knowledge from one discipline area to another, is far from a new phenomenon in research. Borrowing takes place for many reasons, however, it is evident that significant scientific discovery has
been the outcome of borrowing. The value of borrowing is that in importing a model, which has been extensively explored and analysed, there is a reduced need for the researcher to re-invent and this provides considerable savings in time and effort. The researcher can import models, which have been refined over decades, and then apply these models as tools which are not normally available to the researcher in their own particular discipline. Kinneavy (in Klein, 1990) indicates there are a number of reasons for borrowing. These reasons include assistance in structuring a relatively unstructured domain, simplifying a domain, completing a domain, explaining a domain, enabling a domain to get a complete picture of its own framework and to allow for experimentation where the domain does not permit it. In borrowing, the use of ‘upward modeling’ has been identified (Sheif and Sheif in Klein, 1990:86) in which models are imported from disciplines which are more prestigious than one’s own. “The more successful a theory in its ability to describe, explain, predict, and systematize, the more tempting it is to extend its validity outside its original boundaries”. (Klein: 1990:86) It has however been pointed out and there is a danger in that “…borrowers have been overwhelmed by what is being borrowed - thereby distracting them from issues in their own fields”. (Klein, 1990: 93)

Borrowing does not follow a particular pattern; it may be used for broader conceptual unity or for instrumental purposes. Borrowing may become a permanent addition to a discipline or be used for temporary and specific purposes. In some cases borrowing may be perceived as over extending the boundaries of credibility while: 
It is, for example, considered quite "natural" for political scientists to borrow concepts from sociologists and to imitate economic concepts in trying to understand political development, or for sociological concepts of modernization to be extended and applied to political analysis. (Klein, 1990:86)

Problems Associated with Borrowing

Klein (1990:13-14) states, "...there are common methodological and epistemological problems created by borrowing from other disciplines". These difficulties associated with borrowing need to be enunciated for the researcher who creates a methodology with borrowing as one of its tenets.

Problems associated with borrowing include the possibility that indiscriminate borrowing leads to the use of models that are not as empirically sound as they appear. Also, there is a view that disciplines need to explore their own directions rather than using borrowing as a lazy option and a quick fix. This needs to be considered when deciding to import paradigms from one discipline to another. Klein (1990) identifies six primary problems the borrower should be cognisant of. These indicators include the distortions and misunderstandings associated with borrowed material; the use of data, methods, concepts, and theories out of context; the use of borrowed material that is out of favour in its original context; and, the illusion of centrality about phenomena treated with caution or scepticism in their original disciplines. These can result in the
over-reliance on one particular theory or perspective and a tendency while borrowing to dismiss contradictory tests, evidence or explanation thereby making the borrowed material fit the problem.

In order to minimise the problem Klein (1990:88) indicates the borrower must assume the ‘burden of comprehension’. The responsibility of the borrower therefore extends to an understanding of the use of the material borrowed in its original setting. The borrower needs clearly to understand that in borrowing, the material borrowed might “...lose some of its original precision”. (Klein, 1990:91) The borrower needs to be aware of the extent to which this is likely to occur and make clear statements to this effect in subsequent research findings. In line with this view Klein (1990:92) states that, “adopting models just because they are useful is not sufficient. There must be more adequate justification and thorough understanding of both the logic and validity of the model in its original context”.

A Framework for Interdisciplinary Investigation

Betchel (1986:7-8) states that “the criteria scholars have proposed in their attempts to define the basic units of science fall into three major dimensions: (1) the objects of the study; (2) the cognitive activities involved; and (3) the social and institutional organization”. As has been discussed, each discipline contains several elements or information bases. The researcher has categorised these elements in four main ways: Paradigms, methodologies, knowledge base and terminology.
The first element, in this categorisation, is the paradigms evident within a discipline. This element is defined as containing the expression of the worldview of the discipline. It contains the information that describes actions in the world and epistemology of the discipline.

The second element is the methodology, which describes and justifies the process of discovery and accumulation of knowledge within the disciplinary boundaries. The methodology will guide the research by providing an accepted process.

The third element is the knowledge base and represents the acquired wisdom of the discipline. It tells the world what is true and what is not, relative to the discipline's worldview.

The fourth element is the terminology or technical language of the discipline. Terminology is the particularised language of the discipline, which allows a unique expression of and communication about a particular worldview.

The interdisciplinary process then seeks a synthesis of knowledge across disciplines as represented in figure 2.1.
Figure 2.1. Interdisciplinary synthesis of disciplines through borrowing
Hursh, Hass and Moore (in Klein, 1990:191) describe an interdisciplinary process which aims at synthesis and has two main steps. These steps are clarification and resolution.

Clarification is focused on the development of an understanding of the relevant concepts to the question under investigation. At the clarification stage the various across disciplinary concepts are brought together to construct a ‘composite meaning’ (Klein, 1990:192) of the concepts of relevance. The second step is termed resolution. When concepts are clarified in step one, the process of integrating concepts begins. The concepts of various disciplines are placed within the framework of the interdisciplinary study. They take their place alongside other concepts from other disciplines and are assessed for utility in terms of the problem under investigation. This process involves “…the temporary suspension of all known methods”. (Klein, 1990:192) Through this methodology the problem is stated in interdisciplinary terms.

Other steps can also be extracted from the model to increase its explanatory powers. These steps are operationalisation and data analysis. Operationalisation involves the restatement of the problem in generic terms and the application of suitable instruments. The final stage involves data analysis. At this point the synthesis is constructed and the conclusions are reached usually culminating in a report.
This provides the researcher with a four-step process of:

1. Clarification

2. Resolution

3. Operationalisation

4. Data Analysis.

The model, proposed by Hurch, Hass and Moore, provides a methodology for achieving the desired synthesis of the elements of disciplines into new and coherent methodologies, paradigms, knowledge bases with its own terminology or communication system.

Integrating the two steps of ‘clarification’ and ‘resolution’ into the model and adding the steps of ‘operationalisation’ and ‘data analysis’ yields the following model of an interdisciplinary methodology.
Figure 2.2 – Process for interdisciplinay study of a given problem (adapted from Klein, 1990:193)
Summary

At the first stage of research there is a problem to be stated and investigated. The first stage of the Hush, Hass and Moore model is ‘clarification’ where the researcher attempts to develop an understanding of the relevant concepts. Two processes occur. Firstly, extraction of salient concepts (A, fig 2.2) and assessment of relevant disciplines (B, fig 2.2) takes place. It is at this stage that relevant models are identified from the literature.

At the second stage, termed ‘resolution’, consideration is given to the perspectives of the relevant disciplines (C, fig 2.2). Information is organised and perspectives and conflicts are reconciled (D, fig 2.2). From this stage a new perspective on the problem emerges. The integration of knowledge results in a view of the data which involves consideration of not only its relevance but also its relatedness.

Stage three involves a process of the ‘operationalisation’ of the problem under investigation. The problem is restated in terms which are generic to the disciplines being considered. The question is thus framed in interdisciplinary terms. From this point further data collection takes place, which is focused on the problem under investigation. This data collection may take various forms such as a questionnaire or a focus group.
At stage four, 'data analysis', results are analysed and conclusions reached for presentation in a report format. In addition, the process, which culminates in the report, is evaluated.
"Plato... named the philosopher as the one who is capable of synthesizing knowledge". (Klein, 1990:19)

Literature reviews can be conducted at different levels of sophistication. The level of sophistication can be increased through the integration of literature review and interdisciplinary methodology.

As indicated:

Interdisciplinarity is neither a subject matter nor a body of content. It is a process for achieving an integrative synthesis, a process that usually begins with a problem, question, topic, or issue. Individuals must work to overcome problems created by differences in disciplinary language and worldview. Although there is no absolute linear progression, there are a number of different steps in the process. (Klein, 1990:188)

This interdisciplinary methodology is being integrated with the processes of literature reviews. There are a number of requirements that apply for both literature reviews and
interdisciplinary research. These requirements include the identification and sampling of appropriate material, reconciling the various paradigms of different sources of information and synthesis into a report. Therefore the literature review is conducted here by the application of interdisciplinary processes whereby the reviewer performs as an interdisciplinary team of one. Although the interdisciplinary process most often applies to a team effort "...they can also be adapted by individuals". (Klein, 1990:189)

When a literature review takes place the reviewer accesses sources within the literature which provide information. These sources can be considered as analogous to the expressed opinions and ideas of various interdisciplinary team members. In the initial stages each of these sources has its individual point of reference and exists within a defined set of paradigms and methodologies. Each of these sources uses particularised terminology to express various positions. The interdisciplinary process is a method of taking data from these various discipline-dependent literature sources and synthesising them into a set of cohesive and valid conclusions about the problem under investigation. This is how the pieces of the literature review are brought together. The use of borrowing is appropriate in that no other methodology was suitable for bringing disparate research findings together into a cohesive and justifiable set of conclusions. The researcher had no choice but to adopt this approach as the research topic of teacher involvement in policy decision-making could not be found in the literature as a cohesive knowledge base. The use of such borrowing was born out of the need to address the problem of how the various information sites contained in the literature fit
together, and how this ‘fitting together’ or synthesis could be justified in terms of a methodology. This methodology manifests as a step-by-step process with an end result in the form of a literature report.

**Synthesising Specific Activities and Understandings**

The synthesis of elements of the literature review into stages of interdisciplinary research (Table 2.2, p. 104) requires a justification for particular categorisation. Defining the stages of ‘clarification’ and ‘resolution’ descriptively and placing the particular literature review activities according to ‘best fit’ achieve this. Thus a judgement is made about which activities occur at which stages and the limitations of this methodology are acknowledged by the researcher.

**Clarification**

Clarification may be described as a process which identifies information and which involves the reordering of information. Within the stage of clarification the task may be the ‘extraction of salient concepts and utilisation of skills’ (type A activities) (Table 2.2) or the ‘assessment of relevant disciplines’ (type B activities) (Table 2.2). Each of these aspects of the literature review can be defined at three levels. These are the conceptualisation level, the taxonomy level and the process level.
Clarification is part of the interdisciplinary research methodology and relates primarily to the identification and understanding of key concepts. Activities at the clarification stage generally occur during the early stages of the research effort. Any activity which can be characterised as an identification activity, or relates specifically to the understanding of key concepts within their own contexts or disciplines, can be classified as a clarification activity. At the clarification stage the emphasis is on identification rather than reorganisation.

Clarification is step one of the research methodology. The literature review methodology derived from the 'conceptualisation' of a review includes the listing of material and the search, involving the sourcing of material. Through this process the researcher develops an awareness of the existing literature. The 'taxonomy' analysis of literature reviews gives the researcher guidance as to the focus of the review or the nature of the problem under investigation whether it be theoretical or practical. The taxonomy also provides the goals of either integration or criticism. The 'process' of the review involves the topic selection, the general search, ensuring coverage, defining the critical literature, the use of validation techniques (consensual and/or gatekeeper) and serendipity that occurs throughout each stage of research. The process results in a product in the form of the literature review report.

At the clarification stage each of the processes described can occur concurrently or separately. This will depend on the needs of the research question. When applied to a
literature review, initially the researcher needs to conceptualise the review using available methodologies.

Bruce (1994) refers to ‘conceptualisation’ as an expression of the various ways in which the researcher may experience a literature review. Each progressive step within the Bruce model represents an increasingly sophisticated understanding of the literature by the reviewer. In the clarification stage of research, the researcher can regard the literature review as a list of the potential information sources. Subsequently, as the level of sophistication increases, a more specific search in which the reviewer selects material from the list will contribute to answering the research question. Conceptualisation is not only a cognitive exercise which leads to justification, but also part of the process which assists in systematising practical steps in the research process.

At the ‘conceptualisation’ level of the literature review the list (A) involves the identification of material prior to analysis and therefore the listing of material occurs at the clarification stage. There is no restructuring of material. At this level potential material is simply identified. The search (A) involves finding useful information about the topic. The material is not restructured in any way, merely identified; this represents a clarification activity.

The ‘taxonomy’ or categorisation of a literature review outlines a literature review’s characteristics. This allows for the identification of different literature reviews for
different purposes. Cooper (1984) identifies six elements in his taxonomy. The elements applicable at the clarification stage are focus and goals. For the purpose of justification it is important that different types of literature reviews are identified and further to this an understanding reached that they serve a variety of purposes. The taxonomy of the literature review can thus be presented so that the reader can determine if suitable literature review types were applied to the problem at hand. Just as a researcher has a responsibility to apply appropriate statistical tests in quantitative research the qualitative researcher has a responsibility to justify actions leading to the drawing of conclusions from qualitative data sources.

At the ‘taxonomy’ level of the literature review the focus (B) relates to the material of central concern and the direction of the research. The focus can change as research occurs, however it is broadly defined at the outset. The focus does not involve a process of restructuring knowledge but rather determines a broad area to be explored; it is therefore a clarification activity. The goals (B) of the literature review reflect what the researcher hopes to achieve. At this stage the nature of the content is not of primary consideration therefore this is a clarification stage understanding.

The ‘process’ of conducting a literature review is described by Helmericks et al (1991) with the addition of the material provided by Cooper (1984, 1988) and Bruce (1994). As implied by the term ‘process’, a series of activities occur which lead to a product. In this case the product manifests as a literature report that is derived from material gained from disparate sources not easily synthesised using available methodologies.
Scattered throughout the literature, across different disciplines and making use of different paradigms, methodologies and terminology, exist research findings that hold keys to answering various research questions. Many of these research questions are not easily explored within existing paradigms and methodologies or if they are explored, the research questions, methodologies and to a certain extent the findings, are predetermined by the nature of available methodologies, disciplinary resources and conventions. The process adopted attempts to provide a greater emphasis on tailoring the research method to the needs of the problems posed.

At the ‘process’ level of the literature review, topic selection (A) occurs. Topic selection is a statement of intent to explore a particular area and is a clarification activity, as content is not restructured. The general search (B) explores broad areas; there is no attempt to select specific material for emphasis or to restructure the material therefore this is a clarification activity. Ensuring coverage (B) involves a process of determining whether the material sampled is representative. This is a clarification activity as material is not manipulated in any way. Defining critical literature (B) is also a clarification activity in that material is simply labeled as useful or central to the research rather than being restructured. Validation technique (A) determines whether material can be considered to be sound or well grounded. This is often determined by the peer review of methodology. Validation is a clarification activity, as knowledge is not restructured. It is, however, judged. Serendipity or accidental discovery can occur at any stage of the research effort and can therefore be categorised at both the clarification and resolution stages of the literature review.
Resolution

Resolution activities generally occur later in the research effort. They involve the consideration of disciplinary perspectives, the organisation of information and the synthesis of conflict. The interdisciplinary perspective is considered at this stage. At the resolution stage activities occur that lead to the literature being reorganised or manipulated in some way. This distinguishes resolution from clarification. At the resolution stage of the literature review the task is a ‘consideration of disciplinary perspectives on salient concepts’ (type C activities), (Table 2.2) or the ‘creation of a metaperspective to organise information and synthesise conflict’ (type D activities), (Table 2.2).

Step two of this methodology is a stage at which perspectives are considered and information is reconciled and organised from an interdisciplinary perspective. ‘Conceptualisation’ of the literature review provides the survey where there is a more direct and interactive process between the reviewer and the literature. The focus is on finding the relevant material, considering the concepts discovered and working towards a new perspective. Also at the conceptual level literature reviews are a vehicle for learning, a research facilitator and a report. In interdisciplinary terms the new metaperspective is formed based on the learning which took place through the examination of disciplines. In terms of the ‘taxonomy’, the perspective is considered at this stage. The perspective in interdisciplinary research will usually involve neutral representation, which is necessary for interdisciplinary research. In addition, coverage,
organisation and audience are also considered. The ‘process’ which emerges at this stage includes a refining of the topic, conducting specific searches, defining the concepts, extracting concepts, categorising review, categorising concepts, synthesis and report as a product.

Bruce (1994) describes ‘conceptualisation’ as an expression of the ways in which the reviewer experiences the literature review. As progressive steps are taken, the level of understanding of the literature review by the reviewer increases in sophistication. In terms of the resolution stage of the research, the reviewer can regard the literature review as a search, a vehicle for learning, a research facilitator and a report. Each of the conceptualisations of the literature review operates at a different level of understanding of the literature by the reviewer.

At the ‘conceptualisation’ level of the literature review, the survey (C) represents the current knowledge in a field. Models and theories are examined and extracted. The extraction of paradigms from their disciplinary perspectives represents a resolution stage activity. This involves activities that lead to the reorganisation of information. As a vehicle for learning (C) the literature review affects the researcher’s perception of the problem under investigation, as such synthesis occurs and this represents a resolution activity. As a research facilitator (D) the literature review is viewed as directing and shaping the research effort. The nature of the research is constructed from this process.
and synthesis occurs. This is therefore a resolution activity. As a report the literature review has been synthesised in its final form; this is a resolution activity.

The 'taxonomy' is a categorisation of the literature review and outlines the review's primary characteristics. Cooper (1988) identifies six elements. Four elements are applicable to the resolution stage. These are perspective, coverage, organisation and audience. The taxonomy allows different types of literature reviews to be identified. This links specific types of reviews to specific purposes. At the 'taxonomy' level of the literature review the perspective (D) relates to the point of view of the researcher. This can be categorised under resolution as perspective relates to the researcher bias, which will affect the organisation of information. Coverage (C) relates to how the body of knowledge will be treated by the reviewer. The reviewer has choices to make regarding the type of coverage and this is an organisational activity and therefore can be described as resolution. Organisation (D) is a resolution activity as it relates to how the review is presented and what is excluded and included. Organisation is a synthesis activity. A consideration of audience (D) is a resolution activity in that the characteristics of the review will be determined by this factor. The material is shaped into particular forms for different groups; the literature is therefore altered in some way.

The 'process' of conducting a literature review is described by Helmericks et al (1991). Other informants such as Cooper (1984, 1988) and Bruce (1994) provide other elements of the process. The process identified in the methodology and clarification
sections of this thesis outlines activities leading to the production of a literature and research report and to the answering of the research questions. The process as indicated by Helmericks et al (1991) comprises four main stages. These are specifying the topic, the identification of potential research sites, the establishment of a sampling frame and the identification of key sites using validation techniques. To guide the researcher at each of these stages a set of activities occurs which work to accomplish these broad aims. Included amongst these activities are general searches, defining concepts, ensuring coverage, defining critical literature, validation techniques, categorising concepts and synthesis.

As a ‘process’ several activities occur at the resolution stage. The first of these involves refining the topic (C). This involves decisions about including and excluding material. In refining the topic a decision about the literature is made outside its original context. The specific search (C), like refining the topic, is an organisational activity imposed on the literature. Defining concepts (D) is a resolution activity as definitions are reconciled from an interdisciplinary perspective. The extraction of concepts (C) occurs in order to select particular concepts from across the literature. This necessitates the reordering of knowledge and therefore resolution. Categorising concepts involves reordering existing knowledge from a different perspective which is a resolution activity. Synthesis (D) is a resolution activity in which different perspectives are reconciled. This reorders knowledge and is a resolution activity. Finally the report as a product (D) emerges from the review. This is the culmination of the reordering process and is thus a resolution activity. As indicated, serendipity (A,B,C,D) occurs at all
stages of the research effort. Table 2.2 provides a representation of the outcomes of the ‘best fit’ procedure applied to activities and understandings placed at the clarification and resolution stages.
Table 2.2 Categorizing literature review stages from an interdisciplinary perspective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interdisciplinary Elements</th>
<th>Literature Review Elements</th>
<th>Clarification (Identification of concepts in context)</th>
<th>Resolution (Reordering concepts)</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Extraction of Salient Concepts and Utilisation of Skills</td>
<td>Consideration of Disciplinary Perspective on Salient Concepts</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Assessment of Relevant Disciplines</td>
<td>Creation of Metaperspective to Organise Information and Synthesise Conflict</td>
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<td>Conceptualization</td>
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Chapter Two – Methodology
Further Stages of Research

In addition to the literature review methodology there are two further steps being applied in this research effort (Table 2.3). These stages will be analysed in greater detail later in the thesis. These stages are,

- Operationalisation and
- Data Analysis.

Operationalisation

Step three involves operationalisation. The problem is stated in generic terms and data collection occurs with reference to these terms. Data collection may be achieved through a variety of qualitative research methods. These include a survey, a questionnaire or a focus group. In this research focus groups were conducted.

Data Analysis

Step four is data analysis and involves the drawing of conclusions on the basis of the information gained at all the previous stages of research and the preparation of the research report. It also includes an evaluation of the method employed.
The four-step process uses borrowing to construct a methodology from the state of the art knowledge on literature review and interdisciplinary research methods (Table 2.3).

The understandings gained at the clarification and resolution stage were used to construct instruments at the operationalisation stage to follow.

Table 2.3 A two-stage methodology

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Chapter Two — Methodology

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Conclusions

The literature could be characterised as having many ‘voices’. Some of the voices are loud and insistent while others appear unremarkable. The attention paid to different voices within the literature is largely dependent on the perspective of the researcher. The range of literature available therefore does not have equal importance or validity to different researchers. In this circumstance much subjectivity is apparent in the selection of literature to support or refute research hypotheses. The application of a methodology to the analysis of literature works towards improving objective assessments of the material encountered in the literature. The researcher examining the literature detects themes and the relevant literature is identified. Incrementally the ‘facts’ emerge as the methodology separates specific knowledge. At the end of a research process coherent, justifiable statements about the world emerge. The mechanism for achieving this enlightenment is research methodology. Research methodology takes the ‘voices’, which are the opinions, themes, models and theories published in the literature and evident in expert knowledge, and provides order and rationality. Research allows the acquisition of knowledge to be conducted in an orderly manner. This allows progress to be made on solving problems and results in experiences of the world in new and unique ways.

The methodology proposed works to change the nature of research questions that can be asked. Research questions, to a certain extent, are formed in light of their
compatibility with available methodologies. In conducting this research it quickly became apparent that the fundamental research question, 'Should teachers be involved in the policy process?' could not be directly answered because the appropriate methodology did not exist. There was no identified or cohesive body of research on the topic to explore. There was therefore no way of answering questions directly, as answers had to be derived from a variety of literature sources from across disciplines.

The integration of literature review and interdisciplinary methodology therefore allows questions to be asked which are beyond traditional disciplinary boundaries. It provides a way of determining and synthesising the most important knowledge. It also has an advantage in achieving this relatively quickly, which suits the restricted time frames often evident in policy-related research. The questions asked are often those that are significant in the real world; they are the types of questions many researchers most want to ask.

In order not to break the flow of this thesis a case study presenting content derived from this methodology is presented in detail in Appendix A.

Prior to the presentation of the literature review, which was the product of this methodology (Chapter 3), one other methodological consideration is addressed here. This involves the use of the Focus Group methodology applied within this research.
Section Four - Focus Group Methodology

Group interviews or focus groups are "among the most widely used research tools in social science." (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990:9)

Throughout the conduct of this research concerning the teacher's role in the policy decision-making process, it became evident that at some point the opinions of teachers would be sought to support or refute the theoretical findings of the literature review. The methodology selected to achieve this purpose involved use of the well-established focus group technique.

Focus group research originated in the 1940s when the technique was used to analyse the response of audiences to mass media advertising and propaganda. In 1946, Merton and Kendall outlined the methodology (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). Since this time the technique has been widely adapted in line with the differing needs of various disciplines and their lines of inquiry. It has been adapted and applied in a wide variety of settings. Fontana and Frey (in Denzin, 1994:364) indicate that, "...this format has been used to a considerable extent by political parties and candidates who are
interested in voter reaction to issues and policies”. The technique has become particularly important in relation to public policy.

Focus group methodology can be distinguished from other interview-based approaches. Focus groups are usually conducted with a small number of participants from whom responses are elicited. As the name implies the group responses are focused and restricted to a number of predetermined issues. It is argued “one of the strengths of focus group research is that it may be adapted to provide the most desirable level of focus and structure”. (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990:11) The focus group technique most often aims to collect qualitative data for analysis.

The use of focus groups must be consistent with the aims and purpose of the research being conducted. They can be useful at any point in a research effort and are considered to be of particular relevance in “…exploring research where relatively little is known about the phenomena of interest”. (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990:12) Focus groups can therefore be used flexibly to both explore concepts but also to confirm ideas. This use is particularly relevant in the current research effort.

**Advantages and Disadvantages of Focus Groups**

Focus groups, as with other research tools, have a number of advantages and disadvantages as outlined in the literature (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990; Morgan, 1988).
Advantages of focus groups

- They provide data from people quickly at less cost than individual interviews.
- Researchers can interact directly with respondents and responses can be clarified, with follow up questions asked. Non-verbal cues can also be observed.
- A large amount of rich data is collected in the words of the sample group. It is possible to explore deeper levels of meaning.
- Respondents can build upon the responses of others. This synergistic effect can produce results not obtained from individual interviews.
- Groups are flexible in terms of topics, variety of individuals and variety of settings.
- It is possible to obtain data from non-literate groups.
- Results are often easy to understand if taken at face value and most often no complicated statistics are employed.

Disadvantages of focus groups

- There is limited generalisation with a small number of respondents. The participants willing to take part may be different from those who are not.
• Interaction presents two undesirable effects. Firstly, responses are not independent and this limits generalisation and some group members may dominate and bias results.

• The research may place greater faith in findings due to personal contact with group members.

• The summarisation and interpretation of results can be difficult.

• The moderator may bias, knowingly or unknowingly, by providing cues to desirable responses.

Focus Group Process

Focus groups require the application of systematic approaches. The approach used in this study involved a six stage process which has been modified from the eight stage model proposed by Stewart and Shamdasani (1990:20). The stages include:

• Problem Definition.

• Identification of Sampling Frame.

• Identification of Moderator.

• Developing the Interview Guide.

• Conducting the Group.

• Analysis and Interpretation of Data / Writing the Report.

Problem Definition

The problem definition occurred early in the research effort. These questions were:
• Should teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?
• Could teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?
• Would teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?

These questions were translated into questions which were more likely to elicit responses from a focus group. These formed the interview guide and focus group questions (Appendix B). In addition to the initial research questions it was decided to introduce the ‘policy curriculum’ through a summary (Appendix C). The focus group was invited to comment on the usefulness of the curriculum outlined. The scope of the empirical study including the size and number of focus groups conducted were limited in order to maintain the Thesis within the confines of the course requirements (representing fifty percent of the overall requirements for the degree). The Focus Group results are intended as an exploratory study, and as a pointer for further researchers, who could analyse the issues raised in greater depth. The publication of the full transcripts of the focus groups (Appendices D and E) is aimed at assisting further exploration of the issues raised.

**Identification of Sampling Frame**

The sampling frame comprised those individuals selected who are representative of the population under investigation. "The sampling frame is the operational definition
of the population”. (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990:18) Establishing the sampling frame is critical as the results obtained are required for generalised findings about the population under investigation. Findings cannot be generalised beyond this population. The ‘convenience sample’ is the most common method of selection. To assist this process there was a need to define the nature of this group before selection. The process of selection involved some qualifying criteria. The sampling frame was “systematically selected” (Morgan, 1988:45) through the establishment of qualifying criteria. This criterion was that the participants were teachers employed by the NSW DET. The participants did not however represent the NSW DET; they participated in a private capacity. The participants were all qualified primary or secondary school teachers working in government schools including those holding specialist teaching positions. Participants for the focus groups were sought through limited publicity and personal requests by the researcher. Focus groups were formed from those who volunteered to participate. The researcher knew all participants in a professional capacity. Two focus groups were conducted. For each of the focus groups eight participants were selected and invited to participate. For the first focus group seven participants responded. For the second focus group five participants responded. Morgan (1988:43) indicates that “the usual conclusion is to use ‘moderate sized’ groups, which is somewhere between 6 and 10…” although this is not prescriptive. Of the 12 focus group participants 9 were practicing classroom teachers, two were specialist teachers working with students with learning difficulties and one was involved in student counselling.
Identification of Moderator

Scott (1978 in Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990:35) indicates that “moderators have the difficult task of dealing with dynamics that constantly evolve during a focus group discussion”. Daft and Steers (1986 in Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990) have identified a number of leadership styles including, supportive, directive, participative, achievement oriented. However the requirements of the group need to be considered and a leadership style adapted and employed depending on the circumstances presented. The moderator needs to prepare carefully. Such a preparation includes an understanding of questioning strategies. Examples of questioning strategies include addressing the main research questions, leading questions, testing questions, steering questions, obtuse questions, factual questions, feel questions and using silence by waiting for responses instead of talking before they are forthcoming (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). In this research the researcher moderated the focus groups.

Developing the Interview Guide

Given that the focus group is not a free-ranging discussion, a guide is essential in ensuring that desired data are obtained. The interview guide represents the agenda for discussion which is obtained from the articulation of the research questions. Questions are generally ordered from the general to the specific, however, this is usually compromised by the need to consider the most critical questions first. In the interview
guide, questions which elicit free-ranging responses are considered more important. Questions which elicit yes or no responses do not provide a rich data source. It is also important that the complexity of questions' asked is appropriate for the group selected. The interview guide should be pre-tested in an experimental setting (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990 and Morgan, 1988).

The interview guide was constructed by the researcher with reference to the literature available on teacher involvement in the policy process. The interview guide was pre-tested through analysis by the research supervisor and two members of the target group prior to application (Appendix B).

**Conducting the Focus Group**

The two focus groups were conducted on the basis of the interview guides (Appendix B). The focus group participants were seated in a circular arrangement to allow for the easy exchange of views. The moderator proceeded according to the interview guide and the focus group responses were recorded as data on audiotape. Each session was of approximately of one hour's duration.

**Analysing Focus Group Data / Writing the Report**

"The analysis of focus group data can be as rigorous as that generated by any other method". (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990:102) There is no one best approach to data analysis. The analysis of data is largely determined by the research questions and the purpose for which the data was collected. " The two basic approaches to analyzing
focus group data are, a strictly qualitative or ethnographic summary and systematic coding via content analysis". (Morgan, 1988:64) To analyse a topic about which little is known, a ‘descriptive narrative’ is appropriate (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). The ethnographic approaches tend to rely more heavily on the use of quotations from the group responses (Morgan, 1988).

An important aspect of data analysis includes determining how much analysis is required. The extent of analysis will depend on the design and purpose of research. The purpose of the focus group methodology in this research was to confirm the literature review findings in respect of the research questions about which little was known. In analysing a topic about which little is known the ‘descriptive narrative’ was selected. In addition a ‘cut and paste’ technique was also applied to produce the narrative report. The following method was used.

- The focus group audiotaped data were transcribed with a minimum of editing.
- The ‘content’ was defined in terms of each of the three primary research questions and responses to the policy curriculum questions.
- Responses were ‘cut and pasted’ into the content areas corresponding to the research questions.
- The descriptive narrative in the form of a written report was constructed on the basis of this process.
CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter gathers and synthesises accumulated works on the research topic and seeks to answer the research questions from the perspective of the literature.

- Should teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?
- Could teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?
- Would teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW?

The methodology for this synthesis has been discussed in detail in Chapter Two, its application, leading to this chapter, is outlined in Appendix A.
The literature review highlights and examines selected literature in a conceptual form (Cooper, 1986). The literature review emphasises two specific bodies of knowledge. The first is the policy process and related concepts from a selected ‘body of policy knowledge’ (Fasano, 1994). This body of knowledge serves to guide the selection and analysis of the literature on the topic under investigation. The second body of knowledge concerns the role of education within the context of the state (Torres, 1996; Popkowitz, 1991; Foucault, 1980). This analysis is achieved with reference to the highlighted policy knowledge and is based on the premise that a meaningful analysis of education policy should occur within the framework of the state. This framework will be outlined within this chapter. This analysis pays special attention to the forces, mechanisms and historical perspectives that come to light throughout the course of the investigation.

The Policy Process and Related Concepts

Introduction

In order to explore the policy landscape a number of ‘conceptual tools’ were selected. These tools were evident in an existing body of policy knowledge (Fasano, 1994). The tools are represented in the ‘definitions of policy’, the ‘policy process’ and the ‘policy space’.

Chapter Three – Literature Review
Definitions of policy

An understanding of policy from different viewpoints provides a contextual reference. This is necessary as the different uses of the term 'policy' both within the field of policy studies and in everyday use can present an obstacle to clear analysis. Therefore, for policy to be understood, meanings need to be clarified. Hogwood and Gunn (1983:23-24) define public policy as a "...series of patterns and related decisions to which many circumstances and personal, group and organizational influences have contributed". Hogwood and Gunn, (1984) outline a number of different meanings of policy. These authors indicate that policy can be a 'field of activity', an 'expression of general purpose', a 'decision of government', a 'specific proposal', a 'program', an 'output' or 'outcome', a 'theory or model' and a 'process'.

Other authors such as Guba (1984:64) provide different emphasis when explaining policy. Policy can be considered to be 'an assertion of intention or goals', the 'accumulated standing decision of a governing body', a 'guide to discretionary action', a 'strategy', a 'sanctioned behaviour', a 'norm of conduct' and the 'output of the policy-making system'. Dye (1987:324) highlights the importance of action and inaction in terms of public policy. More specifically, Winder (1991:4) defines education policy as "...indirect reflections of the views, or philosophies, of the political party or parties now forming the government, particularly at the level of managerial and financial control over the education institutions". Policies may be developed at national, state or regional level. They may be the result of the interactions of many...
people and organizations and as such they can; reflect the views of minority groups or past governments, be the direct outcome of election platforms, be a personal expression by an individual in power, be developed from a bureaucracy and reflect media interest and involvement (Winder, 1991).

In many definitions policy is regarded as more than a decision. Hogwood and Gunn (1984) draw an important distinction between a policy and a decision in terms of the complexity of the process and the extended time frame over which policy-making occurs. Each of the definitions of policy presented thus far can be valid in different contexts of analysis. In education different policy can be viewed from any or a number of these perspectives. The final definition of policy presented by Hogwood and Gunn (1984) conceives policy as a ‘process’. This recognises that a series of events occur which produce policy and highlights the dynamic nature of policy-making. This definition provides an avenue to explore and influence, rather than some others which tend to present a relatively closed decision-making view as is evident in the definition of policy as a ‘decision of government’. Policy analysis often starts with various understandings of policy. In exploring the more sophisticated conceptual views it is apparent that at some level processing occurs to form policy and it is therefore useful to examine policy as a process. This can allow researchers to develop deeper understandings of policy-related research questions.
Policy as a Process

The construction of policy is considered by many writers to be dynamic in nature. Rist emphasises that policy-making is a process; he states that policy "evolves through cycles, with each cycle more or less bounded, more or less constrained by time, funds, political support, and other events". (1994:546) Brewer and deLeon (1983:17) describe six phases of the policy process: 'initiation', 'estimation', 'selection', 'implementation', 'evaluation' and 'termination'. Hogwood and Gunn (1984:24) describe a nine-stage model. These stages are 'deciding to decide', 'deciding how to decide', 'issue definition', 'forecasting', 'setting objectives and priorities', 'options analysis', 'policy implementation', 'evaluation' and 'policy maintenance / succession or termination'. Dye (1987) describes a process model which includes the 'identification of policy problems', the 'formulation of policy proposals', the 'legitimization of policies through political action' and the 'evaluation of policies by governments'.

Nakamura (1987) argues that "the key concepts such as policy formulation, implementation and evaluation may have different meanings for different sets of actors using them". (in Brown, 1997:41) Nakamura (1987:145) further states that:

the 'textbook' description of the policy process is widespread, it is incorporated into the theoretical and practical world of policy in a variety
of ways, and the degree of coherence or sense of common enterprise it provides is overstated by the extent of diffusion of the words themselves.

Despite these cautionary remarks the concept of policy process does provide a useful framework for analysis by recognising the fundamental dimension of time in policy-making. The concept of policy process, while introducing greater complexity into policy analysis, also provides a more meaningful framework for analysis of policy-making. The framework proposed by Fasano (1994)1 consisting of the four stages of ‘formation’, ‘formulation’, ‘implementation’ and ‘evaluation’ will be used in this analysis.

The first stage of policy, ‘formation’, involves the exploration of a series of events that occur and give rise to a demand for policy. These events most often occur in the political arena. Exploring the formation stage would include an analysis of past policies, the established vested interest groups and stakeholders. The decisions made and power relationships are also considered. The events relevant to the policy may include the general historical perspectives, changing government priorities, evolving departmental structures, changing social values and beliefs, changing power of relevant stakeholders, domestic and international impact on education policy, philosophical issues, existing policies and existing power relationships through education department structures (Fasano, 1994).

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1 Fasano (1994) EDGA 960: course notes.
The second stage is ‘formulation’ where the nature of the consultative processes that occur is of interest. It is here that contributions made by various stakeholder groups and the nature of decision-making are explored and that governments act upon policy. Of particular interest at this stage are the actors in the policy space, be they individuals, groups or organisations, all relevant policies, the time frames operating, the size of relevant systems and / or boundaries and constraints. Additionally, at the formulation stage, the nature of the policy, the objectives and priorities of the policy and the transmission of the policy are identified and addressed. Perspectives on the allocation of influence, power and decision-making are considered (Fasano, 1994).

The third stage is termed ‘implementation’. Implementation approaches may be described in terms of structural approaches, procedural and managerial approaches, behavioural approaches and political approaches (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984). Structural approaches investigate organisational structures which may involve an analysis of the “...tasks and relationships and a hierarchical structure”. (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984:209) Comparisons are drawn in terms of adaptability of various organisational structures to successfully implement policy. Procedural and managerial approaches include an investigation of the procedures in terms of such activities as scheduling, planning and control which affect implementation. Behavioural approaches are concerned with human behaviour and attitudes that affect policy implementation. There is recognition of resistance to change, as an aspect of human behaviour, which must be considered in implementation analysis. Political approaches are fundamental
tools of analysis. Political approaches challenge the assumption of other views that conflict is an aberration that can be corrected in some manner. They consider aspects of power, allegiances, compromise and dominance in the political arena as fundamental aspects determining implementation (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984).

An integrated model is presented by Winter (1990) whose primary focus is on outcomes over a period of time. Comparisons are drawn between the behavioural objectives achieved as opposed to official policy goals. The comparisons also include the interests of the various actors in the implementation process and the extent to which these interests are met by the policy. The official policy goals are considered less important than the resolution of the social problem to which the policy was addressed. The integrated model recognises aspects of all policy-making stages including evaluation.

The fourth and final stage of Fasano’s model is ‘evaluation’. Evaluation is “…concerned with what happens once a policy has been put into effect…”. (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984:219) Policy-makers may consider establishing methods of evaluation prior to policy implementation. Often of concern to policy-makers is how results will be utilised. Policy objectives may be restructured in order to provide an acceptable public evaluation.
The Policy Space

A useful tool for exploring the policy process is evident in the concept of the policy space. The policy space has been characterised as an heuristic (Hogwood and Gunn, 1983) and is a flexible tool. The policy space is useful in guiding the thinking of the policy researcher and can be established and defined by the individual analysing the policy of concern. Fasano further developed an understanding of the policy space stating that:

[The] ...construct of the 'policy space' allows a systematic identification of the components, actors and factors inherent to the formulation of policy and its outcomes ... Simply put, the construct of 'policy space' is an heuristic providing guidance to the exploration of causal and correlational events undergirding a situation addressed by policy. Typically, the use of this construct entails the identification of the agents and agencies relevant to the policy in question, the nature, extent and purpose of decision-making activities engaged in by these agents, and the boundaries and constraints (e.g. resources, information, legislation, values, other policies) to possible action by all those concerned. (Fasano, 1993:31)

Brown (1997) indicates that the policy space heuristic can be applied at national, state and regional levels and can be used to "map out the conditions where a policy can be
successfully designed and implemented". (Brown, 1997:43) Fasano (1993) indicates that the construct can be applied across policies and research traditions and theoretical frameworks.

In practice, the policy space heuristic allowed the researcher to understand the complexity of the policy process, the interactions that had occurred and select the most appropriate theoretical framework that described the particular situation or orientation. (Fasano, in Brown, 1997:43)

Through the policy space heuristic elements such as the stakeholders, the content of policy, belief systems, values and the limits and constraints apparent in respect of policy can be identified. Fasano (1993) also places emphasis on the importance of time as an important dimension. In addition, multiple theoretical perspectives are considered by Fasano to be important criteria in the investigation of policy. The dimension of time can be explored through a relevant historical analysis. The elements available within the policy space applicable to aspects of education policy are effectively infinite and, as such, researchers use the policy space heuristic to select themes relevant to their research purpose. The relevant themes identified in this research emerge from the concept of education within the nation state.

The tools selected from the body of policy knowledge including the various definitions of policy, the policy process and the policy space guide the selection and the treatment
of the relevant literature on the topic under investigation. A most significant tool in this analysis is the 'policy space heuristic' which encompasses the treatment of the body of literature. Such tools are integral to all aspects of the research effort and in this research also provide a framework for the policy curriculum developed. An application of the 'policy space heuristic' and the literature review methodology identified the notion of 'the state' as a primary context of analysis.
A Theory Of The State

The State

Social theorists such as Torres (1996), Popkowitz (1991) and Foucault (1980) have argued that any theory or analysis of social mechanisms and forces must be embedded in a conceptualisation of the state. A theory of the state places education in a contextual and temporal reality. Without a theory of the state it is difficult to arrive at a substantive understanding of the forces, mechanisms and temporal factors that are at work shaping education policy. There is a need for the scrutiny of state affairs as its processing impacts on, influences and directs human activities within its boundaries.

The relationship between the state and education is critical to the knowledge base and hence the beliefs and directions of society. The forces at work shaping the nature of what society considers acceptable knowledge largely exist external to the education system itself. Therefore forces exist within and beyond the state's boundaries which shape education. An understanding of these forces within the state context is thus critical to a serious analysis of education in society.

The state provides a regulatory function by making use of laws and institutions. It has been defined by Rousseau “as the volonte' generale or 'general will'”. (Torres,
The state has a primary role in the protection of collective wishes. Webber's conceptualisation of the state refers to the administrative organisations and the mobilisation and monopoly of force (in Popkowitz, 1993), therefore "the state can be defined both in terms of the institutions which make it up and the functions these institutions perform". (Ham and Hill, 1984:23) Thus power and its use within the state is an important factor. One of the critical mechanisms through which power is exercised is the education process. As a result of this process citizens are prepared for their roles in society. The state can therefore control and regulate education to sustain itself.

The state is usually defined as the totality of the political authority in a given society... several key elements define institutionally and functionally the notion of the state. First, the state is a set of institutions manned by the state's own personnel or bureaucracy. These institutions vary from those responsible for law and order (and hence violence and coercion), including the courts, police, and the army, to those responsible for the symbolic and ideological functions, including institutions linked to social policy and education. State institutions are geographically located in a bounded territory (hence the notion of the nation state). The relationship between the civil society is located within the same boundaries as well: The state monopolises rule making within its territory. This tends towards the creation of a common political culture shared by all citizens'. (Hall and Ikenberry, 1989, pp.1-2)
The common political culture shared by inhabitants of a nation creates a social rationality (Torres, 1996). Those who are unwilling to adhere to this rationality are dealt with through the coercive mechanisms of the state. The transmission of this rationality in society occurs through the state's overt and covert coercive mechanisms (Hall and Ikenberry, 1989). Education is one such mechanism contributing to the state's process of rationalisation and acting as the vehicle through which language is shaped and hence the boundaries of knowledge are defined (Popkowitz, 1991). At a practical level the operations of education systems are planned and controlled by governments and their bureaucratic systems. Thus, "by implication, theories of the state define the nature, purpose, and role of educational research, policy, and practices". (Torres, 1996:263) The tensions apparent in education can be juxtaposed against the tensions apparent in the state. These tensions involve power, ideologies, and temporal relationships. The purpose and practice of education is often shaped and determined by broader global and national contexts. In seeking to understand education we must first seek to conceptualise the state in which education is embedded.

The state's function of overseeing and regulating education prepares individuals for citizenship. It also regulates and controls other areas of society such as health care, law and order and the economy. The priorities adopted by politicians may conflict with the professional educators' ideal educational provision in terms of resources and content. The competition for limited resources, within the national context, mobilises power and
state mechanisms over time to create social tensions (Torres, 1996). The state engineers social control mechanisms such as law and order, defence and legal systems for the benefit of members (see Arroni, Evans, Hall and Ikenberry, Held, 1983, 1991, in Torres, 1996).

The tensions apparent in education, as indicated, cannot be confined to national boundaries. In an eight-nation study of reforms in teacher education, Pereya and Popkowitz, (1993) argued that:

...international organizations, such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and the European community are playing crucial roles in promoting changes in regulations of teacher education ... The World Bank is seen as having a pivotal role in the network of power and decision making in education worldwide... (in Torres, 1996:299)

The World Bank with its financial power, exercises influence in “...defining and selecting the themes, variables, and dominant terminology in research on international developments in education”. (Torres, 1996:299) The themes of such organisations tend towards a technical and economic rationality in the policy process, rather than considerations of specific cultural context. The selection of themes by powerful international organisations in this way confers academic and public legitimacy on selected notions of theorising. Peraya (in Popkowitz, 1993) indicates that the Australian context is also influenced by these powerful organisations.

Chapter Three – Literature Review
There is a risk in attempting to analyse education separately from the concept of the state and its political context. Education cannot be depoliticised (Torres, 1996). The state acts as the framework for society in general and education in particular and therefore has a role as the framework of analysis for public policy.

In order to be useful, theories of the state must be able to be used to interpret a complex web of collective human behaviour. Three elements have been selected for analysis. The first of these are the forces operating within the state providing impetus for action. These forces involve the various notions of power and its use. They include overt and covert forms of power (Ham and Hill, 1994; Popkowitz, 1991; Torres, 1996). The second are the abstract and concrete mechanisms (Saunders, 1980; Hall and Ikenberry, 1989) of the state. Abstract mechanisms include ideologies that justify and support the application of concrete mechanisms. Concrete mechanisms include institutions such as the education system. The third are the temporal relationships, which bind notions of power and mechanisms into an unending pattern of change that is reflected in history (Fasano, 1993). The interpretation of this pattern of change is critical to any analysis.

The three elements of power or force, mechanisms and time or history were selected from the application of the literature review methodology. These elements were identified as having a direct influence on educational policy-making. They were therefore considered most useful in developing understandings that are to lead to
answers to the research questions posed. Each of these elements therefore requires detailed analysis.
Introduction

Power is central to the notion of the state in that it directs the ways in which individuals in society lead their lives in terms of thought and action. Foucault stated that:

If power were never anything but repressive, if it never did anything but to say no, do you really think one would be brought to obey it? What makes power hold good, what makes it accepted, is simply the fact that it doesn't only weigh on us as a force that says no, but that it traverses and produces things, it induces pleasure, forms knowledge, produces discourse. It needs to be considered as a productive network, which runs through the social body. (quoted in Ball, 1992:28)

“For Foucault, truth depends on strategies of power rather than epistemological criteria”. (Torres, 1996:301) Power is fundamental to all major issues in society including the distribution of resources, the dominant cultural trends and is the driving force acting on state mechanisms such as education. Issues of education cannot be divorced from conceptions of power as politics and pedagogy are tightly bound
(Torres, 1996) in power relationships. Given this, the relationships between power and education are central to educational analysis. As Torres (1996:280) contends, “a theory of the state which does not address the nature and distribution of power in society is seriously flawed”.

The distribution of power in contemporary society has been examined from a number of theoretical perspectives. These include the various specific conceptions of power, theories of the state and theories of decision-making. Dahl and colleagues such as Polsby (in Ham and Hill, 1984) have developed the theoretical approach known as pluralism, which argues that no group in society is without power and no group is dominant. Power is perceived to be widely distributed through society. In pluralist traditions the state is “...a political market place where what a group achieves depends on its resources and its 'decibel rating ’. (Ham and Hill, 1984:29) Writers such as Pareto, Mosca and Mills (in Ham and Hill, 1984) have argued that rather than a broad distribution of power, political power is held by a few elites. This contends that the accumulation of power is considered to be an “...inevitable feature of all societies”. (Ham and Hill, 1984:31) Thus, in terms of power, society creates a dichotomy; “-two classes of people appear -a class that rules and a class that is ruled”. (Mosca, in Ham and Hill, 1984:31)

Marxist theory emphasises power and contends that the state is not neutral but rather exists as an “instrument for class domination”. (Ham and Hill, 1984:35) Milibrand (in Ham and Hill, 1984) contends that a primary function of capitalist society is to assist in
the accumulation of wealth. Power is directed to maintain order within society to facilitate this end. This view is known as instrumentalism in that the state acts as an instrument that serves class interests. The mechanisms that facilitate the process include the coercive forces associated with law and order and the education system, which provides ideological legitimacy. In this model "state action will tend to support the existing economic order". (Ham and Hill, 1984:38)

The corporatist theory views the state in the role of key actor. Winkler (in Ham and Hill, 1984) sees the state as interventionist in the context of a capitalist society. Corporatism primarily relates to economic rather than social policy. Thus the state is perceived to not only support capitalist ideals but to direct these ideals (Ham and Hill, 1984). The state does this whilst maintaining relative autonomy through the control of legal systems and other state mechanisms.

In Dahl's view, power rested on an analysis of decision-making (in Ham and Hill, 1984). The nature of power as conceived by Dahl was explored through investigation of the extent to which ruling elite preferences were acted upon. Power could be exercised by coercing a group to make a choice other than their desired choice. In this conception power is fragmented across society. Bacharach and Baratz, (in Ham and Hill, 1984) introduced the concept of non-decision making. In this view debate on issues can be limited. This is described as the 'mobilisation of bias', where decision-making is confined to "safe issues". (Ham and Hill, 1984:67) Accordingly any analysis needs to consider not only what occurs but also what does not occur:
Bacharach and Baratz argue that a non-decision-making situation can be said to exist 'where dominant values, the accepted rules of the game, the existing power relations among groups, and the instruments of force, singly or in combination, effectively prevent certain grievances from developing into fully-fledged issues which call for decisions'. (Ham and Hill, 1984: 68)

In this analysis decision-making can be termed latent when, due to social mechanism, it does not enter the public consciousness or decision-making processes.

Power has also been explored theoretically in its own right. In 1974, Lukes extended the notion of power indicating that three dimensions of power were apparent (Ham and Hill, 1984). The first of these is where power is overt and observable and can thus be viewed in conflict. The second notion of power is characterised as covert where conflict exists over potential issues according to the Bacharach and Baratz (1962) model. Lukes adds the third and most subtle dimension of power. This is where power shapes preferences such that neither overt nor covert conflict exists. Thus a consensus does not indicate that power is not at work. Lukes (1974) states:

Is it not the supreme and most insidious exercise of power to prevent people, to whatever degree, from having grievances by shaping their perceptions, cognition and preferences in such a way that they accept
their role in the existing order of things, either because they can see or imagine no alternative to it, or because they see it as natural and unchangeable, or because they value it as divinely ordained and beneficial? (quoted in Ham and Hill, 1984:71)

By this logic the absence of conflict or grievance does not equate to genuine consensus. Luke's argument goes beyond non-decision-making by postulating that power could be used to prevent covert conflict.

Clegg (cited in Ham and Hill, 1984) argues that systems of power need to be examined to establish patterns of domination. Writers such as Lukes explore the notion that people's interests may be manipulated such that they are unaware that decisions made are not in their best interests. Dahl has indicated that:

a ruling elite might be so influential over ideas, attitudes, and opinions that a kind of false consensus will exist - not the phony consensus of terrorist totalitarian dictatorship but the manipulated and superficially self-imposed adherence to the norms and goals of the elite by broad sections of the community. (quoted in Ham and Hill, 1993:73)

Lukes argues that people's preferences are formed in the community context and that these preferences may not represent their real interests. The socialisation of the community towards certain preferences occurs through such mechanisms as education.
The most effective use of power appears to be where the dominant ideologies are devolved throughout society such that the exploration of preferences outside mainstream decision-making is prevented by a series of social sanctions. "As Paulo Freire has consistently claimed in his work there is an inherent 'politicity' of education". (Torres, 1996:263) Thus education is not a neutral force existing in isolation within the nation state. McLaren (1994) notes:

"Not only is it impossible to disinvest pedagogy of its relationship to politics, it is theoretically dishonest." This politicity relates foremost to the explicit but also the subtle linkages between education and power.

(quoted in Torres, 1996:263)

This view of politics and power cannot be considered uniform. Different cultural contexts, political systems and notions of the function of the school manifest themselves in the different uses of power and the decision-making processes that will be employed. Torres (1996:269) views the state as institutionalised power and argues that "...domination, exploitation, oppression, inequality and discrimination are an intrinsic part of state activities, reverberating in the constitution and exercise of state power". Thus the state is the manifestation of coercive force and power in society, regulating and enforcing regulations through mechanisms which ensure that the vast majority of individuals comply. "The state, then, appears as a contested terrain, as an arena of confrontation of political projects". (Torres, 1996:271) This contested terrain
results in difficulty in creating a coherent policy framework given that different groups are in conflict over different views on policy. The fact, that in the construction of policy some groups can be marginalised and their needs not met, can be justified when the generalised social interest is given priority over particular interests. Apple (1992) reinforces this view indicating that the state acts as a forum for compromise on issues of conflict that allows the state to continue within a set of boundaries. In the context of such conflict the state seeks to maintain stability (Ham and Hill, 1984) while attempting to build a consensus among citizens. Citizens will by and large abide by the decisions of the state, alternatively, they will seek to change policy through legitimate means; that is, those means defined as legitimate within the state. The state then uses education to define what is legitimate and to establish mechanisms for self-regulation across society, the purpose of which is to ensure that members of society 'play by the rules'. The state establishes and teaches these rules. Thus a primary function of school appears to be as a mechanism of social control where knowledge and power are linked to socialise citizens within desired cultural criteria.

In the education sector power is used to limit school autonomy. Popkowitz (1993) identifies two conceptualisations of power. The first is 'repressive' power and is associated with the concept of sovereignty. Distinctions are drawn between those who determine or have a say in policy development and those who are affected by the policies implemented. The first group have the power to ultimately "...define what is legitimate and reasonable for schooling". (Popkowitz, 1993:16) Laws, administrative rules and regulations emerge from the policy process to direct the way educators go
about their roles and determine the aims of their endeavours. The government has sovereignty over the educational enterprise and their agendas are largely economic. Thus, economic concerns often emerge as a driving force in educational change.

The second conceptualisation of power identified by Popkowitz relates to the “...effects of power as it circulates through institutionalized practices and individuals construct boundaries for themselves...”. (Popkowitz, 1993:16-17) As power affects individuals and society, what is socially accepted thought and behaviour is determined. In terms of teacher education reform, the second notion of power relates to the manipulation of knowledge:

The ways individuals understand and interpret the world act as mechanisms of self-discipline; knowledge constrains and produces options and possibilities. What is judged to be reasonable and good in teaching, or irrational and bad, what practices we feel good or guilty about, and what are considered normal and abnormal are, in this sense of power, regulatory. (Popkowitz, 1993:17)

In this sense power determines the nature of knowledge and also the “...definitions about what is possible to speak about, who is to speak, and what is to be suppressed”. (Popkowitz, 1993: 17) As a result of historical and cultural practices and current pressures, institutional practices emerge which define socially legitimate knowledge. This in turn is communicated through the education structure from the teacher training
institutions to the classroom. Teacher education thus becomes a mechanism through which power operates. Actors in the policy space seek to use pressure to point the teacher education process in the desired direction. The outcome of this pressure is reflected in the fact that, “…discussions about the relative competitiveness of one's country have become routine”. (Popkowitz, 1993: 30) In this way cultural patterns and traditions are altered to accommodate new global circumstances. This in turn is manifested in demands for changes in the way we prepare our teachers.

Chubb and Moe, (quoted in Torres, 1996:285) argue that political power is used to “…bury the schools in bureaucracy, deny them autonomy, and inhibit the emergence of effective organization”. This leads to more effective control of their activities. Further control is then established through a number of devices such as the development of administrative structures, quality control mechanisms and the emphasis on standardised testing.

Power or force in educational policy-making has thus far been highlighted from a theoretical perspective (Ham and Hill, 1984; Torres, 1996; Foucault, 1980; Popkowitz, 1991). The forces at work shaping many aspects of education policy are evident across the education literature. Examples of this power will be explored in terms of the external influences at work, which are beyond the bounds of education. In addition, the forces within education are also examined and the forces shaping teacher education are considered.
External forces in educational policy-making

House (1991) points out that in the 1960s and 1970s the ‘big policy issues’ of our society related to social conditions. Civil disorder played a significant role in the shaping of these macro policies. More recently in the 1980s and 1990s circumstances have changed and while civil protest and lobbying continue to play a role in shaping social policy, social policies are no longer macro policies. It is the view of House that the ‘little policies’ of education are by and large set by the big policy issues related to economics. Therefore while many policies were formerly based on social issues the public had a more significant role in the shaping of education policy through civil protest and lobbying. Such mechanisms are less effective when they are at odds with vested interests wielding economic power. In more recent times the big policy issues relate to economics at the national and state level. Education policy therefore has come under the increasing influence of economic forces (Dudley and Vidovich, 1995).

Education has been exploited in the political arena and has been seen as contributing to the economic problems of the nation (Heinecke and Stohl, 1998). It is perceived as contributing to society’s ills such as an uneducated workforce leading to unemployment and lawlessness (House, 1991). Despite this, however, economic factors can be seen as major determinants of the problems identified:
In the conservative analysis, inadequate education led to poor job skills, which led to unemployability and unemployment, which led to welfare, family dissolution, crime, and a declining national economy. The failure of education resulted in defective students who could not or did not want to work. Their failure was not the fault of society nor of the economic structure but of themselves, their families, and the educational system. (House, 1991:23)

If the education system was seen to have failed by conservatives then teachers are also due their share of criticism. However, the fact remains that while teachers are a large group involved in the implementation of education policy they have little input into policy development (Ball, 1993) and thus cannot be held responsible for the failure of defective policy decision-making. In the United States Clark and Astuto (in House, 1991) report that the social welfare orientation of schools with agendas such as equity and access were abandoned. In its place standards, excellence and performance were highlighted to address the economic need. The linking of schools to national decline resulted in the use of testing as a major component of school reform. In NSW this has been manifested in the Basic Skills Tests (BST) in the primary years to complement the long-established Higher School Certificate (HSC) examination.

In a political context responsibility for the ills of education has been placed on teachers who are regarded as having failed in their duty; “conservatives pointed to undisciplined students, teachers, and workers as a source of the problem”. (House, 1991:25) In parts
of the United States this has led to teacher testing programs and increasing external regulation. In NSW such measures have been tempered by the strong position of trade unions and their close link with the Australian Labor Party.

The presentation of such conservative ideologies however denies the complexity of the education process. Through the mechanisms of control, policy development can be linked with political opportunism. Political opportunism can then lead to the failure of central bureaucracies to successfully implement school reform as they divert energy from long-term planning to short-term political success and expediency. This failure of the reform process, House argues, is "...mostly because their reforms are detached from the substance of schooling". (House, 1991:25) Thus force manifests as a process that shapes preferences to view schools and teachers in a particular light, thereby discrediting notions of their input into the policy debate.

Internal forces in educational policy-making

Ball (1993) identifies three main internal forces at work in the formation of policy in education. These are termed the 'curriculum', the 'market' and 'management'. Ball examines what he identifies as the "overdetermined and over-regulated situation of schoolteachers' work and the matrix of power relations in which they are enmeshed". (1993:106) These power relations through the three forces identified help to shape and control the construction of policy and the nature of the policy process in education.
The first of these forces, the curriculum, has been used as a means of control of teachers’ activities. This occurs through the standardisation of classroom practice that is imposed by the education system. The curriculum acts as a vehicle for this control. Governments in NSW apply pressure through the major educational assessments. These assessments are the Higher School Certificate (HSC) at secondary level and the Basic Skills Test (BST) in the primary years. These assessments and the media and thus political interest generated affect “...the quality, character and content of classroom practice”. (Ball, 1993:107) There is a distinct absence of expression of views and opinions on these assessments from the professionals in their professional as opposed to their industrial capacity. Within a political climate the results of these assessments can be seen as indicating increasing or decreasing standards, depending on perspective. Ball indicates that within the context of the British education system, “...there is little discursive space in all this for anything except acquiescence or silent dissent ... it is not just a matter of what is said, but who is entitled to speak. The teacher is an absent presence in the discourses of education policy”. (Ball, 1993:108) The establishment of normative data leads to judgements of the success of particular schools or systems. The curriculum assessments used in this way is a direct form of control over the nature of teachers’ work.

It can be seen that the use of curriculum as a means of control goes hand in hand with market forces. The market approach brings with it a value change that can divert education from equity. Competitive market forces within education can determine education and educational quality. In this context those with the most political power
attract greater advantage. Marketing in NSW education occurs in the form of the need for income generation by schools in addition to the increasing need to advertise services as de-zoning, or school-choice policies take effect. However, the idea that schools can freely compete for enrolments is problematic in that it can be at odds with appropriate discourses on teaching, learning and the student welfare initiatives of schools:

The introduction of market forces into the relations between schools means that teachers are now working within a new value context in which image and the impression management are more important than the educational process, elements of control have been shifted from the producer (teachers) to the consumer (parents) ... In relations with parents, the use of performance indicators and tests places the achievements of students and the work of teachers in a new light ... In relations between schools, the key element of the market is competition. (Ball, 1993: 108-109)

In opening up schools to market forces, the danger is that schools may become responsive to such forces regardless of their impact on students. The fundamental nature of schools thus shifts from a student-centred approach to address such issues as competition and economic rationalism as Australia competes in a broader world economy.
The third internal force at work and vital to the success of school reform relates to management. Management within systems of education is a manifestation of the coercive powers of the state. The primary managers at the school level are Principals and District Superintendents who have a responsibility to support and implement, but not to comment on or make education policy. Within this context a dichotomy is created between teachers and management. Teachers have an orientation towards teaching and learning. Management however is oriented towards policy adherence, market forces and financial responsibility. The teacher is enmeshed in the political context where the curriculum, market forces and management merge into a system of control. Kickert (1991:26) points out that in such a circumstance, "...there is no regulated way of protest, complaint or formal appeal". In the United States context Brown (1971:38) indicates, "...any attack on the administrative structure, they argue, is an attack on the board’s (and hence the public’s) prerogative to specify the type of education for which they, as taxpayers, are paying". While teacher input may have a positive effect on the management of schools, such input can be characterised as a threat to the democratic control of public education. Ball (1993) indicates that through these methods of control the public management of education has supplanted traditional administration. Schools in society have been placed more firmly in the role of a mechanism of government.

Power in Teacher Education

Popkowitz (1993) indicates that reforms in teacher education have been central to the actions of the nation-state. He argues that teacher education reform is part of a larger
picture, embedded in the shifts occurring at the macro level in society, and responsive to the social reconstructions of the state. The social and political power at work shaping larger agendas permeates education and inevitably the construction of teacher education. Popkowitz (1993) contends that these power relations and patterns are not easily discernible if one just views the discourse on teacher education in isolation from broader forces. Attention is deflected from the "power that is exercised - and the interests that are served" (Popkowitz, 1993:vii) by a discourse which focuses on socioeconomic issues. These issues are frequently presented as value-free with bipartisan political support for general economic goals. Thus investigations of such patterns of power and vested interests can be interpreted as an attack on what has become the foundation of our society, the economy. In this way power and interests remains protected from immediate questioning.

Through the external and internal pressures operating, legislative action and economic power has been brought to bear on the content and presentation of teacher education. As a result specific patterns of power described by Popkowitz have developed to drive the teacher education agenda. Mann (in Popkowitz, 1993:2) describes this as "...multiple overlapping and intersecting sociospatial networks". The mosaic of policy on teacher education is made up of patterns of power and social regulation. The effects of changing patterns of power have resulted in changes\(^2\) in the way teacher education occurs by focussing curriculum as an aspect of economic reform. "Teacher education

\(^2\) Changes include an emphasis on training teachers in the 'hard sciences' including mathematics as opposed to the humanities.

Chapter Three – Literature Review
reforms thus articulate tensions and conflicts in the economic, demographic, cultural, and political organization of the state”. (Popkowitz, 1993:15) As issues such as gender equity, multiculturalism, Aboriginal education, youth unemployment, crime and economic forces impact on the nation, the social fabric is re-woven\(^3\) by the patterns of power and the mechanisms employed by the state over time. The changes are not simply added to the new structure, they form new realities and conditions in the nation, including the legislation which governs our actions. The result is that “teacher training defines and transmits the permissible boundaries to pedagogical practices through its sanctioning of styles of reasoning and acting”. (Popkowitz, 1993:15)

The effect of such complex reconstructions of society has been felt in “...ways of perceiving problems, solutions, and patterns by which progress and failure are to be judged”. (Popkowitz, 1993:32) Thus the demands to change the way we prepare teachers in pre-service training present us with an insight into how problems are perceived. In the conservative analysis teachers are perceived to be inadequately prepared and thus they need to be educated and controlled through political action such that this will not continue. In creating a conceptual framework that perceives problems in particular ways, strategies which emerge, will not necessarily be directed towards improving social circumstances.

\(^3\) Changes include greater emphasis and resources applied to Indigenous rights, gender equity and youth employment.
As teachers are influenced by broad national and international contexts, these factors may need to be addressed in the teacher education pedagogy. It may be necessary to juxtapose the international and domestic economic issues with the cultural traditions and local circumstances such that teachers have an understanding of the social construction that is taking place around them. It may also be important that the skills and knowledge necessary to potentially influence these constructions are facilitated. Popkowitz (1993:40-42) indicates in his eight nation study of teacher education reform that, “teacher education emerges as a central locus for educational change ... [and that] ... patterns of teacher education are central elements in the nexus of power and knowledge in schooling and in society”. Teacher education may therefore need to be refocused to prepare teachers to operate more effectively within a social and political context which has such a significant influence on the way they fulfil their roles.

**Conclusions on power**

The literature indicates that power is evident in all the aspects of educational policy-making identified. It is evident in the literature on external forces on policy-making that there has been a move from socially oriented themes to an emphasis on economic concerns. Within education the elements of the curriculum the market and management are expressions of power affecting the lives of teachers. This power reinforces the economic themes that dominate. Through these elements the day-to-day activities of teachers are influenced and directed. In terms of teacher education the power at work shapes the dominant ideologies and the subsequent knowledge base that is imparted to
teachers in their pre-service training. Teachers are then expected to translate such themes in the classroom. Teacher involvement in the policy decision-making processes in education is not an accepted part of existing power relationships.

Popkowitz (1991, 1993) indicates that "...discourses deploy power and, in education, usually affect the lives of teachers, most of whom are women". (in Torres, 1996:304) Torres argues that 'expert knowledge' should be used to generate discourses and hence has a role in the deployment of power. It is considered critical then to recognise and explore the linkages between education and its deployment as a mechanism of power in the state. These linkages guide what is deemed to be legitimate in society and schools (Popkowitz, 1993). The linkages can be determined in the current educational debates and in the rhetoric and the ideologies of governments. The control of power and the purpose to which it is applied in this context is of central concern to those exploring issues of education policy.
Mechanisms

The state’s coercive powers are directed towards the management of potential conflict in society. The state can be viewed as playing the central role of arbiter (Ham and Hill, 1984). This management is aided by the mechanisms of the state evident in the literature, which are categorised in two ways in this analysis. The first of these are the 'abstract mechanisms' (Saunders, 1980). Examples of abstract mechanisms include ideology and rhetoric, which act as justifications for the use of power. The second type of mechanism may be described as 'concrete' or functional (Hall and Ikenberry, 1989). These concrete mechanisms are largely the institutions within society such as the judiciary and education. In terms of the judiciary, the police force and the courts are responsible for the implementation of laws. In education it is schools and teachers who have this responsibility. Thus, those in power use concrete mechanisms and their use is justified through abstract mechanisms. The education system is a mechanism for use by the state to reinforce and perpetuate its continuation. Thus education is central to the functioning of the state and it is therefore essential to explore the nature of this relationship.
Abstract mechanisms

Abstract mechanisms of the state as used by government can be described in terms of ideologies, rhetoric, philosophy, values and beliefs. The state uses such mechanisms to justify decisions and subsequent actions. These are frequently expressed as policy. Saunders (in Ham and Hill, 1984:74) refers to 'ideological mechanisms', which shape people's interpretations of the world. These mechanisms are at work throughout a person's life, therefore the stated preferences of people are not necessarily in their best interests. It is postulated that the mechanisms, which contribute towards general social conditioning, may result from or be controlled by dominant groups in society. These groups protect themselves against the danger of random change by establishing cultural norms and values that are supported and defended by the whole of society.

A major vehicle for the transmission of ideology in our society is the mass media. All aspects of media transmission require choice. These choices are made on the basis of decisions taken by an elite minority. As Torres (1996:267) states, "the media report and form opinion but also circulate and construct views that are particular rather than universal". The ideology expressed through the media has been identified by Featherstone (in Torres,1996:267) as "...a consumer culture and life-style". These ideological agendas sometimes exist beyond the mainstream discourse, thus abstract mechanisms in this sense can be more powerful than direct coercion. It is difficult to
mobilise and respond to ideological manipulations that are not immediately obvious to large sections of the community. The ideological messages imparted by traditional conservative agenda include “...concepts of nation, family, duty, authority, standards, traditionalism, self-interest, competitive individualism, and antistatism”. (Torres, 1996:281) The conservative agenda argues against government intervention to correct social inequities. Market forces are said to be more efficient than bureaucratic structures at regulating the economy. In addition, “the argument is not merely economic but moral, as Milton Friedman let us know: ' Every act of government intervention...limits the area of individual freedom directly and threatens the preservation of freedom indirectly’”. (in Dahrendorf, 1975:5)

Within a conservative agenda any crisis in society is not only represented in economic terms but also on moral, social and ethical dimensions:

Neoconservatives see the liberals' contempt for authority, their disdain for cultural and historical traditions, and their reliance on 'big' government and welfare policies as the roots of the crisis evolving in America. (Torres, 1996:283)

Such policies are said to plant the “…seeds of moral and cultural bankruptcy...”. (Torres, 1996:283)
The use of state mechanisms to correct the imbalance in terms of social equity are said to be a negative influence in the neo-conservative agenda while liberal agendas would argue that these mechanisms are not used to an appropriate extent to address the inequitable distribution of resources.

The conservative agenda makes effective use of abstract mechanisms in the education sector. The "...schools-are-failing ' literature blames teachers...". (Torres, 1996:284) This leads to a mobilisation of concrete mechanisms to address this problem and thus education systems are restructured and a skill testing occurs, national curriculum initiatives are developed and business-like total quality management approaches are applied to schools. A general tightening of rules and regulations associated with schools gives effect to the conservative agendas.

Organisations which facilitate social movements can be perceived as mechanisms within the state and reflect patterns of regulation. Torres (1996:303, quoting Popkowitz, 1994) argues that:

...there is governmentality as certain reform discourses internationally circulate to shape and fashion teachers' dispositions towards practices, such as those found in constructivist psychologies that form didactics. The constructions of school reform discourse are practices that normalize social relations through the series of constructing and organizing the 'objects' of schooling.
Offe (in Ham and Hill, 1984) supports the notion of suppression of grievances by ruling elites. According to this view undesirable ideologies are screened out of consideration by social pressures. Meyer (in Torres, 1996:263) indicates that, “an educated citizenry is seen as a prized asset from all political perspectives”. This education, however, must occur in the context of a particular ideological set. Torres (1996) views the discourses occurring on educational reform as a form of social regulation. This social regulation is directed towards establishing firm linkages between education and the economy. Education has thus become accepted as a specific aspect of economic policy (Dudley and Vidovich, 1995) and the abstract mechanisms at work serve to justify this circumstance.

Exploring the Legitimacy of Teacher Involvement in Policy Processes

It is indisputable that teachers have a central role to play in education. The fundamental relationship between teachers and students in the classroom is an important one. What is in dispute is the scope of the role of the teacher beyond the classroom. More specifically for the purposes of this review, should teachers have input into the policy decision-making processes of education in NSW? McNeil (1990:517) argues that “we are in a watershed period of intense public debate over what should be taught in schools. The debate extends from the cultural and epistemological origins of school subjects to the politics of control over curriculum”. The question of teacher participation in the process of setting policy is rarely raised, giving rise to the suspicion
that teachers are discouraged from gaining knowledge of and having significant participation in policy issues. The debate and policy decisions proceed without meaningful input from teachers. An assumption that can be drawn is that teachers should not have a broader say in how society goes about the educational process.

Perhaps the first problem to address is a philosophical view about teacher involvement in determining education policy. Does the central role that teachers play in the process of education entitle them to a central role in the policy process? Do teachers get a say in how they go about their profession? While Fuhrman et al (1988:239) would argue that “participants in the policymaking process would be those with most stake in the outcome, that is, interest groups would participate in proportion to their stake in the policies being shaped ”, those entitled to participate depends on one’s definition of a legitimate stakeholder. Because policy is set in the political landscape, legitimacy is largely defined by political power. Within the political context of education in NSW there is little agreement on the legitimate role of teachers. “Some policies view teachers as professionals relying on an abundant knowledge base, while others view teachers as workers needing extensive direction”. (Fuhrman et al, 1988:251) In the United States Fuhrman et al (1988:245) indicate that educational reforms in the 1980s were:

...strongly reflective of state political context... Education interests were at most supporting players, accommodating to rather than reshaping reform. The reforms are often discussed as if they are...
seamless, speaking with one voice about improved schooling through higher standards. However, the reform packages were complex bundles of many approaches and were supported by policy makers with diverse motives. (p.245)

Increasingly, interest groups in society are more insistent on being a part of the policy setting process, while at the same time teacher input into education policy-decision making has been characterised as a threat to the ‘democratic control of public education’ (Brown, 1971).

However, as Klein states:

If there is any validity in the view that there is a field of education with its own body of substantive, specialised knowledge, and in fact, schools and educators do have a reason to exist, then there must be a group of people who have a certain expertise in the field. Logically then, this is a group who should formulate education goals and policies. Just as one lacking medical expertise would be considered unqualified to give out medical prescriptions, a layman lacking educational expertise could be considered unqualified to dispense educational prescriptions. (Klein, 1977:293)
Within this context Walker (1989:1) argues, "we must seek some basis in principle beyond politics per se" for the setting of public policy. Walker further states:

"It is not sufficient to claim 'We are the democratically elected government; therefore our policies are legitimate'. The inference is unsound and the 'mandate' theory often invoked to support particular policies is dubious. The legitimacy of public educational policy depends on it being directed at the particular interests of students, the general interest, and being in accordance with justice. This requires that those interests be adequately represented in the process of policy development and implementation. (Walker, 1989:3)"

It is the view of writers such as Walker that, if elected, a government should only expect to develop policy in so far as it benefits society. In Klein's view government control of policy-making should not exclude important stakeholders, including teachers:

"Such government control of educational policy is essentially incompatible with the tenets of a democratic society that encourage divergent opinions and input at all levels. To have any practical value, a state philosophy, even a local school district philosophy of education would require a consensus of opinion on what the goals of education ought to be. (Klein, 1977:293)"

Chapter Three - Literature Review
Within these contexts, governments when elected have a mandate to propose policy for discussion, negotiation and eventual implementation, rather than a mandate to act independently by virtue of the fact that they have gained the majority of votes at one particular point in time. As Walker points out:

Together these two problems - how to build criticism and corrective feedback, and how to construct, holistically, the most coherent set of educational policy aims - raise a third, the question of maximising our use of relevant knowledge and expertise about the world of educational practice. It is no more likely, in the case of educational policy, than it is in defense, social security or transport that the major concentration of such expertise is likely to be in the heads of elected officials. Conceding that students, parents and other members of the community will have relevant contributions to make, it is almost certain that most practical experience will reside with educational practitioners, and there will be other relevant knowledge and expertise available from educational researchers and teacher educators. In short, we need to consider the legitimate role of professional authority in educational policy. (Walker, 1989:7)

Given that politicians have a responsibility to make the best quality decisions, the inclusion of those who know the most about the process would seem to be logical and an imperative. This is highlighted by the fact that the public have a large investment in
the training of teachers to develop knowledge and skills and that therefore it is perhaps a moral if not a political or legal requirement that these skills be utilised in determining education policy. Walker (1989:9) calls this the "input from the fund of professional knowledge and expertise".

It is essential from this standpoint that educators be in a position to significantly influence policy development. It is clear that educators have the most central role in the implementation of education policy, so there seems to be no reasonable argument which would have teachers divorced from the formation and formulation of education policy. Teacher involvement can be advocated in terms of the use of a societal investment, the representativeness of policy decisions and from the perspective of making the best quality decisions. In Walker's view:

Professionals do have the right to systematic opportunities to demonstrate the value of their experience and expertise, and their concern for the general interest. Given that our first concern must be that legitimate interests are adequately represented, we need also to consider how these interests are best served. As servants of the interests of individuals and the community, professional educators have a central contribution to make to the debate over educational policy, just as they have a central role in its implementation. (Walker, 1989:8)
Klein (1977:292) makes the point that "...school policy and courses of action should be guided by an educational philosophy...", as opposed to a political philosophy. However, during the late 1980s and 1990s in NSW, the distinction between educational and political philosophy became blurred through increased political involvement in education. Educational policy increasingly served a dual purpose in providing education for students, but also, providing a political vehicle for government and opposition seeking voter support. If education and political goals are fused such as in the economic rationalist view, regarding the function of education, then attempting to guide education separate from politics becomes futile. It may be a more fruitful course of action for educators to argue for, and to carve out, a legitimate place in the education debate.

There is a philosophical mismatch in examining opposing views on teacher involvement in policy development versus government control (Klein, 1977). The abstract mechanisms at work include a philosophical and ideological perspective, which does not legitimise teacher involvement beyond implementation in the policy process. This raises a fundamental problem concerning the identification of the appropriate stakeholders in education policy.

**Appropriate stakeholders in education policy**

Power deployed in education has increasingly, "kept teachers in a no-politics, no-power stance that has made them until very recent years, impotent to participate in the
process of making policies which affect their personal and professional lives". (Howard, 1970:4) Within a democracy one could argue that questions of who should be involved in the process of policy formation and formulation reach philosophically to the nature of the society we desire. In a democracy, one can argue strongly that authority should encourage the involvement of all citizens and certainly a broad cross-section of society in the setting of all forms of public policy. McNeil (1990:518) indicates that, in education, "the debate about curriculum is located in political and intellectual territory that is fraught with potential dangers to a democratic vision of public education, a vision historically central to the field of curriculum scholarship". That a large group of stakeholders who are directly affected by and in turn implement public policy should be excluded from the policy process can be considered unacceptable in the democratic context. The failure to recognise important stakeholders in the policy process, "ignore[s]d the basic principle that involvement is the right and privilege of all those affected by these policies". (Howard, 1970:5) The question of who should be involved in educational policy decision-making is not easily resolved in the highly charged political context that exists within the NSW education system. However, as far back as the 1940s in the United States, the Education Policies Commission stated that: "the formulation of school policy should be a cooperative process capitalising the intellectual resources of the whole staff...this procedure...makes the school in reality a unit of democratic society". (Howard, 1970:1) Within a democratic society such processes as shared policy development will inevitably lead to conflict among different interest groups. In NSW such conflict
appears to be manipulated by political organisations in order to achieve advantage and maintain or enhance existing power, sometimes at the expense of productive outcomes. This is evidenced in day-to-day political conflicts between political parties and the rarity of bipartisan policy-making. Those interested in producing optimal policy options through more extensive discourses should welcome the fact that such conflict occurs outside traditional party politics. The opportunity for the continuous presentation of alternatives (Howard, 1970:6) by professional educators sets up a process on which education systems can grow and develop. There appears to be a need in the setting of public policy to creatively incorporate opposition and dissent.

Mazzonni (1982:158) identifies the "emergence of political leaders as powerful policy actors... [and]... the competitive nature of school policy making". This militates against viewing policy-making in education as a process whose outcomes are exclusively or necessarily defined in educational terms. The policies of education at the state level involve the politics of sectional interest groups that are tightly bound to party politics. These processes have created a "denial and alienation of highly educated people". (Howard, 1970:8) Frey (in Howard,1970) points out the reason for teacher alienation relates to 'meaningful involvement', defined as a teachers' 'feeling, that their point of view is heard and respected and can result in change'. This may not be possible in NSW education while teachers who are seeking recognition for their professional status, "remain outside the mainstream of educational planning and policy making". (Howard, 1970:8) There would seem to be a need to alter the policy process to incorporate professional teachers input into "the fabric of educational policy.
making". (Howard, 1970:14) Such a movement would attempt to gain representation by major stakeholders currently alienated from the policy process. As Brown (1971:38) points out, however, education authorities “view such participation as a threat to their continuing efforts to maintain educational costs at an acceptable level”. The larger agenda, however, sees teachers seeking the freedom to “shape the educational process as they as professionals, saw fit”. (Brown, 1971:38) While teachers may theoretically be perceived as appropriate stakeholders in educational policy setting, this notion becomes problematic for politicians who may wish to continue to dominate educational agendas.

**Policy talk and practice in education**

There is a plethora of policy and proposed policy circulating in the education industry at any one time; as Fuhrman (1988:255) indicates, “every policymaker is making more policy”. Policy talk necessarily expresses a range of opinions, from those who advocate a return to better days, to those who believe we should invent the future afresh. There can be a mismatch between the policy talk of government and practice at the classroom level. The rhetoric and attempted reforms in education are politically critical, as they have long been touted as an avenue to the solutions of society’s ills. As Tyack (1991:1) indicates, “for over a century and a half, Americans have translated their cultural anxieties and hopes into demands for educational reform”. In more recent times this has led to significant educational reforms in NSW as successive governments have altered education through changes to management structures. This is evidenced in
The Scott reforms[^4] and more recently in the Labour State government reforms in 1995-98. Tyack (1991:3) sees much of the policy talk and subsequent action as a "..cloak disguising reality".

Tyack (1991) argues that the history of policy development and rhetoric mirrors the impact of political and economic circumstances, such a view supported by House (1991) in his assessment of the impact of big policies on smaller education policies. The periods of political "liberalism and conservatism trigger educational reform ... At such time policy talk becomes loud and insistent, driven by agendas deriving from dominant public philosophies". (Tyack, 1991:6) While such policy talk may follow changes in the political and economic climate, the actual implementation of policy in schools and classrooms is described by Tyack (1991) as having a momentum and schedule of its own.

Enduring policy change

Joiner and Sabatino highlight the dangers of reliance on imposed change, in describing 'passive sabotage', which is defined as "conditions wherein compliance with the law, policy, or regulation is superficial if it occurs at all. With passive sabotage, only what is delineated procedurally becomes a task to be accomplished by the organization". (1981:25)

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Tyack (1991) examines the characteristics of policy reforms in education which appeared to endure. Firstly, enduring changes were incremental in nature. They added to existing school structures and did not attempt to significantly alter the functioning of schools. Secondly, legislation made an important contribution to the success of policy although it did not guarantee that policy was followed. Thirdly the policy options that were more likely to be successful produced a support group of stakeholders interested and committed to the reform’s success. Finally, reforms which were implemented at the school level by “administrators and teachers themselves to make their work easier or more efficient or to improve their professional status generally seemed to stick better than innovations pushed by outsiders”. (Tyack, 1991:15) Top down reforms, which attempted to significantly alter the way teachers go about their roles, did not meet with significant success. These reforms competed against the practices developed and were rejected, ignored or avoided.

Cuban (1990) discusses a lack of rationality in the planing and implementation of policy change and reforms in education which do not seem to penetrate the classroom door. The views of policy makers about the failure of past reform processes guide future directions by presenting a rationale for the reform processes adopted. If teachers and schools are seen as the illegitimate roadblocks to reform (Croll et al, 1994) this will guide the thinking of those who wish to legislate and mandate such reform. The reform process in NSW occurs within the context of a highly centralised and largely unchallenged state bureaucracy. Guthrie (1987) indicates that demands for change arise due to external events which have the effect of causing individuals and groups to
demand change in schools. School are often at the mercy of such circumstances. Teachers in schools, held in the public spotlight, rightly come to the assumption that “there is no solution; there are only political tradeoffs”. (Cuban 1990:8) Thus problems are of a political nature and thus beyond the scope of the school.

When instabilities in society emerge relating to economic trends, crime rates and issues of social welfare so to do, groups and individuals with competing messages aimed at addressing these problems. The media organisations “translate the unrest” (Cuban, 1990:9) into suggested actions and policies with schools figuring prominently as the instruments of change. With new agendas and time new calls for change emerge as old agendas are swept aside. Cuban (1990) argues that schools and classrooms are not so easily changed and despite the appearance of upheaval and reform, actual reform does not so readily occur in the classroom. Fundamental reforms are blocked as schools and teachers are involved in a process which involves the construction and reconstruction of their professional practice. While schools and teachers do not have a formal voice in the policy process, their behaviour does influence policy through their action or inaction in the classroom.

While schools are vulnerable to the pressure of the political environment, such pressure is often transient in nature allowing teachers to ride out the storm. Forward planning by authorities does not include teacher input, even though evidence (Tyack, 1991) suggests that the key to significant change rests with teachers and their cooperation with the reform process. As Cuban (1990:11) points out “the transaction among a
teacher, students, and content is the basic reason for compelling parents to send their children to school”. Given that the core business of schools relates to the classroom process one would expect there to be tight controls as to what happens when students and teachers engage in the educational activity. “Although there are ties between classroom and school between school and district office, there is no tight coupling here as elsewhere in the organisation (Bidwell, 1965; Cuban, 1984; Elmore and McLaughlin, 1988; Myer and Rowan, 1978)”. (Cuban, 1990:11) The lack of tight control at the classroom level may be a manifestation of a political reality that governments need to retain the support of teachers and particularly teacher unions. Without teacher support policy initiatives would not be a practical proposition. While in the United States Cuban (1990:11) argues, “the decoupling of instruction from administration and policymaking achieves an autonomy and isolation that teachers find satisfying”. The situation in NSW is somewhat different in that the government and the DET are demanding an increased say in what teachers do. This was evident from the release of syllabuses in English / Literacy 1995-2000, the banning of teaching methods and increasing involvement of DET head office in the control of the content of school staff development days.

Salter and Tapper (1985) characterise parents, students and employers as consumers and teachers as producers in the education industry. Within this analogy teachers can be viewed as being on the defensive attempting to provide a product demanded by the

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5 NSW Premier Bob Carr banned what he termed "trendy" teaching methods soon after his election to office in 1995. These methods included those associated with theories of multiple intelligences.
consumers. However, the fluid nature of public opinion means that the nature of this product is constantly changing and is ill-defined. Schools and teachers seem to be driven by what the public, the politicians and the media demand, yet they appear to be demanding different things at the same time. The events in schools are of significant public and hence political interest:

the process of educational change is controlled by those who have power, and although the resources of varying parties will vary from one situation to the next, increasingly it is centralized state apparatus that is in a position of dominance. (Salter and Tapper, 1985:10)

Education translates these pressures from the powerful stakeholders in the policy space into workable solutions at the school level. In this way, the interpretation as policy, of those issues which have previously been at the discretion of teachers, increases external control. Evidence suggests this will not result in any enduring policy change.

**Concrete mechanisms**

Concrete mechanisms are used by elected governments within the state as a means of intervention in the power struggles evident within the state. These power struggles are moderated through the mechanisms of the state including the control of societal institutions. Torres (1996:262) argues that “during the 20th Century, education has
become increasingly a function of the state”. The emergence of administrative bureaucracies, dominant models of decision-making, policies, system structures, education systems and more specifically teacher training are also examples of the growth of concrete mechanisms of the state. The role of the state in ensuring and improving on the quality of education can be seen in the context of education as a mechanism. If, for example, education is to be linked to the economic goals of the nation then quality in the education service is defined in terms of the achievement of these economic goals.

The problem faced by the state involves mediating the demands from competing and changing forces. These include specific cultural forces in the historical context, internal economic forces represented in business and union elites, social welfare forces and external global economic forces. These forces test the institutional mechanisms of the state in the task of maintaining control. An example of welfare pressures includes the call for minimum standards in terms of housing, health, education and wages. These demands may be at odds with the needs of business for a lower tax base and global economics in terms of balance of payments and foreign debt issues. On the other hand, such welfare programs opposed by the conservative business community, would receive strong support from other powerful stakeholders in the state such as the unions.
The political administration of education

As Brown (1971:38) indicates, "many groups in society appear anxious to become more involved in the decision-making process" in schools. These groups include teachers, politicians, unions, bureaucrats, various lobby groups, educational researchers and students. Retsinas (1982) discusses three models of educational administration; the pre-industrial model, the industrial model and the welfare statist model. Such models place the involvement of these groups into a context which indicates the legitimacy of their involvement at various stages in the policy process.

The pre-industrial model is regarded as the simplest model of educational administration. This model defines a situation where a community elite controlled all factors associated with the education process. This elite, usually of church and business leaders, controlled the employment of teachers and the goals and focus of the school. Teachers' work and performance was judged arbitrarily. Within this framework there was no concept of teacher autonomy or control over their work. Classroom activities were likely to be under the close scrutiny of the community. In the Australian context this stage may be more accurately referred to as a colonial model (Barcan, 1988).

The industrial model was born out of the increasing complexity in society. As towns grew into cities the direct administration of schools became unfeasible. Authority for the control of education was relinquished to the Inspectorate in the NSW system in the 1870's. These inspectors translated overall regulations into policies which schools were
to follow. While the lines of authority became longer, teachers remained workers following a set of externally imposed guidelines. Their role was largely oriented around the preparation and supervision of students' work in the emerging industrial society. Under this model teachers were isolated from the communities they served by a layer of bureaucracy and their autonomy remained restricted by bureaucratic control.

The welfare-statist model emerged as governments began to exert more control over the education process. This form of control is primarily exercised through the direction of funds and the legislative process. The distribution of power is reinforced in the manifestation of a centralised state bureaucracy. This bureaucracy determines all policy in relation to the process of education. Teachers and schools are further divorced from their communities in terms of broader school policy. The external control of education allows few avenues for teacher input into decision-making. The increasing complexity of the educational process fostered new academic and administrative disciplines and specialisation in these areas. Despite this professionalisation of some aspects of education, teacher status did not improve. The development of increasing numbers of rules and regulations placed more constraints on teachers. During this period teachers began to arrange themselves into what were to become powerful teachers' unions. The NSWTF emerged in 1918; its goal was to work towards improving wages and conditions for its members and to establishing a share of decision-making power at the centralised state government level (O'Brien, 1987).
The models proposed by Retsinas (1982) do not appear to fully account for the collective bargaining approach that has operated in the NSW context or the professional approach, which is the subject of much current debate. The collective bargaining approach developed as the NSWTF gained power. With Labor governments oriented to the left of politics in NSW, the union movement has gained significant influence for much of the history of education in NSW. The professionalisation of teaching (Dandridge, 1993; Furchem and Price, 1993; Brown, 1971) has been a phenomenon, which as Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) point out has not gone unchallenged. To the extent that this phenomenon survives challenges, calls for greater teacher input into decision-making may be a result.

Models of teacher involvement in the policy process

Croll et al (1994) outline four models related to teachers’ roles in the formulation of educational policies and their subsequent outcomes. The first of these models is described as the ‘teachers as implementers’ model. This model derives from new right-wing economic rationalist theories. These theories place teachers in the role of policy-implementation only. Certainly there are many elements of change in terms of the Metherell reforms of NSW education and the Carr Government reforms of 1995-98 that place teachers in this role. While the “…New right theories believe that teachers should be implementers of policy but currently are not... their left wing critics believe that teachers should not be policy implementers but currently are”. (Croll et al, 1994:337) This mismatch in ideologies has led to conflict with governments in NSW.
In general, teachers appear to react passively to policy implementation or participate in industrial unrest, which has been unsuccessful in maintaining wage standards let alone arguing for a voice in policy-making.

Different value positions place teachers in different roles. There is the creation of a sharp distinction between policy implementation and the processes of formation and formulation. Teachers are firmly in the role of implementers who are required to follow policy. This model treats the policy process as a set of distinct units, whereby the formation and formulation of policy is unrelated to the processes of implementation. As teachers are required only to engage in the implementation of curriculum and its assessment, a simplification of the management of education occurs. It is made clear to teachers what is to be done and how they should do it, and, if necessary, training is provided (Croll et al, 1994). The regulation of this process is simplified by determining the effectiveness of implementation through an external process. This was evident in the Quality Assurance process in NSW schools (Cuftance, 1995). With a change of government the model of quality assurance was replaced in 1997-1999 by a strengthened Annual School Report model (NSW DSE, 1998). Such a model highlights the need for the control of state education policy. This presents:

... a model which sees the role of teachers as being to implement decisions about education taken elsewhere. Such a model informs the thinking both of those who see it as the proper role for teachers and some of those most critical of current developments. The writings of
the new right theorists which have been so influential in recent education policy-making were quite explicitly directed at reducing teacher influence in recent education policy-making and turning teachers into policy implementers. The notion of the producer captive and the argument that the public service bureaucracies served the interests of their own members, rather than the interests of their clients or the purpose of the government, ...from this perspective, teachers need to be shifted from being partners in the policy to a role as implementers of policies determined elsewhere. (Flew et al, 1981:336)

Pollard et al (1994) also note through their research that teachers felt an increased level of external direction of their work and felt increasing constraint in terms of professional autonomy. These views were especially true in the areas of curriculum and assessment.

The second model of teachers in the policy process is termed, ‘teachers as partners’ in policy development. The notion of teachers in partnership with other actors and stakeholders in the policy-setting process became popular in the 1960s and 1970s. MacPherson and Raab (in Croll et al, 1994) indicate this derives from a pluralist perception regarding policy making which involves a degree of power sharing.

The concept of partnership however does not imply an absence of conflict. The actors in the partnership seek to view each other’s roles and beliefs as legitimate and there is a
significant degree of ambiguity. Kogan (1975) and Briault, (1976) describe the ‘triangle of tension’ in the partnership between the key players in education. In NSW, after these attempts at partnership, governments began to reassert authority in the 1980s, moving towards the ‘teachers as implementers’ model previously described.

The third model described by Croll et al (1994) is termed ‘teachers as opponents of government’. Within this model teachers are characterised in terms of their opposition to current educational policy development by government. Depending on perspective, teachers are viewed by the left wing as heroic resisters of imposed change. This occurs primarily through unions via industrial action and political lobbying. The right wing views teachers as resistors of change also, but they characterise this as illegitimate (Croll et al, 1994) and an impost on democratically-determined education policy. Despite this view of teachers, Croll et al (1994) indicate there was no data present in their study which suggested that teachers as individuals would in fact oppose government policy. Union action was characterised as a rightful pursuit of appropriate working conditions. Despite the fact that there is little evidence of teachers as resistors of change, the actions of Dr Metherell in his imposition of change in the NSW system in the early 1990s certainly reflected his belief in this position. Indeed, this was a stated belief, as previously indicated by Sharpe 6.

6Sharpe (1992) – Sharpe’s recollection of statements by minister Metherell in a briefing of senior executive in partnership with Roger Douglas who led the radical restructure of the New Zealand economy.
The fourth model characterises ‘teachers as policy-makers in practice’. This model emphasises the view that individual teachers act not collectively, but commonly, and that this has system-wide implications for the setting of policy. While collective action involves communication between groups resulting in particular agreed actions, common action involves similar but independent actions. This model derives from the nature of the teaching task itself. Just as in medicine and other professional areas teachers are faced with a situation of infinite choice regarding their practice. The constant choices about the ways in which work is carried out lead to a tradition of professional autonomy:

[This]... inevitable process of rationing and prioritising, and the practical routines which accomplish these, means that professionals become effectively makers of policy as well as implementers of policy. In this model the policymaking role occurs not from choice, but from the nature of teaching as an activity. (Croll et al, 1994:342)

Within this model it is argued that teachers act in similar ways as professionals rather than in different ways, which would dilute desired policy implementation. Evidence for this view is presented by Croll and Moses (1989) in a study of the implementation of integration policy in special education. This study found that differential outcomes occurred for different disabilities. Students with sensory disabilities were more likely to be integrated than students with emotional disturbance, despite the fact that the policy on integration did not discriminate between these two groups.
Pollard et al (1994) and Campbell (1993) examined the extent to which teachers complied with the policy to expand the National Curriculum in the United Kingdom. Their finding suggests that teachers acted commonly to maintain a focus on literacy and numeracy and in practice revised government policy. If teaching is in fact a profession, one would expect professional methods of operation to emerge from the teaching act. That these common professional behaviours might largely set policy is a prospect that may not sit well with education authorities.

The professionalism of teachers versus bureaucratic control

Teachers, claiming valuable experience, argue for the right to a sphere of autonomy in their work. However, when professionals work in a bureaucratic context their degree of autonomy is reduced. Teachers face significant difficulties in reconciling their attempts to project an image of professionalism while essentially operating as line workers. Dandridge (1993) quoting Retsinas highlights the view that teachers have important skills, experience and knowledge, which was not being able to be expressed or used:

Citing their dedication to children, years of training, and expertise in education, teachers have called themselves professionals. As professionals, teachers since the era of Henry Barnard have demanded a voice in education policy. Yet even as the structure of education has evolved, reflecting changes in the larger industrial order, teachers have
remained line workers, hired to perform specific tasks. For the past two hundred years teachers have sought first individually, then through professional associations, and now through trade unions for such a voice. (Retsinas, 1982:25)

Within a paradigm which sees teachers as professionals rather than line workers in a bureaucracy, teachers have a role to play at each level of governance of our schools. This ranges from administration through to policy-making. Fuchter and Price extend this involvement further when they point out that:

Teachers are directly and significantly affected by policy positions that develop from research. Yet the bulk of policy-shaping research has been conducted not by teachers, but on them. In practical terms, this has meant that those with the most direct influence on children's learning outside of the home - namely teachers - have little if any voice or influence on the policies that define the limits and, to a considerable extent, the very content of their teaching. (Fuchter and Price, 1993:69)

Teachers are acutely aware that playing any significant role in broader decisions about education policy is politically difficult and professionally unwise. From a bureaucratic perspective, knowledge and decision-making rests at higher levels of an administrative hierarchy (Firestone and Badger, 1991). From this perspective it is therefore logical that teacher autonomy and input into decision-making should be reduced and
controlled by external means, the rationale being that teachers might misapply instructional principle through ignorance. This 'top-down' model of management can be characterised as bureaucratic and anti-professional. These views of teaching, however, are out of step with current evidence which suggests that teachers need to be viewed professionally if they are to produce the best results. Firestone and Badger (1991:67) suggest we require "...a profession of well-educated teachers prepared to assume new powers and responsibilities to redesign schools for the future". Much literature argues for a redesign of teaching (Firestone and Badger, 1991). This literature supports the need for the professionalisation of teaching if we are to expect professional results. It is pointed out that the more teachers play a role in the formulation of policy initiatives, the more professional and workable the final policy outcome will be:

Teaching is viewed as a constructive process in which problems are ambiguously formed and in which judgement and trial-and-error learning must be supplemented in a rich complex knowledge base to overcome endemic uncertainties. The endemic uncertainties of teaching require that professional judgement take into account research-based knowledge but heavily supplement it with situational considerations.

(Schon, in Firstone and Badger, 1991:71)

Empowering teachers means the sharing of responsibility with administrators and indeed politicians for the broad organisational and educational policies that determine
how schools run, what is taught and how it is taught. Dandridge (1993) indicates that there is a need to address issues relating to teacher professionalism if administrators intend to attract the cooperation and support of teachers. He argues for the need to “create a climate that opens up new dialogues with teachers”. (Dandridge, 1993:15) Through this method the views of those with the most practical knowledge are considered central to the decision-making process. This would seem to have obvious merit. “If critical knowledge about teaching resides with teachers and is constructed and reconstructed through the teaching act, teachers need substantial autonomy to make use of it”. (Firestone and Badger, 1991:71) The bureaucratic and political control of such a circumstance would seem to be an ultimately futile endeavour. An alternative to bureaucratic control is professionalism.

Selznic, (in Firestone and Badger, 1991) argues that a professional organisation is characterised by a situation where professionals become socialised to a code of ethics and are committed to the values of their chosen occupation. Professionals police themselves and have a role to play in providing guidance to less knowledgeable members; they largely determine how they go about their roles unhindered by political intrusions into their knowledge base and practice. Professionalism, however, does not just involve freedom for, as Brown (1971) argues, along with professional autonomy comes the demand by educational administrations for personal responsibility. This demand has often not been well received by unions who represent teachers. The debate often centres around how such outcomes will be measured and the form such accountability will take.
Factors affecting teacher empowerment

Recent trends in educational reform have seen a movement towards establishing more autonomy at the school level. This has been evidenced by the decentralisation agenda of the Schools Renewal reforms in NSW during the early 1990s. The shifting of decision-making power to the site level has received much attention in the literature (Hanson, 1990). Such findings have emphasised the importance of the principals role in shaping the work environment around a shared decision-making philosophy (Heck, Larsen and Marcoulides, 1990). Hallinger and Richardson, (1988) indicate that "substantive change would only occur when teachers and site administrators were involved in decision-making at the school site" (in Kirby et al, 1994:40), the basic premise being that those implementing a policy must be part of the process which determines the policy. The value of this approach is supported by the work of Bredeson (in Kirby et al, 1994) who associated higher levels of teacher involvement in decision-making with higher levels of performance. This view has "...ramifications for the appropriate level of decision-making and relative powers of state, district and schools". (Kirby et al, 1994:40) The question then posed relates to the amount of decision-making power that teachers desire and how much they are to be afforded (Kirby et al, 1994). While much literature indicates that effective principals are those who share decision-making power (Kirby et al, 1994), the question of teachers' overall response to this process is an important one to address.
Maeroff (1988) identifies three factors affecting the empowerment of teachers and hence their response to increased decision-making responsibility. These factors are status, access to knowledge and access to decision-making. These factors are supported in the literature on shared decision-making and school improvement (Kirby et al, 1994).

Maeroff (1988) defines status in broad terms as an ability to view one’s role positively and to exercise one’s profession with confidence, and more importantly, to feel one can affect the nature of decision-making. Kirby et al (1994:42) indicate that, “teachers’ status is elevated as teachers are granted input into such decisions, but only when they perceive the issues to be important and when they perceive consequences resulting from their actions”. Dandridge (1993), in examining issues of school reform in Massachusetts indicates that teachers had concerns that centred on the need for greater public recognition for their efforts. Dandridge (1993:14) found that “…teachers’ sense of efficiency and their sense that they possessed important information about learning / teaching and the culture of urban schools” needed to be addressed if administrators expected cooperation with policy implementation. Thus the teacher’s role in decision-making and planning needs to be carefully considered if policy makers wish to increase the likelihood of effective implementation.

Maeroff cites the notion of access to knowledge as an important factor in the empowerment of teachers. This refers to the ability of teachers to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to fully participate in the decision-making processes, as
well as the knowledge of pedagogy. This has important implications for those who would like to see greater teacher involvement in policy making. In simple terms, one cannot compete in any game if one is not aware of the rules of the game. These rules can be acquired through experience, however, only a small minority are willing or able to pursue this course in order to gain the appropriate skills. In a highly charged political climate this course of action is often fraught with dangers for those who would challenge existing policy makers and seek a greater voice in this process. As Kirby et al (1994:41) point out, “it may be ill-advised for schools to embrace empowerment models if their faculties are not disciplined to share leadership with administrators or are unskilled in group processes, problem-solving models, or the particular issues being decided”. Knowledge of process in addition to content is an important factor in empowerment. Failure to effectively influence policy can mistakenly be interpreted as a failure of the process of shared decision-making rather than a failure of skills-acquisition as an aspect of the reform. Teachers therefore require the opportunity to develop the skills necessary to participate in any policy decision-making process. Knowledge of content is insufficient for such participation where hidden factors such as micro politics, political expediency and individual interests are at work. Within this paradigm, Kirby et al (1994:49) argue that “courses in teacher leadership, human relations, and group processes become crucial to educating teachers for restructured schools”. On the same theme, Burke, in the Queensland context, discusses the issues for decision-making and power sharing. He also argues for the “...necessary skills and knowledge to facilitate the devolution to stakeholders”. (Burke, 1992:41) In terms of the implementation of policy Burke further states that:
(a) Teacher education should provide a sound working knowledge of human resources philosophy, an opportunity to practice skills in such areas as group dynamics, conflict resolution, negotiation and public relations ...(b) A critical analysis of the nature, purpose, organisation, policies and regulations of the Queensland Education Department (within the framework of its devolution policy) is necessary in pre-service teacher education for student teachers to view their relationship with the Department in perspective and understand the dynamic of politics of the relationship. (Burke, 1992:4)

There are many elements to the concept of access to decision-making by teachers. Fruchern and Price explore a fundamental question related to how teachers can affect policy. They argue that teachers can do research in policy themselves and that this can be “advocacy and a cornerstone for teacher empowerment”. (Fruchern and Price, 1993:60) They talk of the need to energise more teachers to play a role in such an advocacy effort. From a different perspective, Joiner and Sabitino (1981:25) discuss problems in implementation if there is a “radical departure from traditional practices” They further indicate that “what appears to tie together the themes in sociology of education literature relating to innovation and its adoption is the need for a heightened level of consciousness for more than superficial change to occur”. (p.26) Joiner and Sabitino (1981) discuss the need to understand and identify the stages of adaptation to new practices if such practices are to be successfully implemented.
Organisational cultural linkages and policy implementation

Fennell (1992:9) points out that “educators and school organisations are faced with constant change in educational policies related to curriculum and instruction and that this is coupled with increased public demand for accountability”. Fennell (1992:9) Within the context of education systems in NSW and internationally:

Strategies used in the implementation of educational policies have varied greatly. Wise (1983), Common (1983), Cuban (1984), Purkey and Smith (1985), Timar and Kirp (1987) have discussed issues and dilemmas related to top-down and bottom-up implementation strategies. Barrett and Fudge (1981) have discussed the importance of discretion and negotiation as part of the policy implementation strategy. Common (1983) and Seashore, Louis and Dentler (1988) have discussed the importance of collaboration between policy implementers and the teacher-actors who will be expected to carry out the tasks introduced through the policy. Policy implementation strategies are likely to influence and to be influenced by the organisational context and the concerns felt by the actor-implementers. (Fennell, 1992:13)
This review of research indicates that there may be disadvantages in restricting the role of the teacher to the implementation of policy. Thus models that do not contain a role for teachers beyond implementation have negative effects on organisational culture by reducing motivation and commitment to implement policy decisions made.

Communities and educators are looking for initiatives that will facilitate meaningful changes in the education of young people. Evidence suggests that this cannot be done successfully without considering organisational culture (Fennell, 1992) and that positive organisational culture requires that teachers and educators take a positive role in policy formation and formulation. This is in contrast with current practices in NSW, which see teachers as implementers.

Joiner and Sabitino focus on organisational dynamics in stating that, “studies of schools and other complex social organizations disclose that, in general, they are relatively invulnerable to change (Johnson, 1970; Giacquinta, 1974)”. (Joiner and Sabitino, 1981:25) Joiner and Sabitino further propose that an organisational climate experienced by those within it, exerts subtle but persuasive pressure for conformity. They state “when an ‘out of phase’ policy or issue is placed against ‘the organization,’ a struggle for preeminence ensues”. Joiner and Sabitino (1981:31) Teacher input into policy formation and formulation may be an advantage in terms of organisational culture as ‘out of phase’ policies would be less likely to arise from policy decision-making which included teacher input.
Conclusions

Two types of mechanisms which give expression to power in the state have been identified. Abstract mechanisms are the ideologies that justify actions. These ideologies reveal that while teachers have the credentials to participate in the policy process, their legitimacy as appropriate stakeholders has not been established. Such involvement may be perceived as a threat to the maintenance of the dominant position of politicians, bureaucrats and other existing stakeholders in policy-making. From the perspective of policy talk and practice, the literature reveals that policy goals may be disguised by rhetoric. In such a circumstance the involvement of teachers who may question the reality of symbolic or disguised policy objectives may not be welcome. The literature reveals that part of the credentials for teacher participation in the policy process is that teacher involvement is likely to result in more enduring policy change. While the literature reveals that there are sound justifications for teacher involvement in the policy process (Walker, 1989), the current dominant ideologies and processes exclude teachers from policy decision-making.

The second type of mechanism is described as concrete. Such mechanisms are reflected in the functional activities and organisations within the state. The analysis of political administration of education reveals that many of the activities of teachers are under tight control. The literature also reveals a variety of models on teacher involvement in the policy process. Currently teachers are largely involved in implementation only, while other models acknowledge that teachers can make greater contributions to policy-making. Models of control of teachers range from the bureaucratic to
professional. Currently teachers exist within a bureaucratic structure. While they may have significant credentials for a more professional status, such a situation would lead to greater potential influence in policy-making which may not be welcomed elsewhere. In terms of teacher empowerment the literature reveals that the elements of status, knowledge and access to decision-making are critical. These elements are likely to result in greater involvement in policy-making. In terms of organisational cultural linkages, evidence suggests that there are advantages in teachers having a greater range of responsibilities.

The ideological and concrete mechanisms in the state express and give effect to dominant ideologies. Such ideologies exclude teachers from the policy-making process in education in NSW. Despite this, other ideologies and structural approaches recognise the potential values of teacher-participation in policy-making. Such positions, as they have in the past, are likely to generate resistance with current policy-makers and vested interests. An historical analysis can reveal the nature and scope of this resistance.
Introduction

Rotenstreich, (1987:2) argues that history is more than a series of occurrences in that it is "imbued with certain content" such as political action. The changes in society as reflected in history demonstrate political action and the redistribution of power through the mechanisms of the state. "History can be defined, in a very broad sense, as a course of events taking place in the course of time". (Rotenstreich, 1987:1) Historical analysis can serve the function of mapping changes in the control of power in the state. Tensions in society derive from the social and economic forces producing impetus for change. These changes can be viewed in a linear, yet multi-layered analysis: linear in the sense that time moves in one direction, and multi-layered in the sense that there are many issues to be considered. Morrow and Torres (1995) point out that definitions of the state involve "culture and history". In examining culture and history there are an infinite variety of perspectives and issues to be considered. In such a circumstance a process of selection takes place. West (1993) indicates that we should "always preserve in our intellectual work a 'nuanced historical sense'". (quoted in Torres:1996:256)

Power causes tensions, the resolution of which is reflected in decision-making which is constantly under pressure and changing. Torres (1996:261) points out that consensus
“is dynamic rather than static. It invariably emerges from a struggle or confrontation among social forces, ideologies, philosophies, and general conceptions of life”. Changes occur on many levels within the state. The public policy derived is merely a reflection of these changes. Changes in social, economic and cultural circumstances are manifest in the reconstruction of the nation state. Morrow and Torres (1995) point out that although individuals and groups in society have choices they are constrained by historical circumstances of power and the coercive mechanisms of their time.

With the passage of time the historical constraints change. This facilitates the development of new social conditions. Fasano (1993) highlights the importance of time in the investigation of policy issues. An historical analysis can reveal important issues in the policy space, “a picture of where we have been shapes our understandings of where we are and where we should go”. (Tyack, 1991:2) The concept of time must therefore be central to any theoretical notion of the state. It is also central to any notion we may have of changing policy and indeed the policy decision-making process.

A political history of education in NSW

“When in January 1788 Governor Arthur Philip established a British settlement at Botany Bay he brought with him not only convicts and military forces to guard them but also 26 children eight of whom were of school age”. (Barcan, 1988:9)

The source of Australian education policy lies in the complexity of our society. Australian education policy had a distinct genesis in culture, the prevailing and
emerging belief systems, styles of government, and many other social, psychological and political influences. This mix of understandings was brought to form a new society and was necessarily influenced by the unique characteristics of the Australian continent and the social make-up of its inhabitants. Factors such as geography and British policy-makers who began a society out of a need to relieve the overcrowded gaols of their country are part of the Australian consciousness. All such factors influence policy.

With the arrival of European settlement on the Australian continent came the imperative for European education and inevitably the emergence of education policy. Education in Australia was born out of a relatively brief and turbulent history of colonisation and rapid development.

The forces at work shaping the practices and specific policies in NSW education have also shaped the nature of policy development. From the early days of the colony in 1788 until the 1860's the social problems were acute, education was viewed as a mechanism for the control or remediation of society's moral and social ills (Barcan, 1988). The aim of elementary education was to develop religious beliefs, political loyalty, moral values and basic vocational abilities (Barcan, 1988). David Collins in 1797 wrote of the need to "separate the greater part of these (at present, innocent)
members of the community from their vicious parents” (Barcan, 1988:14), giving a glimpse of the perceived moral degradation of the time.

The function of education is apparent in any analysis of early colonial society in Australia. In the context of a society largely populated by the overflow of the British criminal system, the role of government and, indeed, educational policy as an arm of government was to protect society from its own members in order to create a future order, based on social cohesion and the rule of law, in the context of a democratic society. It is apparent given the circumstance of the time⁸, the task was not an easy one.

With the requirement for education came the need for a teaching service. The teaching service in NSW did not have an auspicious beginning. In the early colony teachers “tended to be persons who had failed in other occupations, turned to teaching as a last resort”. (Barcan, 1988:51) While it was difficult to attract teachers, it was common practice for ex-convicts and convicts to be employed in the public system while clergymen filled teaching positions in the private schools. In 1824 Governor Brisbane appointed Rev. Reddall as Director-General of the Government Public Schools of NSW ⁹.

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⁸ Circumstances included limited skilled human resources, a penal society, enormous distance from 'civilisation' and the unfamiliarity of a new continent. See Barcan (1988) for a detailed analysis.

⁹ Demonstrating the close links between church and state in the management and development of the NSW state education system.
Early education was dominated by the state and the church who attempted to come to terms with a society of extremely limited resources, (in particular in the area of skilled labour). The population also had little regard for the needs of children or the value of education. The view of the time can be summed up as a functional need for cheapness and efficiency (Barcan, 1988). Quality of education was a lower priority in terms of the colony’s limited resources. Within this context it is no surprise that a paternalistic view of state and church control of education developed. In 1856 representative government was introduced in NSW, the influence of the Governor was reduced and “education became a matter of politics, responsive to the voice of the electorate”. (Barcan, 1988:78) The government was to decide the location of schools, would build these schools and would appoint the teachers to staff them (Barcan, 1988).

In 1865 inadequacies in education were apparent. Paramount amongst these was the low social status and inadequate training of teachers. In the period around 1867 a range of educational reforms were implemented in New South Wales. The most important of these flowed from the Public School Act of 1866, establishing a single education authority for both state and church schools receiving state funds (Barcan, 1988). “The act created a centralised system whose efficiency was guaranteed by a corps of inspectors who examined both teachers and pupils”. (Barcan, 1984:107) Education in NSW with its limited human resources relied upon an uneducated teaching work force, thus the need for control. Inspection was central to the process and a method of bureaucratic constraint on teachers of low social status and training.

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The status of teachers was not assisted by the fact that the state did not assume full responsibility for the payment of their salary until 1880\textsuperscript{10}.

In 1876 the Public School Amendment Bill created a Department of Education and a responsible Minister. The Public Instruction Act of 1880 was far more extensive in “establishing a pattern of centralised state schools which was to endure for a hundred years”. (Barcan, 1984:139) Policy had pursued a course in the redistribution of power from the church to a centralised state bureaucracy which continues to dominate education to the present day.

The major objectives of nineteenth century liberalism involved the ideals of universal literacy, education for citizenship (which was to produce political improvement and diminish crime) and the diffusion of knowledge through education was to produce a better society (Barcan, 1988). The seeds planted in the early settlement seemed to be coming to fruition within a century of colonisation.

In 1903 the Knibbs-Tumer Report on Primary Education indicated that “the most serious defect in the Education System of New South Wales is the employment of teachers, of young people of immature education, of immature physical and moral development”. (Barcan, 1984:191)

\textsuperscript{10} Prior to 1880 teacher pay was partly determined on the basis of student attendance.
The low status of teachers persisted. In 1904 the Minister of Education called a conference of inspectors, education officials, representatives of private schools, universities and teachers to discuss the Report on Primary Education. Some changes in teacher education were implemented and shortly after this conference, Inspector Peter Board was appointed Under-Secretary and given the new post as Director of Education (Barcan, 1988).

The economic hardship of the latter WWI years produced unrest amongst teachers. The militancy associated with the reduced value of salaries lead to the emergence in September 1918 of The NSW Public Schools Teachers Fédération (Barcan, 1988). With growing militancy and a vehicle for the wielding of political power the influence of teachers began to increase. This is evidenced by Peter Board in 1920 when “he himself cautiously remarked: 'You have to avoid the suspicion the people who make Syllabuses know a great deal more about the matter than the people who use them. They don't". (Barcan, 1984:199) This can be interpreted as the emergence of understandings about growing teacher skills and knowledge. Until this time the official view was that teachers were poorly trained and of poor moral character, perhaps a reflection of their early convict ancestry. This led to the bureaucratic, centralised monitoring and control of teachers.

As the radical nature of the Teachers Federation emerged, (assisted by a benevolent Labor government and teacher shortages) the bargaining power of teachers was increased. In 1942, the state cabinet decided that public servants should belong to their
relevant unions and by 1944 compulsory union membership was enacted ensuring union funds were guaranteed (Barcan, 1988). The relationship between the NSWTF and the government deteriorated with the election of the Liberal-Country Party Coalition Government in 1965, ousting the pro-union Labor Government which had held office since 1941 (Barcan, 1988). The Federation made increasing demands for a say in the running of education and teachers became more militant in pressing these demands. This militancy culminated in the first NSW teachers' strike on 1st October 1968. The struggle for power in education had developed as teacher unions joined the battle. This struggle continues today as education remains at the forefront of political debate, being one of the largest single areas of NSW state government expenditure.

In the mid 70s:

A struggle for the control of education was now under way. The special interest groups and the Commonwealth were challenging the authority of the state government. The main interest groups now entering into decision-making were the Teachers Federation, the ethnic groups, the Aborigines, the feminists, and the neo-Marxists. These often overlapped. The old pressure groups the Churches, the family, employers and so on were now less powerful (Barcan, 1984: 283).

By 1984 the Labor party had won back power; Rod Cavalier became Minister and ended the privileged position of the Federation. "... he was 'reasserting the right of the
Barcan argues that for most of the history of education in New South Wales, the process of change owed more to practice than theory. The features of new approaches began to emerge before official policies were formulated or legislative action taken (Barcan, 1988). Dominating any consideration of education in New South Wales was the State. The Church and the family were weaker sources of control. From the first day of settlement the State sustained and controlled educational institutions (Barcan, 1988). Teachers exercised an influence on educational management and policy mainly through their strong professional organisation, the Teachers Federation. This influence grew steadily after 1911 and became especially strong after 1950. From the mid-1980s, however, the state began to reduce the influence of the teachers' union (Barcan, 1988).

The development of education in NSW occurred within the context of the politics of this State. The Labor side of politics has predominantly formed the NSW government. From WWII, apart from eleven years of the Askin government and the Greiner Liberal government of more recent times, the state has been under the control of Labor governments (West, 1991). West views NSW as the least extreme in political terms of the Australian states, being a 'typical' example of the Australian culture occupying the 'middle ground'. The style of decision-making in NSW is characterised as incremental in nature with a careful and cautious approach adopted. The political culture is
dominated by the right wing of the Australian Labor Party, seen to favour "...power rather than ideology" (West, 1991:54) and perhaps accounting for their success.

The nature of education policy-making mirrors state politics in general with a tradition of slow and cautious approaches to change. While there is always an extensive list of policy matters on the education agenda, from time to time, the NSW Teachers Federation, a powerful union organisation, representing almost all NSW public school teachers11, has always raised matters of immediate concern with the Minister responsible for education. The Minister has a range of stakeholders to whom he/she is responsible. These not only include the NSWTF but also the media organisations, employers, parent groups, universities and various other stakeholders including the ethnic lobby and Aborigines. These stakeholders come together and controversial issues are often negotiated without significant conflict. This is not always the case as in 1968 when the first mass teacher strike occurred partly as a result of the Country Party Minister attempting to implement a range of reforms to the teaching role (Mitchell, in West 1991).

By 1989 the New South Wales Department of School Education, was one of the largest single systems of education in the western world in terms of students, staff and geographical area. There were 2,230 schools, 58,461 staff, of which 48,850 were teachers, and 749,263 students. The schools were scattered over an area of 800,000

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11 The NSWTF power derived from compulsory union membership in the 1940's, which for many years guaranteed absolute preference of employment for union members over non-union members. For many years it was not possible to teach in NSW public schools unless one joined the NSWTF.

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square kilometres (Sharpe, 1992). The change of government to a Liberal-led coalition in the late 1980s was a catalyst for several dramatic and turbulent years for education in NSW.

Prior to the early 1990s, problems within the NSW education system had been identified by a number of critics (Hogan and West, 1980; Boyd, 1986; Murphy, 1989). There criticisms related to disillusionment with the public system. The NSW system was seen as an unresponsive and an unwieldy bureaucracy, which was characterised by inefficient decision-making. Organisational theorists pointed to such inefficiencies (Kelly, 1980; Bedeian, 1984; Peters and Waterman, 1982). Within NSW politics, education was seen as a difficult portfolio as the potential for conflict was always present. The media’s interest contributed to these difficulties as disputes were often characterised as “...children versus the department...” (1991:55). Without power from 1976 to 1988, the conservative side of politics saw significant scope for changes in education policy. During this period in opposition the conservative Liberal coalition was largely lacking any cohesive leadership, while the Labor Government enjoyed the strong leadership of Neville Wran.

Nick Greiner became parliamentary leader of the Liberal Party and set about an agenda which was to ultimately reclaim power. Greiner was from a business background and he adopted a ‘user pays’ philosophy, which was unfamiliar to many educators in NSW. Greiner's approach may be characterised as economic rationalist, with education viewed from a business perspective. Business management techniques were to be
applied to increase efficiency. The Greiner government adopted “an ideology based on conservative political culture; the repetition of phrases like 'privatisation', 'rationalisation', 'standards', 'skills', 'accountability', 'schools for the elite' and 'better links with business', with an emphasis on science and technology at the expense of the humanities”. (West, 1991:55)

The economic rationalist view was not confined to conservative politics. The Australian Labor Government and the Labor Government in Victoria were adopting similar frames of reference in the construction of policy (Harman, 1985; Maddox et al, 1991). The Metherell agenda was seen as an adaptation of the reform process adopted by the Thatcher conservative government in Britain (Totaro, 1990; Fitzgerald, 1991). The similarities of national curriculum, skills testing and global budgeting at the school level between Britain and NSW were identified and given a negative review by Simpson (1990) in the NSWTF magazine, Education.

West (1991) identifies a disparity in the rhetoric and the underlying assumption of the government’s agenda. The public rhetoric revolved around restoring basic values related to law and order and family values, however, the underlying assumption of the agenda was that the NSWTF had too much power and a disproportionate say in the policy decision-making process. The political agenda was to redistribute power across a broader cross section of the community and thereby reduce the power of the NSWTF. When a middle class group who were deserting the public school system were identified (Boyd, W. 1986), the conservative response was to emphasis
excellence through selective schools\footnote{Students who wish to attend Selective Schools must sit for a Selective School test, which is essentially an IQ test, to gain entry.} and the creation of centres of excellence which catered for particular talents. The mandate won by the Greiner government to initiate such reforms was based on many years of Labor rule. The Labor government had become increasingly unpopular, with rumours of corruption. In 1983 the Premier, Neville Wran stood down after allegations surfaced that he had interfered in the administration of justice. Despite the fact that the Premier was cleared, the decline of the Labor administration was well established and could not be arrested by the incoming Premier Barry Unsworth.

The conservative agenda for education was well in place before the Liberal-National Party coalition’s successful election in March 1988. There was an expression of a ‘back to basics’ philosophy and a more business-like orientation in terms of the management of government. The emphasis on these issues and Labor’s poor election campaign resulted in a swing of ten percent and five Ministers losing their seats, including the Minister for Education Rodney Cavalier. Labor’s losses in their electoral heartland of Newcastle, Wollongong and Western Sydney strengthened the claim by Greiner of a solid electoral mandate to implement economic rationalist-based policy reforms. The Greiner government reforms had their genesis in earlier economic reforms which were implemented by the conservative governments of Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher in Britain and Presidents Ronald Reagan and George Bush (Snr) in the United States. Such reforms impacted on New Zealand and elsewhere and
subsequently on NSW. Reforms based on an economic rationalist approach had far reaching implications and significantly effected approaches to the development of education policy in NSW. Shortly after the election, Dr Terry Metherell was appointed Minister for Education and Brian Scott, a management consultant from the private sector with knowledge of education, was appointed as chairman of a committee which was to overview education.

In pre-government policy announcements, Dr Metherell had enunciated his policies to the electorate. In addition Dr. Metherell indicated that in implementing his reform agenda he did not anticipate support from the teaching service or educational bureaucrats. (Sharpe, 1992). The Minister approached his new portfolio with a commitment to rapid change, in so doing he, did not engage in consultation with of key educational interests groups in NSW:

It was an approach which alienated every educational interest group including teachers, principals, parents and students, and culminated in a series of teacher strikes, the declaration in many schools of 'Metherell-free zones' leading to walk-outs whenever the Minister visited these schools, and to the largest anti-Government public demonstration in NSW since the 1890's, when over 50,000 parents, students and teachers marched on Parliament House demanding the Minister's resignation. (Sharpe, 1992:5)
Throughout his time as Minister, Metherell adopted what West saw as Machiavellian principles of political success. Machiavelli argued the alternative merits of being feared and loved, “of the two, Dr Metherell seemed to accept that it was not possible to be loved by NSW teachers and their union”. (West, 1991:58) The manner of decision-making in NSW had been previously characterised by much militant rhetoric on the part of the unions, while at the same time productive negotiations occur in the background. “The Federation was not used to being shut out of policy-making, and it was ill-considered of Dr Metherell to alienate such a powerful organisation”. (West, 1991:59) Dr Metherell became an isolated figure being the target of all the major interest groups in education.

During 1988 Dr Brian Scott was reviewing management structures across the Department of Education. In March 1990, School-Centered Education, known as the Scott Report was released. The major thrust of this report was to turn schools ‘down side up’ where decisions traditionally reserved for the bureaucracy were to be made at the school level. The report created consternation as Sharpe, the Director-General of Education at the time reports that, “no opportunity was ever given to senior officers of the department to read or discuss the assertions in School-Centred Education before they were published, and many Departmental officers simply did not recognise their own experience in this analysis”. (1990:44) The Scott review was to redraw the existing education policies in NSW and its attitude to the NSWTF was clear; in the

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13 Machiavelli; best known work 'The Prince', published about 1512, is a widely respected work on politics (West 1991:57).
foreword to the report the review found that "...the Teachers Federation was 'belligerent' and 'negative' and had obstructed many progressive ideas". (West, 1991:59) Scott (1990) recommended a move towards a leaner management structure with an emphasis on local decision-making. This was in line with modern management philosophy, which was aimed at increased profits and improved production. A point of contention was whether such approaches were appropriate or desirable for education.

The Scott Report (Scott, 1990) was a far-reaching reform agenda. Among the first changes was the abolition of the Inspectorial system, which was replaced by Clusters of schools and Directors who were encouraged to learn and espouse the new business management philosophies in education. The new executives were appraised through performance-based measures and this occurred down the hierarchical line. "At a stroke, Greiner had succeeded in centralising educational administration to a degree not attained by earlier NSW governments". (West, 1991:60) The loyalty of these new executives was ensured through higher salaries and fear of loss of position (West, 1991). Many of the old power bases of the NSW education system were destroyed and symbolically the old Head Office in Bridge Street was to be sold to finance the new initiatives. While the Scott Report spoke of participative decision-making at the school level after much criticism of the function of schools, the Report was another example of top down management style: "...instead of changing the organisation, as the consensus of research suggests, by changing its culture..." (West, 1991:60), the

14 The Bridge Street office was ultimately not sold and the office became the State Head Office for NSWDET in early 1996 after the election of the Carr Labor Government.
principal's role became one which involved increased administration and compliance with the political mandate.

Many felt that this shift in role was at the cost of the core business of schools, teaching and learning. "Thus, although the Scott Report talked persuasively about decentralising power, it created systems which, by increasing accountability, took principals more and more often out of schools and emphasised their role as local managers in a system controlled centrally". (West, 1991:61) The centralisation of power occurred as Assistant Directors-General of each of the ten regions were given more authority and related more directly to government and were held accountable for the implementation of government policy. The changes resulted in business management-style practices adopted by Principals and Directors who had the role of overseeing schools and reporting to a central administration. The decision-making processes became more centralised as the participative management equated to decision-making about issues which were often not the core business of the school and were previously administration tasks of the broader administration system of NSW education. Along with this emphasis there was a greater focus on accountability in areas such as curriculum which became more centralised. Thus the decentralisation rhetoric often did not match what the state's educators perceived as desirable change in the management of schools.

The unprecedented rate and scope of change and the total lack of consultation with education stakeholders led to the industrial chaos and community unrest already

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illustrated. This is not to say that the content of the change was necessarily offensive to any of the major stakeholders in education. Indeed Sharpe reports that senior bureaucrats recommended many of Scott’s proposed changes at the time in detailed submissions (Sharpe, 1992). Despite the protests about the style of change, the changes went ahead and were successfully implemented across the educational system within a short space of time. The political cost of such actions was to be felt for many years, eventually contributing to the downfall of the Minister and the Government. In 1992 Professor Ken Eltis made the following observation on the change-style of the Minister:

Part of today's problems in NSW results from disillusionment felt by many hard-working public servants... as they saw their earlier well intentioned, constructive efforts peremptorily swept aside in the name of reform... With a bit more subtlety in its approach the incoming Coalition could have gained more respect and confidence from educators at all levels if it had acknowledged some of their efforts in these areas. This, in turn, may have led to better foundations being laid for other essential and more dramatic reforms it and others in education saw as needing to be taken. (Eltis, 1992:3)

Dr Metherell’s views of the necessary process of change have been described by Eltis as the ‘crash through approach’ (Eltis, 1992:4) Dr Sharpe’s memories of Dr
Metherell's philosophy of change enunciated at a meeting of senior executive included such views as:

* Be absolutely certain about the rightness of your proposed change.
* Changes can't be too large - only too small...
* You can't go to fast, only too slow...
* Interest groups and bureaucracies don't represent the views of the great majority of their constituency - and certainly not the views of voters.
* Therefore you need to appeal for support to the general public, not interest groups. (Sharpe, 1992:17)

Dr Metherell adopted a style of policy change which was to alienate the majority of stakeholders. At the conclusion of the Metherell years, almost three years after they began, Sharpe (1992: 18) reports, "...within the teaching force, despite widespread acceptance of the value of many of the reforms, there remains a cynicism about the politicisation of education which will take years to remove." In contrast to the change philosophy adopted by Dr Metherell, Professor Eltis adopts an opposite set of assumptions about appropriate change management in schools. He states:

Policies are constantly evolving as schools endeavour to do their best by their students and teachers. This gradual, evolutionary process of policy development... is what gives schools stability and confidence. They need time to think out their positions on issues and policies and decide what is best in the circumstances. (Eltis 1992:4)
Before his government’s election Dr. Metherell had stated that schools had been subject to too much change. He indicated, “the overriding feeling I have got from visiting schools is that they are overwhelmed by change: too many documents, too many priorities. Schools now need a period of stability”. (Kalantzis and Cope, in West, 1991:60) Despite these statements the pace of change over three years of Liberal government left educational administrators stunned.

By 1990 the disquiet in education had become a problem for the Premier Mr. Greiner who was seeking an opportune time for an election to gain more control of the Upper House of Parliament. Dr. Metherell was unpopular with all the major stakeholders in education including the media and did not have a significant base of political support. In 1990 Dr Metherell resigned after it was revealed that he had failed to fill out a tax return correctly. This gave Greiner the opportunity to adopt a more conciliatory approach within the education portfolio. With the appointment of Virginia Chadwick a pattern of regular consultation with the NSWTF occurred, furthermore teachers and executive staff received wage increases.

What of the purpose and results of this change? While the rhetoric of change used the decentralisation terminology, giving the impression that schools were in fact to become far more autonomous in their operations, observers have noted inconsistencies in this philosophy, with the emergence of direct ministerial involvement in the education portfolio. Two former Directors General of Education in NSW, Doug Swan and Bob
Winder, comment that “the rhetoric and the realities do not fit together easily”.
(Harman, et al, 1992:123) Of this process Harman indicates that:

... confining the participation in policy making in education by parents, teachers, and students mainly to a range of choices at the school site level and the implementation level of operation. This is often seen as a diminution of the role of parents and teachers and other groups in the identification of needs and the formulation of broad educational policies. Governance of education is politically centralised with measures to ensure compliance. Educators especially school principals trained in curriculum and pedagogy are envisaged largely as site managers, the curriculum and pedagogy being controlled by non-educators, through remote and specific means. (Harman, et al, 1992:151)

The new philosophy was drawn from private sector management theory. However, it has none of the checks and balances of the market. The increased politicisation of education through direct ministerial involvement centralised power. Harman, et al (1992: 152-153) questions “whether the quality of teaching and learning outcomes of students are enhanced by the reforms adopted”. In a fluid policy-setting context policies come and go with the political winds. While those who know most about what makes for effective education are locked out of any real decision making system:

Chapter Three – Literature Review
2. In Australia as elsewhere, educators have lost control of the reform agenda and much of its implementation....their advice is often being ignored and reform movement is being driven largely by others - Ministers, experts in public sector management, consultants, interest group leaders, and education committees of political parties.

3. The restructuring movement is essentially conservative from an educational perspective, driven largely by non-educational forces and objectives. The driving forces are largely economic. (Sharpe, 1992:21)

The political centralisation of education continued into the late 90s. In 1995 the Labor Party again won office and set about a new round of restructuring of the Department of School Education, which was eventually renamed The Department of Education and Training*. One of its first actions was to place a moratorium on a major initiative called 'profiles and outcomes'. Education policy seemed to be changing and being modified at an increasingly rapid rate.

The major thrust of change, however, occurred at the organisational level and with the new government a restructure of the department occurred. Clusters were restructured to form Districts and District Superintendents were appointed. The current structure views the District as an extension of the state office and is charged with assisting in the implementation of government policy at the local level. That these changes were based
on economic factors was not hidden; indeed it was well publicised. The restructure was a pragmatic response which aimed to provide support to schools within the department's budget. A primary consideration was meeting the savings requirements of the state government (Boston, 1995). This need for budgetary savings as a driving force in the departmental restructure was more widely publicised with the release of the restructuring document (Boston, 1995). It is clear that politicians view the input into policy setting by educators as, “a threat to their continuing efforts to maintain educational costs at an acceptable level”. (Brown, 1971:38) At the time of writing the current Labor government has been re-elected and the reforms they commenced in 1995 continue into the year 2000.

From 1788 when the teaching service was made up of ex-convicts or those who had failed in other occupations (Chapter 3 p.196) to 2000 the status\textsuperscript{15} of teachers has generally improved\textsuperscript{16}, however the essential character of policy-setting remains unchanged; the political centralisation of power complements the exclusion of professional educators from policy decision-making processes.

The Teacher Union in NSW

As a social mechanism teacher unions operate in a world of political compromise in order to gain benefits for their members. The role of the NSWTF has gone beyond one

\textsuperscript{15} Status may be defined as “a measure of the esteem in which an individual, group or occupation holds itself or is held by others”. (Senate Employment, Education and Training References Committee (1988:28)

\textsuperscript{16} For a more detailed analysis of changes in teacher status over time see, Senate Employment, Education and Training References Committee (1988); Scott, Stone, and Dinham (2001).
which only seeks to attain benefits for members. Within NSW, teacher unions are tightly woven into the political fabric. The enhancing of teacher professionalism and improved salaries and conditions have been by products of industrial reform. The perspective of unions and management is not surprisingly quite different. While the unions argue for increased professionalism for teachers through less bureaucratic constraints on the way teachers go about their jobs, management have argued that this can only be achieved through negotiating on basic working conditions. Thus, unions and management have different visions of the future. On the one hand management see the future with a professional group of teachers who are responsive and accountable to performance-based measures. In such a scenario basic working conditions are negotiable. Teacher unions see a future of greater teacher autonomy and professionalism, while retaining working conditions such as seniority for promotion and transfer rights. McDonnell and Pascal (1988:8) point out, "consequently, if a teacher union decides to play an active leadership role in efforts to enhance teacher professionalism, it may please policymakers but lose the support of its own members".

The findings by McDonnell and Pascal (1988:9) in a fieldwork sample indicated that members "hold expectations about unions that relate primarily to their ability to maintain material benefits... where teacher unions have moved towards pursuing strategies aimed at enhancing teacher professionalism...many rank and file members reacted with scepticism, even hostility".

In overcoming this conflict between the perspectives of union and management, McDonnell and Pascal (1988) has identified three conditions. Firstly, it is not possible
to trade-off basic working conditions, such as hours of work, for increased decision-making power or professional status. These conditions may be a prerequisite to the pursuit of a more professional status. Secondly, it is inevitable that dissent will occur as some teachers are not willing to accept the new roles, responsibilities and work loads associated with professional status. These workers have a vested interest in the status quo and will resist and subvert change to maintain existing relationships. Thirdly, from both the union members and management, any trade-off needs to be presented in a more palatable, less confrontational manner such that dialogue is encouraged and compromises reached. In this way, the movement towards professionalism will be incremental in nature.

Truman (1971) and Wilson (1973) argue “that teacher unions, like most political interest groups, must act as lobby groups, seeking benefits from the political system, but at the same time they are voluntary organisations whose survival depends on their ability to accommodate membership preferences”. (McDonnell and Pascal, 1988:17) This argument however has been somewhat invalid in the NSW context with virtual mandatory union membership policies. For many years in NSW absolute preference for employment was given to NSWTF members, establishing an effective union monopoly on the work force (O’Brien, 1987). The tradition of union membership endures and as a result the union is somewhat less responsive to the expressed needs of its members than it might be. When examining the teacher’s role in policy formation and formulation the union’s role must be considered. Given that the NSW Teachers Federation is part of the power structures and fabric of politics in NSW one must
examine how the teacher unions have been part of the policy-making environment in education in NSW.

The NSW Teacher's Federation was formed in 1918. By 1985 it was a large and powerful union and had 64,520 members (O'Brien, 1987). The NSW Teachers Federation throughout its history attempted to present as a 'professional' and an 'industrial' organisation. Indeed in 1974-75, Davy, a senior officer of Federation stated that "...he could not conceive of one 'industrial' issue which was not also a 'professional' matter". (O'Brien, 1987:179) This stance inevitably led to conflicts about "professional duty and industrial solidarity". (O'Brien, 1987:2) The conflict entered into by the NSWTF primarily involved relationships with the state and Federal governments. The topics of these discussions can be summarised as issues related to the funding of schools by the Federal government, working conditions, salaries, the rights of union members and the control of education policy. The Federation had a major foe in the form of the State Public Service Board:

The principal source of advice to government on the conduct of the education system was the Public Service Board. The Board, moreover, possessed considerable powers over the teaching service. Since the 1920s it had been Federation policy that these powers should be removed from the Board and placed under the control of an Education
The NSW Teachers Federation grew out of a particular social, economic and political context. (O’Brien, 1987) This context included the various struggles between the union and the Commonwealth and State governments and the internal struggles which inevitably occurred within the union.

With the advent of the cold war and global economics, education was seen as an important aspect of post-war reconstruction. In this context, the NSWTF identified with Labor politics with an emphasis on "...economic and social objectives". (O’Brien, 1987:4) They opposed economic restructuring which they perceived would see an emphasis on the accumulation of capital by private individuals. The NSWTF saw the value in playing an active role in seeking increased Federal funding for education and this was highlighted in their 'New Deal for Education' campaign in late 1940s.

The political reality of the 1950s ensured that the NSWTF could not use the "traditional weapon of workers' organisations: the strike. So political pressure, based on a broad united front, was the only viable option of the Federation". (O’Brien, 1987:8) Wishing to be viewed as professionals, teachers were expected to exercise restraint on industrial issues and for the first 50 years, the NSWTF exercised this restraint. The events of the 1960s were to change this position. In the 1960s changes in
capitalism saw education being more closely linked with the economy. During the Cold War, Human Capital Theory began to emerge which involved "the notion of education expenditure as an investment in human capital...". (O'Brien, 1987:8) The focus on the maintenance of economic growth came under scrutiny with a crisis in confidence resulting from the Soviet launch of Sputnik in 1957. This was seen as a powerful symbol of advanced technology. "...Western economists began to look afresh at the relationship between economic growth, scientific development and education expenditure". (O'Brien, 1987:9) Through these circumstances economic arguments were linked to humanistic notions about education and thus there was a significant thrust to increase funding to education.

The Menzies17 years were a time of economic prosperity. Federation attacked the Federal government: "...the Federation correctly calculated that the Federal government's monopoly of income taxing powers placed it in a far better position to fund schools than States". (O'Brien, 1987:13) The major issue engaged by the NSWTF thus related to the funding of education by the Federal government. Along with action to increase funding to education, "since 1919, the Federation had sought to exercise a direct influence over education policy". (O'Brien, 1987:58) In pursuing this agenda the NSWTF sought to characterise teachers as professionals.

17 Sir Robert Menzies was Australia's longest serving Prime Minister.
Education, it was argued, was a complex and specialised activity. It was best controlled by ‘experts’. In the educational sphere teachers were the ‘experts’, they were the ‘professional’ educators. They should therefore, as professionals, participate directly in the control of education. (O’Brien, 1987:58)

In addition to attempts to increase funding and increase influence over policy, attempts were also made to improve the working conditions of teachers and the learning conditions of students. These conditions became a focus of NSWTF activity in the 1960’s. Teachers move towards professionalism had only proceeded a short way. “Professionalism... was not just concerned with questions of autonomy and control, but also with questions of educational content and process, and pedagogical practice, as well as with society’s perception of teachers”. (O’Brien, 1987:62)

“From 1962 to 1965 relationships between the Federation and the State Government deteriorated”. (O’Brien, 1987:67) The government continued to refuse to establish a Commission, which would have resulted in greater policy input by teachers. Teachers were frustrated in pursuing a course which would lead to greater professional autonomy. Indeed under such conditions disputes with the Public Service Board became more acrimonious. From within the union itself there was criticism “that the union indulged in political activities beyond its legitimate interests as an organisation interested in education”. (O’Brien, 1987:85) Indeed some teachers did not approve of
the move towards professionalism in that it might be seen to place teachers above the common workers with whom many teacher unionists identified.

Federation continued to press for representation on an Education Commission, however, Education Minister, Charles Cutler, opening the 1965 Annual Conference of Federation, dashed these hopes. He indicated that “he would not be rushed into establishing an Education Commission”. (O’Brien, 1987:91) In 1967 Premier Askin announced, “any Commission that might be established ... would not control education policy; that would remain the prerogative of the government”. (O’Brien, 1987:128) During this time not only were the hopes of teacher involvement in the policy process through the union movement being thwarted but also increased assistance to non-government schools became a problem. The Federation stated that the “level of militancy was related directly to the degree of financial provisions made by governments”. (O’Brien, 1987:91)

O’Brien (1987) indicates that public debate during the mid 1960’s was complicated by that fact that the NSWTF was dominated by the ‘left’ of the political spectrum. The conservative side of politics exploited the links of the NSWTF to the Communist Party. Within this context the major issues remained salaries, class sizes, and relief for absent teachers. Traditional unionists tended to play a more subtle political game and were wary of outright confrontation in the form of strike action. New members in the 1960’s and social changes led to growing militancy. The old guard gradually lost their influence. The first strike of teachers occurred in 1968. This strike eventuated from local issues and spread to the state context. The unions and the state were locked in
battle and issues of teacher input into the policy process were further removed from the political agenda.

In 1972 The Public Service Board sought to de-register the NSWTF in the Industrial Commission over ongoing disputes. This was, however, perceived as a threat rather than a reality. In 1975 Education Minister Willis tried to introduced measures which allowed the Director General to override preferential treatment of union members for employment. This move was initiated to prevent compulsory unionism within teaching. The proposals were repealed under the threat of strike action. Eventually measures were taken to give union members preference if they were 'equally qualified' and 'equally suitable' (O’Brien, 1987). This was not ‘absolute preference’ and a step towards breaking the union monopoly.

Successive State governments used various regulatory powers to curb the power of the union in the 1970s:

The imposition of fines on unions after the 1968 strike, the penal provisions of the 1970 Teaching Services Act, the use of the Summary Offences Act, the cessation of deductions of union fees, and the use of section 37 against individual members were all examples of this process. (O’Brien, 1987:201)

These measures, in addition to the threats to de-register the union in the Industrial Commission, were a significant assault on union power.

The NSWTF emerged in the 1980s gaining many victories in terms of salaries, working conditions and increased funding to education. Despite this the State government
maintained a tight control over education policy-setting, which exists to the present day. The union movement had gained many concessions for its members however a significant input into the policy process was not achieved.

**Teacher education in Australia and NSW**

With government financing, systematic teacher education began in Australia in the State of NSW with the opening of the model school in Fort Street, Sydney, in 1850. The most enduring features of teacher education in Australia were the domination by government of most aspects of teacher training (Auchmuty, 1980). While there were initial steps to establish Church of England and Catholic teacher training, these were short-lived as the states tightened legislative control. In NSW, following the Public Schools Act of 1866, the training of teachers was predominantly state-controlled. By 1876 it was taken for granted that the state was responsible for the bulk of teacher training (Auchmuty, 1980). The failure of private teacher training was attributed to the lack of any clear religious hegemony and the generation of sectarian rivalry. This resulted in the withdrawal of government financial assistance to religion-based teacher training facilities.

The mode of teacher training adopted by the colonial government centered on the use of the pupil teacher scheme, which commenced in 1852 and involved a system of apprenticeship. This was used as a cost-effective means of training; “in essence the pupil-teacher offered cheap teaching as well as cheap training”. (Auchmuty, 1980:249) Under the pupil-teacher scheme, students as young as thirteen began teacher training on a low salary. After a four or five year apprenticeship, with yearly examinations, the
apprentice graduated with a teaching qualification. The educational standards attained by such training methods were considered to be "appallingly low". (Auchmuty, 1980:249) With growing disquiet about the failure and abuses of the scheme, the tightening of control saw standards rise. Despite this, economic realities dictated that the pupil-teacher scheme continued to provide a means of cheap labour to the school system.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century new systems of education were being envisaged. These were based on child-centred approaches, which entailed a stronger theoretical orientation and which were beyond the scope of the pupil-teacher training methods used at the time. The ideas of European educational theorists such as Pestalozzi, Frobel and Herbart informed educational thinking (Auchmuty, 1980). These new educational approaches demanded a greater sophistication in teacher training methods. A series of public enquiries into teacher training resulted in the establishment of teacher training colleges in each state capital by 1914. The establishment of colleges resulted from a need for a more sophisticated, theoretical approach and the acknowledgment of the need for the preparation of a more professional teaching workforce. By 1906 the pupil-teacher system was abolished in NSW although it persisted in other states for some time.

The Auchmuty Report (1980) indicates that in Europe, Scotland and England during the 1880s teacher training was being associated with and influenced by the university system. Australia followed this trend, with students in Sydney attending university classes. Around the country associations between teacher training and universities were growing. The slowly emerging educational thinking in Australia was to establish...
theoretical in addition to practical aspects of teacher training. This change led to the acceptance of the need for teachers in training to attend University. The first Chair in Education was established in Sydney in 1910, the incumbent retaining control of the local teachers’ college. Universities became the training grounds for secondary teachers with the establishment of the high school system while teacher training for the primary years occurred via the college system.

Between the two World Wars the trends previously observed were consolidated as teachers’ colleges strengthened their hold over teacher training. Courses became more detailed and of longer duration. By the 1940s in NSW it was considered unacceptable to expose students to junior or untrained teachers. Teachers were to be trained appropriately before being given responsibility over students (Auchmuty, 1980).

Within the college structure there was a wide diversity of course content. In most states, infants school training had been established and specialist areas such as art, music, commercial subjects, domestic science and manual arts existed. There was however a lack of universal provision of this course content. There was virtually no training for other specialists such as school administrators or for teachers of students with disabilities. The major training focus involved one or two years of training for primary teachers in the college system and a three-year university course for secondary teachers which was supplemented by a one-year teaching course. The dichotomy in teacher education resulted from the reluctance of the states to relinquish control over the bulk of teacher students who were trained in the college system. The departments of education maintained control over the college system often becoming directly involved in the organisational administration of these institutions. The colleges
themselves frequently had their staffing determined by the departments of education, with many lecturers drawn from the teaching service. That these employees were public servants reduced criticism from within and promoted a situation where the universities maintained a higher calibre of staff than the colleges. The fundamental problem of the structure of teacher education rested in the circumstance of the employing authorities' concern with cheapness and conservatism and their desire to retain control over teacher education (Auchmuty, 1980).

Two factors affected the provision of teacher education into the 1980s. These were related to demographic trends and the increasing involvement of the Federal government. The demographic changes produced a crisis in the under-supply of teachers, which was followed by extensive over-supply. The combined effects of high birth rates and high levels of immigration from 1945 had resulted in a large increase in the population of students in schools. The decision in most states to initiate some form of compulsory secondary schooling led to increases in the size of the secondary school system along with a raising of the compulsory school age to fifteen\(^{18}\). The growing belief in the community that increased education was a key to improved socio-economic circumstance also contributed to retention rates. A movement from academic-oriented subjects to more vocational studies was a response to the changed composition of the secondary school population.

\(^{18}\) Auchmuty (1980:253). Student population primary school from 856216 in 1947 to 1624713 in 1963: over the same period secondary figures increased from 234993 to 684614.
The response to the demand for teachers was an increase in the number of teachers' colleges from a post war figure of nine to a total of twenty-nine Australia-wide in 1964. Teachers' colleges were often located on the basis of political expediency and in communities which lacked the population to support viable enrolment figures. Many facilities were makeshift and poorly equipped. With the under supply of teachers, "the device historically employed in Australia for attracting more teachers was not to make the occupation much more attractive, but to make entry easier (with scholarships) and exit harder (by use of the bond\textsuperscript{19})." (Auchmuty, 1980:253) A survey by ACER (Auchmuty, 1980), concluded that teachers' college students had weaknesses in language skills, some were slow readers, attainment in mathematics was poor and among other listed deficits, many were poorly equipped to judge or perceive social problems. As a result of the poor candidature many colleges failed or terminated courses for poor performers. The response of education departments was to direct colleges to pass quotas of students according to their employment needs. Auchmuty (1980) reports that teacher trainees who had failed courses or had their candidature terminated were employed.

At the university level there were high failure rates. The Murray Report on Universities in 1957 indicated that "unless the schools can be staffed with soundly trained graduates, it is obvious that the whole education edifice is threatened". (Auchmuty, 1980:254) The under-supply of teachers was dealt with by various means such as short

\textsuperscript{19} The bond involved payment of a scholarship to students entering teachers' colleges. Students were subsequently bonded through a written agreement to serve for a period of time in a school location determined by the Department of Education.
courses and the transfer of primary teachers to secondary schools which were in greater need. In addition the recruitment of teachers from overseas, primarily from the United States, occurred. This move proved unpopular with many teachers due to the generous incentive packages provided to the overseas teachers employed. With an adjustment in supply and demand into the 1960s, the situation reversed to a point where more than half the applicants for entry to teacher training were being rejected and the new recruits were academically superior.

The advent of Piagetian principles established a new climate in education. This created a pressing need to modernise teacher-training methods, as current training did not equip teachers to manage the new philosophies. Well into the 1960s teacher training remained inherently conservative. Within colleges students were required to complete ten subjects or more at any one time, contact hours were high and students were closely scrutinised in terms of their attendance and behaviour. The structure of the college system was not conducive to developing positive attitudes towards learning. While NSW colleges moved in the direction of more theoretical approaches, the emphasis was still not strong. The pressure to complete courses within two years resulted in a conservative approach to the education of teachers. In the 1960s paternalism was a feature of college life with overt control by authorities of not only the college environment but of student extra-curricular activities. Many trainees were presenting from working class backgrounds and many educators felt a need to promote middle class values. It was commented that students from working class origins needed
to acquire the "generally accepted courtesies of an affluent middle class society". 

(Auchmuty, 1980:256) Thus, the socialisation of teachers was a prominent concern.

Within the lecturing ranks in colleges, tight control of activities was also apparent:

... as one college principal affirmed at the end of the 1960s: 'The education department' which runs the colleges determines the curriculum of the college and even, at times, the content of the syllabuses within it. The college's goal focus is clearly defined as 'what the department wants'. (Auchmuty, 1980:256)

While government control generated dissatisfaction in the colleges, internal public criticism was effectively controlled through the employer / employee relationship. As a result there was a gradual reduction in the quality of college staff throughout the 1950s and 1960s as the more able staff moved towards other academic careers. What followed was the extensive recruitment of staff with inferior qualifications. There were limited opportunities for teachers' college staff to undertake staff development and with high face-to-face teaching and supervision workloads, research by staff was severely restricted which led to increased criticism of the professionalism of the college system. Auchmuty (1980:257) indicates, "it was conceded that the evaluation of teachers' college courses was 'weak, unorganised and largely based on opinion'".
By the mid 1960s there were growing attacks on the inadequacies and, in particular, the brevity of teacher training programs. The Martin Report, commissioned in 1961 and completed in 1964, was to significantly change the nature of teacher training. The Federal Liberal government of Sir Robert Menzies accepted the recommendations of the Martin Report which were, in respect of teacher training, aimed at creating an independent college structure free of overt state government control. The states initially rejected the idea indicating that “teacher education was an integral part of the state systems, designed to suit their own schooling needs and therefore best remaining as their exclusive responsibility”. (Auchmuty, 1980: 258)

Despite the initial rejection of the Federal government proposals, the states soon fell into line as Federal government funding of teacher training facilities was only available where cooperation with the Martin Report was indicated. During the late 1960s the bulk of teacher education took place in multi-purpose colleges of advanced education (CAEs). The change in control of teacher training from state government to greater autonomy for colleges increased during the early 1970s. A report by the Senate Standing Committee on Education increased financial assistance by the Federal government which had the affect of “removal of control over colleges by employing authorities”. (Auchmuty, 1980: 260)

Increased restrictions to funding in the late 1970s saw reluctance by governments to increase funding to teacher training establishments. However, the Federal government funding initiatives had seen colleges establish greater autonomy and they were now
being controlled by statutory bodies. In this way "teacher education became more thoroughly integrated into the Australian tertiary education system". (Auchmuty, 1980:261)

The binary system of teacher education was modified through the involvement of the Federal government and the renegotiation of the funding arrangements between state and Federal governments in the 1970s. While ostensibly, legal responsibility for education rested with the States, the fact was that the financial power resided in the Federal government. Financing of higher education and teacher training in particular was dependent on State government adherence to Federal government policy initiatives. The result of these priorities can be summed up as a movement of teacher education into the university sector, which is more autonomous and less vulnerable to direct State government intervention. Along with this change there was a refocusing on improving the qualifications of teachers already in the workforce and recognition that continuous staff development deserved greater priority. The result of this shift in power was the "...direct intervention of the federal government in the nature of teacher education and the distribution of course offerings and research interests across teacher education institutions". (Pitman in Popkowitz, 1993:347)

With the increased Federal government role in the traditionally state-dominated education arena, the emphasis of policy-makers focussed on technical rationality and efficiency. With a weakening of the Australian economy in the 1980s, the directions in many sectors of society were linked to economic management. The priority of
economic factors is outlined in the Green and White papers issued by John Dawkins, the Federal Minister for Education in 1988. Through Federal government intervention, the consolidation and rationalisation of the tertiary education sector had occurred. Between 1980 and 1991 the number of state higher education institutions had been halved (Pitman, in Popkowitz, 1993).

With increased Federal government control of higher education, schools were directly tied to economic concerns. It was clearly stated that "education is an element of microeconomic policy in the restructuring of the Australian economy". (Pitman, in Popkowitz, 1993:349) The links among the roles and functions of education and government, social and economic policy were well established. Central to the ethos was efficiency in the use of increasingly scarce resources due to economic downturns and putting into action mechanisms which were to address the problems involved. Pitman (in Popkowitz, 1993) identifies a shift in the emphasis of the Federal education portfolio. The Whitlam Labor government of the early 1970s emphasised education and the arts. The subsequent Liberal-National Fraser government emphasised education, science and the arts. This was followed by an emphasis on employment, education and training under the Hawke and Keating Labor governments. The current Howard Liberal government continued an emphasis on economics into the late 1990's. An analysis of this shift sees a move to a technical rationalist and functional role for education in society with specific desirable outcomes, as opposed to a sociological perspective and the pursuit of general educational outcomes.
The shifts in the language of the debate on education has seen a movement from education as primarily a social and cultural endeavour, with education for citizenship, to education as an component of economic management. The emphasis on economic recovery has been manifested in the development of curriculum, which is closely associated with the established economic needs of the nation. Thus the education system does not appear as responsive to social or cultural values. Education seems to be driven by global agendas established far from our shores. In this circumstance the 'sciences,' including mathematics, are seen to have greater value than the 'arts'. There has been a subsequent demand to train teachers in particular areas of perceived need associated with the sciences rather than the humanities (Pitman, in Popkowitz, 1993).

The theme of linking economic management and control of education systems has become explicit and overt, not only in calls for Australia to become the 'clever country' by former Prime Minister Hawke but also in official government statements. John Dawkins was explicit in his statement to the OECD Inter-governmental Conference on Education in a Changing Society. Reforms in the education system were described as micro-economic policy (OECD, 1989). Ebbeck (1990), in his report on teacher education, further clarifies this view in stating:

Underpinning the new policies is the necessity to achieve a strong economic base for Australia ... To this end, the Government affirmed its intention that an increased share of total higher education resources should be directed to those fields of study of greatest relevance to
national goals and industrial development and economic restructuring.

(Pitman in Popkowitz, 1993:354)

With a pragmatic view of education centred on the functional needs of the economy and the establishment of an overt link between the economy and schooling, the "...school-work interface has become a focus". (Pitman in Popkowitz, 1993:354) This has led to an emphasis on teacher education in areas of greatest relevance to the national economy. The world of teaching has seen changes with economic pressures and changes in the nature of the relationship between school and the economy as the education system has become an instrument of government policy.

The professionalisation of teaching has resulted in the emergence of new tensions among the government, the bureaucracy and the unions. Pitman (in Popkowitz, 1993) identifies key motivating forces which have impacted on the nature of teacher education. The first of these is the movement towards a school-based curriculum orientation necessitating the need for courses designed to improve teachers' skills in the development and evaluation of curriculum. The second force has been the ability of the government to influence program structure and content in teacher education. The development of school-based curriculum was "closely tied to the push by teachers' unions for the professionalization of teaching". (Pitman, in Popkowitz, 1993:358) The ideological shift has been seen as a significant catalyst in redefining the work of teachers; "the attempt was to shift the metaphor of teaching from that of a factory foreman to one of being a member of a profession". (Pitman, in Popkowitz, 1993:358)
Such changes in the conceptualisation of the teacher’s role have had an impact on the content of teacher education courses. Along with the perception of change, the pressures on teachers in the work place have increased. A parallel shift occurred in the nature of knowledge which was to be imparted to teachers. The previous emphasis on courses such as the philosophy of education had been replaced with the more management-oriented courses of teacher supervision and curriculum development and evaluation, which are more in keeping with an economic rationalist ideology. This shift, as previously indicated, culminated in the 1980s with the overt linking of schools and the economy. Federal Government policy statements bear this out. In *Strengthening Australia’s Schools: A Consideration of the Focus and Content of Schooling*, it is stated that “Schools are the starting point of an integrated education and training structure in the economy ...They ... form the basis of a more highly skilled, adaptive and productive work force. In the same document it is also made clear that, “the central role of schools [is] in meeting the challenges of a changing economic and social climate” (Dawkins, 1988a in Dudley and Vidovich, 1995:123).

The disputes over teacher education can be interpreted as a three-way contest among teacher unions with a wide variety of agendas, the respective State governments which are eager to maintain the control they had and regain the influence they had lost and the Federal government which is keen to integrate the education system with the economic engine of the nation state. The results of such competition has created discord between the respective State governments, which have legislative control of
education and powers associated with teacher employment, the Federal government which wields the financial control and the union movement which to a significant degree, controls the work force required for the implementation of education. These three organisations are essential to the effective workings of the education industry through their respective spheres of influence.

Pitman (in Popkowitz, 1993) indicates that factors pushing Australian policy towards an economic rationalist view relate largely to international economic developments which have impacted on the Australian economy. Events including the OPEC oil crisis, the advent of new technologies, the reduced value of both food and mineral commodity prices and Australia's rising foreign debt crisis emerging in the 1980s, have directed Australian governments towards the reality of competition in an increasingly hostile world economy. Under the influence of global economic forces Australia has witnessed a process that is restructuring the power relationships between stakeholders and governments. The fundamental character of social and economic circumstances has significantly changed Australian society and culture.

The preparation of teachers for such change has been directed towards changing teacher thinking to suit circumstances, rather than teaching teachers to understand these circumstances. In teacher training it is desirable that students are provided with the lenses through which, as teachers, they can view, understand and ultimately be equipped to influence their own profession. They do not appear to have integrated the key factors that determine and direct their actions.
Summary

The historical dimensions explored include education from a political perspective, the role of the NSW Teacher's Federation and analysis of the development of teacher education. These separate analyses reveal several important trends.

With the establishment of the colony in NSW there was a pressing need for survival. This guided education towards the establishment of cheap and efficient methods. The central control of education was established and was dominated by the Church and the State. Teachers were of low status and were poorly paid and trained. In order to monitor education a central bureaucracy developed which maintains a tight grip on education to the present day. There was little consideration of the role of teachers in policy decision-making.

The major employing authority in NSW, the Department of Education, controlled teacher education until the late 1970s. This training to an extent focused on socialising teachers to established middle class values (Chapter 3 p.230). From the 1960s education came under increased political pressure as various stakeholder groups sought to influence education policy. Economic considerations came to the fore and teacher education was directed towards achieving economic goals. Teacher training reflected this need and did not focus on equipping teachers to exert influence in policy decision-making.

As the influence of the church declined in education other stakeholders emerged. Amongst these stakeholders was the NSW Teachers Federation which was formed in...
1918. With the increasing impact of global economic circumstances restructuring occurred as the nation attempted to become economically competitive. The education system thus became increasingly responsive to politics and the perceived needs of the economy. The response of Federation has been to establish partisan political affiliations. Possible conflicts of interest between professional issues and partisan political priorities may have at times denied teachers professional policy input through this organisation.

Throughout the history of education in NSW from the early days of central control to the current highly political climate, teachers have remained separate from the policy-making processes. Their training has reinforced the dominant ideologies and use of their expertise has been restricted to the implementation of policy decisions made outside the school environment. Policies related to education in NSW have not been made with any significant consideration of teacher expertise or the contributions that might be made by teachers to the policy decision-making process.

What then of the teacher’s role in education policy-making which is embedded in the nation-state? Sizer (1992:8) states, “the major elements of schooling are controlled outside the teacher’s world.” Thus teachers currently have little input into the interplay of power and politics that shapes the nature of education. Torres (1993:318) argues, “if our goal is an education for political and economic democracy and community empowerment, theories of the state and education should be continually revisited, in theoretical and practical terms, and actively used in educational research”.

Chapter Three – Literature Review
It is within the context of this proposition that the research questions were analysed here.
Conclusions

The literature review highlights the political nature of policy decision-making in education in NSW. As part of the political process determinations are made about the legitimacy of those who may have input into policy decision-making (pp.155-240). In educational policy the perspective of teachers does not appear to have been given serious consideration (pp.164-67). Teachers currently do not have legitimacy as stakeholders in educational policy decision-making (pp.158-67). Given the lack of involvement by teachers in policy decision-making, an aim of this literature review was to firstly establish if teachers should participate in the policy decision making process in education in NSW and to further determine if they could participate and indeed would participate. These questions were examined from the perspective of the state with reference to an existing body of policy knowledge.

The body of knowledge selected included various definitions of policy (pp.120-21), conceptualisations of the policy process and the 'policy space heuristic' as tools of analysis (pp.126-28). The state was examined in terms of the force or power (pp.135-53), which is evident, the mechanisms (pp.154-92), which give effect to this power and
time as represented in relevant historical analysis (pp. 193-240). With reference to these dimensions the research questions were explored.

Much of the literature was directed at answering the first research question, should teachers participate in policy decision-making in education in NSW? On this question several important themes emerge from the literature. It is clear that power is evident in all aspects of policy decision-making. It reinforces the dominant themes and ideologies that determine policy (p. 135). Currently these themes are derived from an economic orientation (p. 144). From this perspective there appears little room for teachers involvement in policy decision-making (pp. 145-46).

While decision-making is primarily reflective of economic need, teachers may not be in a position to contribute to policy formulation. Indeed they may well be perceived to hinder effective policy development (pp. 144-46). Economic themes may be described as an external force in educational policy-making, as these themes originate beyond education and have impacts across the whole of society (p. 144).

There are also internal forces within education which influence policies. These internal forces are reflected in the curriculum, the market orientation of schools and in the management of schools (pp. 146-49) The orientation of these internal forces may be linked to the external forces. Thus, from economic perspectives curricula should be
directed towards meeting economic needs, competition between schools is seen as positive and reflective of economic philosophies, and management tends to be bureaucratic (p.146). These themes are also evident in the way education systems prepare teachers (pp.150-52). Such training reinforces dominant ideologies and passes on the message to teachers that they must implement policy determined elsewhere. Thus, force or power in society reinforces dominant themes at all levels of education from the way teachers are trained, to the philosophical orientation of schools, to the way teachers performance is monitored and managed at the school level (pp.135-53).

The mechanisms used within the state to reinforce the dominant themes have had the effect of excluding teachers from the policy decision-making process. Teachers are not considered appropriate stakeholders in education because they have not established their legitimacy in the policy-making environment (pp.158-64). Essentially teachers and decision-makers have not experienced such involvement. This is not to say it should not occur. The various models of administration have constructed bureaucracies which simply have no mechanism which could facilitate teacher input. Similarly, few models conceive of a policy role for teachers beyond implementation (pp.176-87). An analysis of the mechanisms of the state reveals that there are no significant established structures through which teachers as professionals can participate in policy decision-making within the education system in NSW (pp.154-92).
Historical analysis revealed several important themes evident across the history of education, the history of teacher education and the history of the teachers’ trade union in NSW. It is revealed in the historical analysis that from Australia’s early convict beginnings teachers have been considered problematic by the educational bureaucracy (pp.193-240). Initially this was because of their lack of training and skill and subsequently because of their opposition to education authorities and their pursuit of improved wages and conditions (p.208). Those who direct education policy may therefore have perceived teachers as the ‘weak link’ in education. This has resulted in teacher training being directed towards establishing conformity to middle class values in the teaching population (p.230). Teachers have been prepared through their training to accept their place as policy implementers in education. It is desirable that course material in teacher training examines the political and policy processes that have such a profound impact on the working lives of teachers. The skills and knowledge teachers may require to gain a place within educational policy-making may not be imparted in current teacher training.

Teacher unions in their efforts to win benefits for their members have tended to reinforce the dichotomy between policy-makers and policy implementers. With the creation of such dichotomies common ground or compromise is difficult to achieve (p. 201). Policy is mandated and imposed on schools and teachers. Consultative processes are sometimes employed with the NSWTF, however, this union has limited agendas and has failed to win a legitimate place for teachers as professionals in policy-making.
The three historical analyses conducted are complementary in their assessment that dominant themes have resulted in processes which have reinforced teachers’ positions in society as a group of workers who require extensive direction and from time to time coercion to implement the policy determinations of policy makers. From the teachers’ perspective the policy makers are far removed from the substance of schooling (pp. 215-23).

If one considers the current position and accepts the dominant themes, teachers should not be involved in policy decision-making. This position may be based on historical expectations and precedent which presents difficulties in perceiving alternative methods. Despite the dominant philosophies and resultant practices there are other relevant points of view to consider.

The economic themes which currently dominate educational policy-making are not the only themes worthy of consideration. Other social themes may be given emphasis (p. 144). Philosophical positions have been highlighted which argue that teachers have a rightful place in policy-making by virtue of their central involvement in education. The expertise gained by teachers represents a societal investment in the training and as such should be used as a resource in policy-making. Some conceptualisations of the democratic process also argue that if teachers are affected by policies in education they have a right to involvement in policy decision-making (pp. 158-64).
Other evidence suggests that feedback from the point of implementation is a valuable asset to policy-makers who are interested in the outcomes of their policies (pp.164-67). Teachers are in a unique position to provide this feedback in education. Evidence on enduring policy change suggests that for policy to be effective it may be necessary to involve policy implementers in the process of policy-making. This is particularly evident in an area like education where the activities of teachers in the classroom are not closely monitored. If this does not occur, the research suggests that many education policies may not 'penetrate the classroom door' (pp.168-72). Research on organisational climate suggests that more successful organisational structures involve traditional policy implementers in other stages of policy development (pp.188-90). Evidence on teacher empowerment also suggests that the teacher's point of view needs to be heard and teachers need to believe that the expression of their opinions on policy can result in change. Such structures lead to empowerment, improved motivation and commitment to their roles (pp.168-72;pp.184-88). In addition recent trends towards the professionalisation of teaching suggest that traditional bureaucratic management of teachers and policy decision-making may be incompatible with professionalism and the higher levels of commitment sought from teachers (pp.188-90).

The answer to the initial research question lies in stated assumptions. If one assumes that economic themes must dominate and that teachers may therefore only play a role in implementation, then teachers clearly have no role to play in educational policy decision-making. Such a position however may preclude establishing improved organisational climate, professionalising the teaching service and establishing higher
expectations of teachers. If desirable outcomes in education reach beyond economic considerations, then there is evidence to suggest that finding ways to involve teachers in policy decision-making has many benefits, which include improved performance (pp.185-88).

Because the question of whether teachers should be involved in policy decision-making has not been seriously considered the literature has relatively little to say about whether they could be involved in policy decision-making or indeed if they would. It is logical to suggest however that teachers could be involved in policy decision-making. It is a question of altering power structures and establishing legitimacy. Teachers must certainly acquire power and legitimacy if they are to have input into policy decision-making (p.28). Because politics is dynamic in nature, being largely determined by public opinion, teachers may in fact create a role for themselves in educational policy making. There is understandably very little evidence to indicate if teachers would become involved in policy decision-making; that which is available gives some indications. Teachers would participate in policy decision-making if the policy of concern were relevant to them and if they perceive that their point of view was to be considered in policy decisions (p.186).

This literature review outlines a substantial amount of knowledge that could be relevant to teachers if they were to play a more active role in policy decision-making in education in NSW. The researcher faced the dilemma of how such knowledge could be effectively imparted to teachers. This led to the construction of a policy curriculum, the rationale for and content of which is detailed in the following chapter.

Chapter Three - Literature Review
The findings of the literature review (Chapter 3) suggested that key policy knowledge might assist in resolving problems associated with teachers' failure to participate in policy decision-making in education in NSW. The literature review also served to define the nature of the knowledge that could be of use. The researcher considered how such knowledge could be restructured and imparted to teachers. The development of a policy curriculum for teachers occurred as one possible means of resolving the identified problem of a lack of policy knowledge by teachers.

The methodology (Chapter 2) was applied and provided the structure of the literature review (Chapter 3). This basic structure encompassed two elements of knowledge: firstly, an existing 'body of policy knowledge' comprising definitions of policy as a process, the policy space and conceptions of power; secondly, the findings of the literature review focussing on a selected 'theory of the state' that is considered within a framework consisting of the elements of force, mechanisms and time.

The knowledge identified through the literature review was restructured in order to create a suitable framework for use as a curriculum.
This format is reflected in five units. These are,

- Unit 1 Teachers and Policy Knowledge.
- Unit 2 Structure and Function of Education Systems.
- Unit 3 Schools’ and Teachers’ Roles in Society.
- Unit 4 Influences on Educational Policy-making.
- Unit 5 Teacher Professionalism.

These units represent one possible curriculum structure and also identify samples of specific content established by the researcher through the course of this investigation.

In an effort to establish teachers’ views on the usefulness and validity of this curriculum, a curriculum summary was produced (Appendix C). This curriculum summary was then presented to focus groups of teachers. Thus, in addition to answering the primary research questions the focus groups were also used to critique the policy curriculum developed. The broad aim was to link the theoretical findings established through the literature review with the expressed opinions of teachers.
The Policy Curriculum

This policy curriculum is presented as an outline of core content which could form the basis of a course for teachers in training. It is anticipated that this course could form a discrete elective subject. More sophisticated content would need to be available to teachers extending qualifications to Masters Degree level. Pre-service training would be presented as an optional course for those interested in future leadership and management roles in education. Masters level students would be drawn from those with a number of years experience in an education system who already hold or aspire to leadership positions. The course content would be delivered through traditional lecture and tutorial formats. It is also anticipated that there would be significant opportunity with the development of the new standards framework in NSW to incorporate knowledge of educational policy processes into advanced stages of the teacher standards framework. There is also potential for online learning technologies to be employed in order to reach a wider audience. Evaluation of efficacy would occur through course evaluations and surveys of students who had completed course material analysing their level of preparedness and perceived effectiveness to influence policy formulation.

Unit 1 Teachers and Policy Knowledge

Rationale:

Teachers work in a political world in which the policies that are formulated as a result of the political process significantly affect their professional lives. The research findings
revealed that policy knowledge might assist teachers to operate more effectively in this policy-making environment. Knowledge of policy is required in order to provide a framework for the analysis of policy-related issues. Unit one thus aims to provide a structure for subsequent material examined by students.

**Key Concepts:**

The first unit will identify the key elements of policy knowledge that will allow teachers to examine and influence the policy process. This knowledge includes some introductory concepts such as definition of policy, the policy process, the policy space and theoretical aspects of power.

**Policy**


The term 'policy' has a variety of meanings evident in the literature. In order for students to clearly analyse policy they should have a knowledge of the various definitions such that the perspectives of all those in the policy process can be understood. Definitions of policy provide a context for subsequent analysis.

**The Policy Process**

There are various conceptualisations of policy that are highlighted through an examination of the definitions of policy. One such definition of particular value examines policy as a process. An analysis of policy as a process considers the dynamic nature of policy-making. Through studies of policy as a process students are able to map key actors and issues and their relative influence on the subsequent formulation of policies.

The Policy Space


The policy space heuristic is a conceptual framework useful in the examination of policy issues. The policy space heuristic guides analysis and subsequent understandings of policy-related issues.

Theoretical Aspects of Power


Power and its use is a key understanding in the formation of policies. Theoretical understandings of power allow students to analyse the forces that create particular policies in particular ways. An examination of power also allows students to critique the interests that are served in policy formulation.
Unit 2 Structure and function of education systems

Rationale:

Unit two will identify the roles and functioning of NSW DET units and explore the responsibilities of these units. The legislation under which the department operates will be examined. Comparisons will be drawn between the private system in the form of Catholic and Independent schools and international comparisons will examine the United States, German and British education systems.

The purpose of unit two is to ensure that teachers have a clear understanding of the structure of the system that influences their working life and enable teachers to critique this system with reference to other possible structures.

Key Concepts:

The Administration of Education


Education in NSW has been administered through an extensive bureaucracy. The literature reveals several models of administration which require analysis. The models
however, do not fully account for the administration of education in NSW. Students will examine the shortcomings of the literature on the topic.

**Relevant Legislation in NSW**


Legislation relevant to the conduct of education in NSW including the Education Reform Act (1990) and the Teaching Services Act (1980) will be examined in order to provide a legislative framework for the examination of education policy issues.

**Evolving Department Structures in NSW**


The structure of the current NSW Department of Education and Training (NSW DET) has altered over a period of more than one hundred years. Over the last decade these changes have been profound. Change has occurred at an increasing rate and is likely to continue to occur. Students will examine the nature of this change in order to place future change they encounter in an historical context.
Education System Comparisons

- Comparative Australian Systems - Catholic, Independent, the States.
- International Comparisons - United States, Britain, Germany.

For education systems to be adequately examined comparisons are required between possible alternative structures. Within Australia various private education systems are in competition with the NSW State system. There are also systems evident in other states of Australia, which can provide comparisons. International comparisons provide a greater range of alternative structures. Considerations are also made of how particular cultural and social environments are reflected in educational systems. Similarities and differences will be explored.

Unit 3 Schools' and teachers’ roles in society

Rationale:

The purpose of unit three is to enable teachers to consider the social context in which they operate. This will assist teachers in exploring the boundaries and constraints of their role. Teachers currently operate within schools and education systems that play a key role in society. This role is concerned with the education of citizens to function within society. The role of teachers however is ill-defined with forces pulling schools and teachers in different directions.
The changing social values and beliefs about schools and the relative influence of different stakeholder groups will be explored in terms of changing government priorities. Domestic and international forces and trends which influence government policy will be highlighted. Competing philosophies on the legitimacy of teacher involvement and definitions of appropriate stakeholders in education will also be examined.

**Key Concepts:**

**The Role of Teachers**


Various conceptualisations of the teacher's role will be explored from a philosophical perspective. Some view teachers as line workers and implementers of government policy. Others conceived of a fuller role for a teacher that includes input into policy decision-making. These conceptualisations will be analysed with referenced to the broader roles and responsibilities of teachers.

**Changing Values**

- Changing social values, beliefs and resultant government priorities (Dudley and Vidcovich (1995)).
Throughout the history of politics in Australia and NSW governments have responded to changing circumstances. These changes have resulted in different emphases that are often reflected in policy from the social welfare orientation of the 60s and 70s to the economic orientation of the 80s and 90s. Students will examine the impact of these changes on schools and teachers.

**Stakeholders**


The relative influence of various stakeholders in the policy space is an important consideration. Definitions of stakeholder will be discussed along with conceptualisations of appropriate stakeholders in educational policy decision-making. The relative influences and the motivations of the key stakeholders will be analysed with reference to changing social influences. Change will be examined from the initial domination of the state and the church in early education policy to the present.
Unit 4 Influences on educational policy-making

Rationale:

Educational policy-making occurs in a political context. A number of internal forces within the education bureaucracy and external forces beyond education influence education policy decision-making.

The fourth unit examines the internal forces operating in education that influence policy. These may be defined as the curriculum, the market and management. External forces in the form of social and economic agendas are given particular emphasis. Teachers will explore the issues beyond education which drive policy-making. The role of teacher unions and teacher education will also be explored in this context.

It is the purpose of this unit to allow teachers to consider that particular policies within education evolve as a result of factors well beyond the confines of the education system itself. Teachers will explore the notion that educational values do not necessarily drive educational policy and the implications for stakeholders of attempting to influence policy decision-making.
Key Concepts:

External Forces

- External forces on policy making (House, 1991; Dudley and Vidovich, 1995).

There are external forces in educational policy-making which exist beyond the education system. These forces are currently economic in nature, however more socially-oriented themes have had a greater impact on educational policy-making in the past. The impact of these forces will be examined.

Internal Forces

- Internal forces of education policy - curriculum, market, management (Ball, 1992).

Three major influences will be examined in terms of the curriculum, which is centrally mandated, the increasing market orientation of schools and management styles currently operating. Each of these influences will be examined with specific examples of their influence on schools and teachers.
Unit 5 Teacher Professionalism

Rationale:

The fifth unit will explore aspects of professionalism that will include notions of teacher autonomy and motivation, professionalism versus bureaucratic control of education. Factors affecting teacher empowerment including status, access to decision-making, knowledge and willingness to accept both the power and accountability of policy-making will be explored.

Within unit five models of teacher involvement in the policy process will be identified including teachers as resistors of change, supporters of policy and teachers as policy-makers in practice.

Key Concepts:

Professionalism

The professionalism of the teaching service has been given some emphasis in the education literature and in public commentary. Professionalism of teaching may be incompatible with the current management of the education system. Thus it may not be possible to professionalise a workforce and continue to impose bureaucratic styles of management. This notion will be considered.

Teachers' Empowerment


Some research (Maeroff, 1988) identifies a number of factors, which affect the empowerment of teachers. These factors will be discussed and juxtaposed against the current conditions of teachers-work for match and miss-match.

Organisational Culture


Organisational culture influences the effectiveness of organisations. The factors that contribute to organisational effectiveness will be identified and examined with reference to the role of teacher.
Models of Teachers in Policy-making


The scope of the role of teacher in society will be explored with reference to the various models of policy-making which define the teacher’s role. Different models of the policy process place the teacher’s role in different contexts. While some models perceive teachers to be implementers other models acknowledge a role for teachers in decision-making. The rationales and relative merits of such models will be critiqued.
CHAPTER FIVE

OPERATIONALISATION / DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The literature review findings indicated that a lack of policy knowledge was one possible barrier to teachers’ participation in the policy process. As an aspect of this research effort a policy curriculum (Chapter 4) was developed by the researcher in order to present a solution to the problem of teachers’ lack of policy knowledge.

In addition to the literature review two focus groups were conducted. The focus groups assisted in answering the research questions, allowed comparisons of literature review and focus group data and gathered data on teacher opinions on the policy curriculum developed. The two focus groups comprised seven and five participants respectively. The sample was drawn from teachers employed with the NSW DET. The focus groups comprised nine practicing primary or secondary school classroom teachers, two specialist teachers servicing students with learning difficulties and one school counsellor. The focus groups were formed from those who responded to a request for volunteers. The researcher knew seven participants prior to the research in a professional capacity. A description of the focus group methodology occurs in Chapter Two (pp.109-117). The purpose of the focus group report is to support an exploratory study and as a guide to

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further research. The findings of the focus groups have limited generalizability. The focus group questions (Appendix B) were developed in order to answer the research questions and to elicit teacher responses to a summary of a proposed policy curriculum. The focus group results are presented as a descriptive narrative and incorporate the statements of focus group participants. The focus groups revealed several important dimensions of teachers’ views about policy and policy decision-making thereby providing data that contribute to the research aims.

Focus Group Report

The researcher was interested in what teachers think about their place in the educational policy-making environment. The opinion of some teachers’, as expressed in the focus groups, indicated that they believe that policies are important because they were considered to provide "a framework and accountability" (participant c, focus group 1)\(^1\) and "they give us guidelines" (participant v, focus group 2). Policies were generally perceived to have value in providing uniformity in respect of decision-making. This uniformity was considered to be of value across the state system. The inherent need to provide a set of guidelines, which assisted teachers in their role, was acknowledged by the teachers surveyed. However, despite the fact that a number of teachers considered policies important, the level of consciousness of most policies appeared to be low.

\(^1\) A letter, followed by an indication of the group (1 or 2) in which the participant was involved, identifies the participant.
Some teachers indicate a vague awareness of many policies: “you wouldn’t even be able to think of what the cover looks like in most cases to be perfectly honest” (participant m, focus group 1). More detailed understandings of specific policies which affect teachers’ practice however, was indicated “if a topic was close to your heart, you would know that topic better” (participant v, focus group 1). There was some indication through the focus groups that teachers created a dichotomy between what were considered relevant and non-relevant policies. Relevant policies appeared to be those which not only affected their practice but were also of particular interest to them. Non-relevant policies may also affect teachers’ practice however they are not of particular interest to the teachers when questioned. Despite this it was also evident that many policies were part of the culture of schools and were generally beyond the level of consciousness: “well I think it’s there at that constant level at the back of your mind, you might not be thinking of every aspect of every policy every day” (participant v, focus group 1). Thus many policies, while they initially appeared to be of no relevance to teachers, did in fact impact on their working lives and subtly direct their actions to a greater extent than many teachers were aware of or acknowledged.

Some focus group participants indicated that teachers were willing to adhere to most policies although passive resistance to some policies was evident: “I was about to disagree with C then, I think a lot of people ignore policy” (participant Ca, focus group 1). Another participant indicated, “you can just ignore it (policy)” (participant p, focus group 2). However as one participant concluded, "that doesn't change policy you just get away with not following policy" (participant b, focus group 2).
There was also some active resistance to imposed models of teaching. Participants in both focus groups mentioned the introduction of grammar into the curriculum as a single instance they could cite of teachers actively resisting policy and bringing about change. Despite the instance cited, resistance to the policy described by both focus groups tended to be passive. Most participants indicated a willingness to adhere to policy or were indifferent to policies which did not appear to affect their immediate practice.

Teachers in the focus groups were very clear and reached consensus about the issue of their relative importance in policy-making. The participants perceived they have little power or influence in respect of policy and they could not perceive any effective mechanism at their disposal to influence policy. "As long as we are public servants we are employees, we are restricted in what we can do" (participant Ca, focus group 1); and "there isn't much of a forum for you to make an opinion or object" (participant l, focus group 2); and "you can't influence so why bother" (participant r, focus group 2). Two teachers raised issues in the focus groups which indicated that they believed that there are sanctions for not following policy and teachers who had inadvertently contravened policy expressed a sense of intimidation in terms of the response from the employing authority. In this sense some teachers have a clear understanding that policy is political and that they have little political power: "it's all political and if you want change you have to go about it politically" (participant m, focus group 1). Participants in focus group one agreed that parents and other lobby groups in the community have more power than teachers
themselves to influence policy. "Parents would have much more influence than I would have, they are not going to listen to me as an employee" (participant v. focus group 1).

Although participants were aware of some instances of teacher involvement in policy-making, through participation by a small number of selected teachers in curriculum development, most teachers in the focus groups did not consider that they were adequately consulted in respect of policy decisions or that the teachers selected to have input into policy necessarily represented their interests. In addition some teachers in the focus groups expressed a lack of confidence that policy-makers were more informed than themselves: "I don't necessarily feel that the people telling me what to do know better or more than me" (participant Ca, focus group 1), such comments met with general agreement. While teachers participating in the focus groups were not satisfied with the current state of affairs in respect of their input into policy decisions, they could not see any of ways of becoming more involved.

The initial data obtained from the focus groups broadly established teachers' perceptions of their place in the policy-making world. Several important issues came to light. Firstly, teachers acknowledged the importance of policy to the functioning of education; they did however articulate different areas of interest in respect of the vast number of policies with a bearing on education. Secondly, teachers indicated an awareness of the political nature of policy-making, however specific understandings of the political processes at work was not evident. Generally teachers understood policy to be 'political' however they were unable to elaborate. Thirdly, teachers were positive that they were a relatively powerless
group in respect of policy-making. While they considered themselves to be incapable in their professional capacity of influencing policy, they did express the view that many other groups, parents in particular, were free to influence policy decisions. Fourthly, teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the current state of policy decision-making. This dissatisfaction was expressed in terms of their inability to influence policy and because they believed that current policy-makers were not necessarily representing their interests or the interests of their students.

The first research question was: Should teachers be involved in policy decision-making? One teacher indicated that they felt they should be involved in policy making: "I think their should absolutely be a role" (participant Ca, focus group 1). This met with general agreement. Teachers were more likely to express this view on specific issues which impacted on their practice: "I think the classic example of this is integration... Never once have they stopped and asked teachers well what do you think?" (participant j, focus group 1). When asked if they were satisfied with their involvement the consensus was that they were not satisfied with their involvement in the specific issues that concerned them: "I never have been, I've been going to professional development for 30 years and all of a sudden they say the way you have been teaching reading, spelling and everything, we're stopping that and doing this. I think why? Have they asked me, has that worked for me? Yes it has! But I have to do it this way whether I want to or not. Because somebody says so... I think a lot of us and I'm an example of that, I take what I feel is the best system from what comes along and still stick to what works for me" (participant Ca, focus group 1).
While some teachers saw a need for uniform guidelines across the system, in some instances teachers also expressed the view that school-based policy decisions were appropriate due to the wide variety of school community needs evident across the NSW system. One teacher expressed the view that she was "personally offended" (participant Ca, focus group 1) by some imposed decision-making in respect of curriculum. Teachers in one focus group agreed with the statement that, "not every teacher is represented by these people making policies... I am told and have been told constantly all my teaching life what to do. I can interpret some of it in my own way but very little of it can I not perform" (participant Ca, focus group 1). Another participant continued this theme stating that, "what I get upset about, its who is telling me" (participant b, focus group 1) indicating a lack of confidence in policy makers on some issues.

Most teachers responded positively when questioned as to whether they should be involved in policy. They also expressed significant dissatisfaction with the current situation: "you look at the hierarchy where they are located, after you have consulted with this person, and this person, and this person, right at the bottom, the person who is going to do all the work, guess what? no consultation at all" (participant b, focus group 1). Generally participants were of the opinion that they should be involved in aspects of policy decision-making which are relevant to their practice. They perceived themselves to be educated individuals with much to contribute on specific aspects of policy relevant to their expertise: "we are all educated people and you tend to question" (participant c, focus group 1), they also considered it unsatisfactory that given their expertise that they should not have greater input into educational policy-making.
The second research question was: Could teachers be involved in policy decision-making? Teachers in the focus groups expressed the view that they are socialised through teacher training and within the system to accept adherence to current policy-making structures. They experienced difficulty in conceiving of alternate structures: "I don't think we question it either because when we went through University or college or whatever we were told that's what you do, because, what do I do if I don't follow policy? No one ever speaks up about it" (participant c, focus group 1).

In terms of involvement in policy-making, teachers perceived that this was dependent on specific political pressure: "I think you need to know the system. When you write the letter you need to know where you send the scud to so that it sends a bit of a shock wave" (participant m, focus group 1). "But it's like a current affairs show, if there is a problem and it is public and you get the public behind you, you have more chance of changing things than as a staff writing in" (participant c, focus group 1). A small number of teachers raised the issue of political awareness indicating that "you have to learn to play the game" (participant v, focus group 1). Participants indicated that the decision makers they had access to were far removed from the decision-makers on broader educational policy. Policy decision-makers were considered to be protected by a layer of bureaucracy and relied upon site managers to ensure compliance with their policy decisions. Despite the fact that teachers perceived the importance of their role, they expressed feelings of disempowerment in the current structure: "I often think that as teachers we have the future of the world in our hands at any given time during the day. If teachers aren't
empowered to have some sort of influence in how we teach, what we teach, and more importantly why we teach. I've thought that for a long time that I am just a public servant” (participant ca, focus group 1). Thus, while teachers believed they could participate in policy-decision making in terms of their knowledge base and expertise on particular issues, they perceived their status and role within the education system of NSW to be a significant barrier to such involvement. As one participant stated: "if you are constantly being dictated to you are no longer responsible " (participant l, focus group 2), indicating that if teachers did not partake in policy decision-making they were not responsible for the outcomes of the decision-making process.

The third research question asks: Would teachers be involved in policy decision-making in NSW? Teachers indicated they would participate if the policy was of personal interest to them: “Oh yes, I think if I had any input into something like the integration issue, for instance, like writing submissions, I would” (participant b, focus group 1). Teachers however were not clear about the logistics of involvement in policy decision-making. They considered themselves to be more practical in their thinking than current policy-makers and expressed the view that teachers may not be interested in writing down many policies. Teachers were clear about the conditions under which they would like to enter policy decision-making: “if it was a topic you felt strong enough about, you would” (participant v, focus group 1). Teachers’ opinions throughout the two focus groups were more strongly stated when the discussion touched on issues that were important to them personally. Teachers also indicated that they needed to believe that policy-makers heard their point of view. Within the focus groups participant interests were relative to the
policy being discussed. A high level of engagement was evident on issues that were controversial and of interest to teachers. On these issues teachers expressed a great desire to be involved in decision-making.

In addition to the research questions the focus groups were also asked to comment on the value of the policy curriculum that was presented to them in the form of a summary (Appendix C). In terms of the curriculum outline presented, teachers believed that "a certain amount of experience through the years [was required] in order to become a decision maker" (participant j, focus group 1) was required. A participant in focus group 2 considered it problematic that inexperienced teachers may participate in policy decision-making. Despite this, most teachers believed that the curriculum should be provided: "in teacher training but what the individual does with it is up to them. Some would be committed, some would just go along. If you gave them all of this in teacher training which is the only opportunity to do that, then it's up to them, ... it is [important] that they have the opportunity." (participant Ca, focus group 1). Some teachers indicated that in the least the material presented in the policy curriculum should be drawn to the attention of teachers in training.
Conclusions

Within the two focus groups there was much that teachers failed to articulate about the topic under investigation. These omissions are worthy of consideration. Firstly, teachers did not indicate knowledge of the politics of policy decision-making or of the system of which they are a part. They did not appear to have knowledge of other education systems such that comparisons could be made. The NSW public education system was in most cases their only educational frame of reference. While teachers expressed the general view that they should be a part of policy decision-making they also expressed feelings of disempowerment. While teachers want to be a part of policy decision-making they feel disempowered. This sense of disempowerment may be due to a lack of knowledge of or any perspective on the workings or dynamics of the policy process which, in turn, is an obstacle to teachers putting forward their values and opinions. Teachers in the focus groups generally expressed the view that power would need to be given to them rather than acquired by them through their own actions. Mugridge (1998:70) states “Smyth (in Crowther and Ogilvie: 1992:132) suggests teachers need to develop ways of making themselves heard in the political arena and more forceful in putting their educational values forward”.

The focus group data reveal that teachers did not appear to have considered the issue of their place in educational policy-making. In terms of the first research question, teachers
believed that they should be involved in policy decision-making because of their expertise and the fact that education policy affected them in their role. These findings are supported by Mugridge (1998:67) who indicates that, “all but one of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that teachers should be involved in the policy process”. In terms of the second research question teachers believed they could participate in many aspects of educational policy-making which were relevant to them. These findings are also supported by Mugridge (1998:67) who indicated that, “...most respondents agreed that they are able to make important contributions to policy making”. However, they were only vaguely aware of the political structures which militated against such involvement. Teachers were therefore pessimistic about their chances of participating in policy decision-making. “Respondents indicate that most teachers perceive a lack of power in relation to policymaking, ... Most respondents did not feel they were in a strong political position to influence policymaking”. (Mugridge, 1998:70) In terms of the third research question, teachers indicated they would participate in policy decision-making under two conditions. Firstly, issues needed to be personally relevant to them and, secondly, they needed to be convinced that their views would be seriously considered in any policy decisions made. These findings are supported by Mugridge (1998), who indicates that most teachers indicated a willingness to be involved in policy-making.

Dinham and Scott (1998:9) indicate that while teachers are satisfied with many aspects of their work which are intrinsic to teaching “…dissatisfiers are largely out of the control of teachers and schools, and found within the wider domain of society, governments, and the employing body”. These authors cite evidence which indicates that control may be an
important factor in workplace stress and health. Issues which are presented as being outside the control of teachers includes educational change, "... as education has become more politicised and various stakeholders have had greater influence, and this could help to explain the decline in satisfaction experienced by the majority of teachers surveyed in all three countries". (Dinham and Scott (1998:10) These findings tend to support the current research thrust and point to the need for teachers to establish more control over those factors which cause workplace stress including input into educational policy decision-making.

To this point this research has analysed the literature on teacher involvement in the policy process in NSW and the expressed opinions of teachers through focus groups. The following Chapter (Research Report) links these two areas of analysis to establish the research findings.
CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH REPORT

Findings

This research derived from an interest of the researcher in the place of teachers in policy
decision-making in the NSW public education system. Within this system there appeared
to be few mechanisms through which the professional knowledge and skills of teachers
could be expressed as an aspect of policy decision-making. This situation prompted
further investigation.

The research started with the research questions;

- Should teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process in education in
  NSW?
- Could they be involved in this process? and
- Would they be involved?
These questions were investigated through a research process (Chapter 1, Figure 1.1). This process included the establishment of an appropriate methodology (Chapter 2, Figures 2.2 & 2.3). The methodology incorporated a literature review (Chapter 3) followed by two focus groups (Chapter 5) which were applied to a limited degree as a stimulus for discussion.

Prior to the conduct of the research, the researcher had certain beliefs and expectations related to the purpose, the value and the likely results of this research. These beliefs had not been empirically tested and were based largely on experience and knowledge of the system under investigation (pp.1-7). These views required confirmation or refutation through a research process. The most significant of these beliefs can be simply stated.

Firstly, teachers were perceived by the researcher to work within an intensely political circumstance. This political circumstance was seen to have a profound influence on the way teachers were able to fulfil their professional responsibilities (p.129). Both the literature review and the focus groups supported this position. Within the literature review the works of Torres (1996), Popkowitz (1993) and House (1991) support the view that teachers work in political climate. There were no findings which indicated that teachers were isolated from the political process. Teachers who participated in the focus groups reinforced the literature review findings by indicating an awareness of the political nature of their role: "Any policy is a political issue" (participant c, focus group 1).
Educational policy-making in NSW seemed to be dominated by groups whose interests went well beyond the sphere of education (p.144). Policy, was therefore, not necessarily formulated with the best interests of students or teachers in mind. The researcher believed that, from their perspective in the classroom, teachers did not fully appreciate the significance of such control of public education (p.146). While teachers were considered to be aware in a general sense of the politics which shape education policy, they did not appear to have detailed knowledge of the processes at work, how they specifically affect their role or how they might go about influencing such processes (p.147). It was the belief of the researcher that the position of teachers in the education policy decision-making process had wide implications for the fulfilment of their role, including the motivation and commitment they brought to the classroom. The literature review, in particular the works of Dudley and Vidovich (1995), Heinecke and Stohl (1998) and Ball (1993), reinforced these views. The focus groups revealed a perception by teachers that education was part of a political process, however participants failed to articulate the nature of the influences at work or the processes that were involved in policy decision-making. Teachers simply described education as 'political'.

The nature of the policy decision-making system in which teachers were embedded was perceived by the researcher to affect the quality of teachers' work (p.147). Because teachers were highly educated and because they lacked an avenue for the expression of their expertise their response to their role was considered problematic (p.149). This was reflected in a perceived culture of low motivation and cynicism about the education system in which they operate. This view was supported in the literature (Maslen, 1995...
and Sharpe, 1998). The focus groups also supported this view: "...I've thought that for a long time that I am just a public servant" (participant Ca, focus group 1). The researcher wondered if such a circumstance could be changed with a change in the role of the teacher to incorporate greater involvement by teachers in policy decision-making in NSW. This was based on a perception by the researcher that greater involvement in decision making by employees results in greater commitment at the point of implementation and improved chances of policy success. The literature review supported this notion (Maeroff, 1988 and Kirby, et al 1994).

Secondly, if teachers had policy relevant knowledge, where was this knowledge to find expression? It was the view of the researcher that such knowledge and skills should be incorporated into educational policy decision-making in NSW public education. Furthermore, it could be considered the responsibility of education authorities to seek to use the knowledge and skills of the profession. The likely benefits of this were seen to flow from ensuring that educational opinions and influence counterbalanced the perceived economic domination of policy decision-making (Klein, 1977; Walker, 1989; Howard, 1970). In addition inclusion in the decision-making processes by teachers was seen as having potential to increase professionalism, motivation and to ultimately translate into better outcomes for students in the classroom (Cuba, 1990; Retsinas, 1982; Maeroff, 1988). The literature on this topic tended to support the researcher's view that teachers had a worthwhile knowledge base that could be applied as an aspect of policy decision-making (Walker, 1989 and Klein, 1977). The focus groups also supported
the view that teachers should be involved in policy decision-making processes: “I think there should absolutely be a role” (participant Ca, focus group 1).

Thirdly, the researcher was interested in the mechanisms and rationale for the exclusion of teachers from policy decision-making and how these could be changed. Was political mandate a good enough reason to exclude professional educators from input into educational policy decision-making? How could teacher involvement in policy decision-making be facilitated?

It was clear to the researcher that those contributing to policy decision-making had to acquire a range of skills prior to establishing legitimacy in the policy world. (McNeil, 1990; McMorrow, 1998). This was necessary before policy decision-making could become a reality for teachers. It was also apparent to the researcher that most teachers not only did not have policy decision-making legitimacy, but also did not appear to have the knowledge or skills suitable to operate in the policy-making environment. The focus groups highlighted the belief that teachers are ill-prepared to participate in this environment. The researcher then considered how such a situation could be remedied. Participation by teachers in policy decision-making in public education in NSW appeared to require the meeting of a number of criteria.

Firstly, teachers would require the knowledge and skills necessary to understand the policy process itself (Berlo, 1960). This would include aspects of how policy is constructed and the nature of the power structures at work.
Secondly, teachers would require an understanding of education policy in particular and the specific forces which influence education policy. This would be viewed from the context of the policy process.

Thirdly, teachers would require the knowledge described as a prerequisite to establish legitimacy for their involvement in policy decision-making. It was the perception of the researcher that such legitimacy would not be easy to achieve.

The significance of such an investigation is in the identification of the teacher's role in policy decision-making and identifying problems with existing structures. This process highlights potential for change. Such exploration thus has the potential to change the power relationships in educational policy-making leading to greater educational input into policy decisions. This would be achieved through the provision of educational feedback from teachers to policy-makers.

In revealing that teachers exist in a political world, the level of political activity in terms of policy setting appeared to be beyond the experience of most teachers. Political structures reinforce current circumstances that preclude input from teachers. In order to change this situation the research indicated that greater knowledge of and skill in policy processes might be necessary. One way in which teachers could obtain this is through specific curriculum material. This resulted in the construction of the policy curriculum outlined in Chapter 4.
In short, the research revealed that the nature of policy decision-making had resulted in the exclusion of teachers with potentially important contributions to make. It was clear that power must be acquired and legitimacy established or the potential of teachers in policy decision-making would remain unfulfilled. The research focused attention on the value of expert knowledge and how it could be utilised to provide improved educational policy decision-making. This was seen to have the potential to restructure the way policy decision-making occurred and ultimately the quality of education provided.

Both the literature-based research and the findings of the focus groups indicated that teachers should participate in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW as this was perceived to benefit teacher professionalism and educational outcomes. They could participate in this process given the prerequisite knowledge and skills; and teachers would participate if this involvement related to policies that were of interest to them and they perceived their point of view would be considered in subsequent policy formulation.

Implications For Policy Practice In NSW

Policy practice in public education in NSW has excluded teachers from input into the policy decision-making process. The research highlights that the professional status of teachers could be raised with an expanding professional role in policy decision-making.
process through a manifestation of knowledge and skills acquired through expanded teacher education. Teachers would then exert influence over policy through their voiced opinions of policy issues. Such opinion could more easily be obtained with current information technologies being established in NSW schools\(^1\). This would require a significant change in thinking by current policy-makers. As the literature review revealed the opinions of teachers on education policy are not often welcomed in the existing policy-making environment in NSW. A new proposed structure has the potential to raise the morale and the status of teachers in the community. This could only occur with significant shifts in the role of teachers. Attempts to increase the status of teachers without raising their decision-making power was considered by the researcher to be unlikely to succeed. It also seemed evident that along with more decision-making power, more would be expected of teachers. With more professional responsibility teachers might no longer be subject to current levels of direction and control, however they may experience increased requirements in terms of their job performance and expectations thereof.

**Evaluation Of The Research Process**

There are particular problems for researchers if the literature on topics is scattered across various disciplines. The methodology developed and applied in this research sought to systematically gather expert knowledge from various literature sources, synthesise this

\(^1\) All state schools in NSW have been connected to the Internet and many staff have Email addresses allocated by NSW DET. Most teachers have ready access to this system.
information and to draw conclusions based on this systematic process. In addition, expert opinion was considered to be an important element of the research.

Within the course of this research implications for further research were identified. These relate to relevance and exploring topics about which little is known.

In policy studies the question of relevance is of ongoing concern. Policies can be transient in nature and the issues they represent rise and fall in the political arena. What is in vogue one day may be irrelevant the next. Some policy studies therefore require short time frames in order to make a contribution to current debates. The methodology established recognises the necessity of providing shorter time frames for some policy research. In so doing the importance of expert opinion in the form of accumulated research literature is recognised. The literature review methodology developed throughout the research can be a valuable tool in policy studies by ensuring that literature review findings are based on clearly stated assumptions and methods and also by providing timely advice to policymakers.

In addition to questions of relevance, researchers are presented with special problems when they set out to investigate a problem about which little is known. These problems can range from the lack of a body of relevant knowledge to questions of topic legitimacy. The methodology established throughout the course of this research overcomes some of these problems. This is achieved through synthesising available research from across disciplines and employing techniques that consult experts to verify research findings.
Such methodologies can be used to accumulate information as a precursor to refining more specific research endeavours. The methodology could then be used as a means of providing the best available advice to policy-makers.

The research process employed cannot provide definitive answers to the questions asked. Due to the nature of policy-related research, many questions rely upon an element of subjective opinion in the final analysis. What the research can do is seek to reduce this subjectivity by indicating dominant trends, opinions and ideas and with related evidence provide answers that are derived within a justifiable and rational framework. In so doing this research in the final analysis serves to raise awareness of a problem and to offer alternatives by challenging current assumptions.
Future Directions

The research methodology was established as an ongoing aspect of this research task. However, it is clear that with further development the research process could be refined over time. With the increased reliance on technology in retrieving information it is also conceivable that the literature review methodology could be used as a framework for the construction of more sophisticated computer-based search engines. These engines would provide an increasingly valuable research tool. While such tools currently exist they may require theoretical underpinnings such as those outlined in the methodology established.

At the conclusion of this research further questions arise. What will future educational policy decision-making look like? Will it continue to exclude professional educators? Or is there a way that professional knowledge and skill can find greater expression in the policy decision-making process?

In terms of the research questions, this research has established that there should be a more significant role in policy decision-making for teachers. However, there is little consideration of how this might occur as a practical aspect of the teacher's role. Future research may focus on a more in-depth examination of the teacher's role in policy decision-making and the development of models to incorporate such input.
While there is an assumption that input into decision-making results in greater motivation in the workplace, this proposition remains untested in education. Future research may therefore investigate the effects of involvement in policy decision-making on motivation and work performance. This research may therefore involve policy trained teachers involved in policy decision-making with an examination of the contribution they make in terms of policy decisions and impacts on their own professional practice. Such a proposition may initially seem difficult however the ‘SCAN’ system recently employed by the NSW Primary Principals Council allows school principals across the state of NSW to respond to policy related matters via fax and email. These responses are then collated centrally, published and used to influence decision-making. Such a system employed with teachers has potential to not only influence future decision-making but also the conduct of policy-related research in education.

SCAN is used by the NSW Primary Principals Council to survey opinion on policy matters. It can be accessed on the Internet at the following address: http://www.nswppa.org.au/
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APPENDIX A

LITERATURE REVIEW PROCESS: A CASE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of this case study is to present specific findings at each stage of the research (Table 2.2). These findings are presented in lists and tables of information related to the review at the stages of ‘clarification’ and ‘resolution’. The conclusions based on the outcome of this process are presented in Chapter Three, the Literature Review.

The Appendix A is divided into three sections. These are;

- Section 1 - Clarification
- Section 2 - Resolution
- Section 3 Reporting
Section One - Clarification

Clarification represents activities at the initial stage in the research process. Clarification is focused on the development of an understanding and enunciation of the relevant concepts to the question under investigation. At the clarification stage a "composite meaning" (Klein, 1990:192) of the concepts under consideration is constructed. This composite meaning prepares for the synthesis of material that takes place at the resolution stage in which disparate ideas and concepts are placed within a common framework for the purpose of investigation.

At the stage of clarification broad objectives derived from the interdisciplinary research process include the 'extraction of salient concepts' (A) (Table 2.2) and the 'assessment of relevant disciplines' (B) (Table 2.2). Concepts are extracted based on broad statements of research questions and selections are made based on their relevance to the research questions. The composite meaning that eventually results as a product of clarification activities is then used to support the resolution stage of research.
Conceptualisation

List

In order to compile the list, key words were selected and trialed through computer searches. From this process a list of material on the topic under investigation was obtained. The list detailed the key authors and defined parameters in terms of publication dates for material sought. The list primarily contained published sources such as books and journal articles. Selection of key words was derived from the research question and topic and databases used.

For the purposes of this research the main databases searched were ERIC ‘on line’ and Sociofile ‘on line’.

A number of key words and combinations of key words were applied to the databases, identified and used through computer searches to compile the list required to conduct the research.
Table A.1 A sample of key words

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<td>policy analysis</td>
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<td>literature review</td>
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Applying the key words to the databases identified produced specific information types. One such information type included a list of authors who were identified as potential contributors on the research question and, along with this, date of publication of material. The authors and dates could be scanned to determine recency of findings and the number of contributions made over time.

The information obtained is represented in Table A.2.
Table A.2 List of potential authors as contributors to the research topic

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<td>Hagan, J.</td>
<td>1981</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedges, L. W.</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howard, E. A.</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kennedy, M. M.</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koppich, J. et al</td>
<td>1986</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marginson, S.</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McDonald, J P.</td>
<td>1988, 1986</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Majchrzak, A.</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O'Brien, J.</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pusey, M.</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roeder, P. W.</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rowland, G. Patterson, J.</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In conjunction with an examination of authors, the topic provided vital information to the reviewer. Some of these works were closer to the research orientation than others. They included ‘teacher professionalism’, ‘teacher status’ and ‘teacher roles’. It also became apparent that there was little research that had dealt with the topic of whether...
teachers should be involved in the policy process. The topics identified and apparent methodology employed also provided clues and some answers as to the disciplinary orientation of the author, their selected emphasis and in some cases their bias. It was clear that order needed to be brought to the situation to determine with certainty what the researcher was looking at in terms of categories of information.

The topics provide clearer ideas to the reviewer as to which disciplines and areas of inquiry have touched on the research topic and which have not. Clues as to models available and the use to which they have been put were also identified (Table A.3). Broadly scanning topics gave indications about potential usefulness of material and assisted with developing a cognitive map for the reviewer. This gave the researcher indications as to where his thoughts and research efforts would be applied. The topic list does not provide definitive answers but rather general guidance in preparation for deeper analysis.
Table A.3 A sample topic list and initial concepts identified

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics &amp; Concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education and power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics and education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher appraisal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics and the curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and the state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forces in policy-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy process in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy and teacher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reforming education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher unions in NSW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher professionalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-based management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative decision making, teacher participation in decision-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devolution of education, reforming education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political sociology and education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy and practice in education, guidelines for policy in education, education policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders in policy-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy of involvement in policy-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The history of education in NSW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The history of the New South Wales Teachers Federation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdisciplinarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods of policy research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature reviews</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The topic list (A.3) is not exhaustive, however it represents the sample derived by the researcher and is clearly orientated around the role of teachers in education apart from the traditional classroom role. The topic list presented provides indications that the question of teachers and policy decision-making is embedded in broader social and political literature.

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
Search

The search increased the level of sophistication of the literature review by initiating the process of discrimination according to the more specific criteria established by the reviewer. These were formed through judgements based on knowledge of the topic, the specific research questions asked and the research method applied.

The relevant concepts were extracted so that their potential relevance to the research questions could be determined. The search indicated that there was no significant material that directly dealt with the topic in question. The information available, although scattered, could support conclusions about teachers and the policy process given an appropriate methodology that was capable of synthesis.

Table A.4 List of search concepts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List of search concepts:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The state</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational administration and decision-making</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher roles and empowerment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of policy-making</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of education in NSW</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of associated organisations influencing education policy in NSW</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative methodology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdisciplinarity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Reviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The list of concepts (Table A.4) is not exhaustive but represents the central issues identified as relevant to the research process and to answering the research questions.

Taxonomy

Focus

An enunciation of the research question will only partly define the focus of the research. One of the primary focuses of this review (centering on policy studies) involved solving a methodological and theoretical dilemma that arose as a consequence of the research questions that were posed. As the literature review progressed it was determined that adequate research methodology did not exist to answer such research questions as: Should teachers be involved in policy decision-making in education in NSW? Much of the focus of the research became one of creating a suitable research methodology, justifying the methodology and then applying this methodology to the research questions. Other focuses of the research included the research outcomes, establishing theories and practical application for the policy analyst and policy-maker.
Goals

The goal of this research was to identify the key issues and importantly to identify and highlight methodological problems. In order to achieve this, general statements were formulated, contradictions resolved and new paradigms formed which shed light on the research topic. The identification of methodological problems and attempts to overcome these problems became a major focus of this research. The review of the research in this instance thus had multiple goals. Five major goals of this research effort may be identified.

The first goal was to answer the research questions, including the primary question: Should teachers be involved in policy decision-making in education in NSW? This then raised issues as to the function of education in society, the nature of power and politics in education and other issues that needed to be resolved in order to answer the research questions.

A second goal of this research was to integrate or synthesise past literature that related to the topic. General statements were formulated and conflicts among literature sources were resolved. While a major goal of research was a synthesis of the literature the difficulties encountered in this process became the subject of another research goal.

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
A third goal of this research was one of identifying and addressing methodological dilemmas. As a consequence of posing the research questions, the methodological dilemmas became apparent. Information sources relating to the research questions were scattered in the literature across different disciplines. A methodology for adequately synthesising this material was not apparent after an extensive literature search. A significant emphasis was placed on solving this problem.

A fourth goal was a combination of the first three goals and involved reaching a justifiable set of conclusions based on the systematic application of the literature review process adopted. To hold weight, the conclusions that were drawn required justification through the application of the methodology established.

The fifth goal of the review was to complete a literature report which would include a representative sample of relevant material contained in the literature and to present this material in a coherent manner leading to a set of conclusions regarding the research topic. This report manifests as a literature review in Chapter Three of this thesis.

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
Process

Topic selection

Topic selection was completed in consultation with the research supervisor. The topic 'Teachers and Policy Knowledge: A Methodological and Empirical Study' was selected. The selection of the topic acted initially as a means of sensitising the researcher to the issues surrounding it.

The topic was selected as the researcher believed there was an anomaly and a social problem. These were reflected in the circumstance of teachers being the primary implementers of educational policy, yet not having any significant role in policy formation or formulation. The process of formation and formulation was effectively divorced from the implementation stage, which had potential implications for the effectiveness of education policy.

Topic selection was also based on the researcher's area of interest and expertise. Although the nature of the topic presented immediate methodological dilemmas, it was also selected because of its appeal as a 'real world issue' with the practical implications characteristic of much research in policy.
Thus topic selection criteria were related to interest, expertise, the significance of the topic, the importance of the research question asked and the style of research the researcher wished to undertake.

**General search**

In the initial stages of the review, a general search, attempted to identify material using the thesis topic and related terms as key words. A general search produced a vast number of potential information sources. The general search in this case however provided little evidence related directly to answering the research questions. Even across a broad range of disciplines there was no evidence of any research effort directed to the research topic. The general search did however provide evidence of key issues which could potentially shed light on the research topic. These key issues were not in the form of a cohesive body of knowledge and were spread across disciplines. There was in fact much material that was relevant to the topic such as theories of the state, models of educational administration, models of teacher empowerment, historical perspectives and policy analysis material. These information sources were however scattered randomly across the literature. The general search revealed areas where more specific searches could be directed to obtaining useful information. The lack of a cohesive paradigm or methodology was revealed by the general literature search. The details of material gained through the general search are revealed through the list and search stages of research.
The material obtained through the general search was reviewed and summarised for use. In this case the accumulated reviewed material consisted of a large amount of material analysed by the reviewer.

**Ensuring coverage**

When the general search was complete more specific attention was paid to the material of interest. This material was determined as representative when no new concepts or paradigms emerged with further readings. Thus as the reviewer delved into the literature recurrent themes began to emerge. These themes were noted and formed the core of justification for ensuring adequate coverage of material related to the topic. The recurrent themes that emerged from the literature indicated that there was no systematic analysis or consideration of teacher-input into education policy. The concept seemed to be the antithetical to educational management and the current political control of education policy.

It was established as a strong theme that education was embedded in the state. Education also appeared to be increasingly politicised in NSW and could not be viewed in isolation from these political influences. It was established as a theme that various models of educational administration had been applied to education in NSW. None of these models gave significant consideration to teacher-input into the policy process. These models were all centered on central control of education policy with relatively few yet powerful stakeholders in the policy space.

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
A theme that emerged through the literature on motivation, teacher empowerment, the professionalisation of teaching and school improvement, was that greater input by teachers into policy was desirable and that this was at odds with the current political administration of education.

While the research on improved outcomes in education was pointing in one direction in respect of educational administration and policy development and practice, actual management and administration was moving in another direction.

An overriding theme indicated that teachers were viewed as implementers of education policy and were divorced from all other aspects of the policy process. Despite this, it was noted in some literature that significant criticism is directed at teachers for the failure of education despite the fact that they essentially have no control over education policy formation or formulation.

The final theme emerged through the historical analysis which revealed the emerging influence of various stakeholders in education policy over time and the sequence of educational management over an extended period of education in NSW. The emergence of the recurrent themes was therefore used to ensure coverage of the most relevant literature.
Defining critical literature

Critical literature can be considered to be that which is central to the recurrent themes, which emerged from the 'ensuring coverage' stage of the research. This literature is represented in table A.5.

Table A.5 A sample of the critical literature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Title/Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Torres (1996)</td>
<td>Theories of state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ham and Hill (1993)</td>
<td>The policy process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hogwood and Gunn (1984)</td>
<td>Policy analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fasano (1994)</td>
<td>Policy Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ball (1993)</td>
<td>Education policy and teachers' work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croll and Abott (1994)</td>
<td>Teachers and policy, teacher roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firestone (1989)</td>
<td>Education policy as an ecology of games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retsinas (1982)</td>
<td>Teachers and professional autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barcan (1988)</td>
<td>History of education in NSW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fasano and Winder (1991)</td>
<td>Education and policy in Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marginson (1993)</td>
<td>Education and public policy in Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klein (1990)</td>
<td>Interdisciplinarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bechtel (1986)</td>
<td>Integrating Scientific Disciplines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooper (1984)</td>
<td>Literature reviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bruce (1994)</td>
<td>Literature reviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helmericks et al (1991)</td>
<td>Literature reviews</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
The critical literature identified by the researcher formed the main focus of the research report and determined its orientation. Although determining what is critical is a subjective task, there is a requirement by the reviewer to select this material and it is part of this process of literature review which is necessarily subjective. In determining what is critical the reviewer selected material which appeared to have most utility in answering the research question.

**Validation techniques**

Validity indicates that material properly relates to the topic of interest. *Gatekeeper validation* refers to a validation technique whereby the literature reviewer considers the relative prestige of the journals in which authors publish. Journals used at different stages of this thesis are represented in table A.6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table A.6 Journals used as sources.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administration and Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Journal of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian Educational Researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian Educator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Journal of Educational Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Education Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Forum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvard Educational Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of School Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge in Society</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
Consensual validation techniques rely upon the view that the most frequently sighted informants will have the most credibility and validity in terms of presented evidence towards answering the research question. Authors frequently cited are represented in table A.7.

Table A.7 Sample of frequent authors sighted in literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Literature Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Torres, 1996</td>
<td>Theories of the State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popkowitz 1991, 1993</td>
<td>Teachers and Patterns of Power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klein, 1990</td>
<td>Interdisciplinarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ham and Hill, 1993</td>
<td>Policy process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firestone, 1989 Croll &amp; Abbott, 1994</td>
<td>Education Policy, Teachers and Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barcan, 1988</td>
<td>Historical perspective</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The combination of these two validation techniques is considered critical in determining the validity of material selected for a literature review.
Extracting concepts

At this stage of the research process the reviewer had a clearer understanding of the topic under investigation and a collection of critical literature emerged which had been filtered through the selection process described. This literature is the core material on which the answers to the research questions can rest. However, although the critical literature is defined it does not necessarily present as a cohesive body of material with any utility. What holds related literature together are connecting paradigms, methodologies and disciplines, none of which were apparent at this stage of the research. The material is simply loosely related around a research question.

The next step involved the commencement of a process which leads to the creation of the connecting methodologies and paradigms that tie the critical literature together. The extracting of concepts serves to highlight important concepts independent of their discipline base.

For the purpose of this research a series of 'concept boxes' was created. Each box contained a concept relevant to the question under investigation. The concept box also contained information that identified the source of the concept.
Examples of concept boxes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forces in education policy, market, curriculum, management</th>
<th>Models of teachers in policymaking, implementers, resistors of change, partners, policy makers in practice</th>
<th>Factors of teacher empowerment, status, access to decision-making, knowledge</th>
<th>Legitimacy of teacher involvement in the policy process, philosophy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Each of these concepts when identified was then available to be placed into an interdisciplinary framework at the resolution stage. Concept extraction serves two primary goals. The first is to guide the researcher efforts to the issues that are most relevant, and secondly to place ideas into an alternate framework where they are more easily utilised in answering the research question.

**Serendipity**

Serendipity is the accidental discovery of knowledge. Accidental discovery has proven to be a valuable and legitimate aspect of research. In this research the discovery of the work of Torres (1996) led to work by Popkowitz (1991; 1993), which shaped the subsequent conceptual framework of the thesis.

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
Section Two - Resolution

Resolution represents activities at the second stage of the research process. Resolution is concerned with two main functions. The first is the consideration of disciplinary perspectives on salient concepts (C) (Table 2.2). The second function is the creation of meta-perspectives to organise information and synthesise conflict (D) (Table 2.2). These meta-perspectives include such areas of analysis as the literature review methodology (Cooper, 1984; Bruce, 1994; Helmericks et al, 1991), education in the construct of the state (Torres, 1996; Popkowitz, 1991; Apple, 1992) and historical perspectives (Barcan, 1988; Sharpe, 1990; Tyack, 1991).

After concepts have been clarified in step one, resolution undertakes the task of integrating and restructuring concepts. The concepts from various disciplines are placed within the framework of the interdisciplinary study. These concepts take their place alongside other concepts from other disciplines and are assessed for utility in terms of the problem under investigation. The process involves "the temporary suspension of all known methods" (Klein, 1990:192). The problem to be examined through the literature review is thus examined in interdisciplinary terms.
At the resolution stage Klein (1990:192) argues “students can challenge their conclusions by combining inputs from more than one discipline and working towards a more comprehensive understanding of the problem at hand.” Through the interdisciplinary process the participating disciplines are placed in a wider context. In this way questions which rely upon a broader context are open to investigation. The process undertaken during resolution involves a discourse. This discourse in the context of a literature review occurs among authors and different literature sources or information sites. At the resolution stage the reviewer therefore acts as the mediator between the various informants and brings order according to certain guidelines established through a methodology. This order is evident in the organisation and presentation of the literature review.

As with earlier stages, at the resolution stage, each of the processes described can occur concurrently or separately (Table A.2).

Conceptualisation

Survey

In this particular research the knowledge base found was limited. The research question, ‘should teachers be involved in policy decision making?’ was not an area
which had previously been investigated. The data which were available on the topic had not been brought together in such a way that inferences could be drawn.

The research questions posed appeared not to have been previously asked. Authors such as Walker (1989) discussed the philosophy of teacher involvement. Popkowitz (1991) discussed forms of control in education. Croll and Abbott (1994) discussed models of teacher involvement in the policy process and Maeroff (1988) described factors that affect teacher empowerment. All these authors had touched on aspects of, or skirted around, the topic itself. The question has thus been dealt with in the literature, in an ad hoc manner. There has been no systematic focus on teacher involvement in broad educational policy-making beyond the school.

In addition, the methodology which might be applied to the research question was also limited. Extensive literature searches failed to uncover a suitable existing methodology. The methodology then had to be created using the available incomplete methodologies uncovered in the literature. The first element of the methodology was derived from the literature available on the conduct of literature reviews. This literature although not extensive provided some methodological solutions in terms of ‘conceptualisation’ (Bruce, 1994) ‘categorisation’ (Cooper, 1984) and the ‘process’ (Helmericks, et al, 1991). The important elements from this knowledge base form the core of the methodology being used. The second major element of the methodology is the use of models of research applied in interdisciplinary investigations (Klein, 1990;
OECD, 1972). Specifically, borrowing (Klein, 1990) was used to place the literature review methods in an interdisciplinary framework.

Apart from the development of the methodological approach through the survey, information on the topic of investigation was discovered and a knowledge base was established. The gaps in the literature were identified. These gaps included a lack of any substantial frame of reference in which to place the study. This frame of reference was developed through an understanding of the state. In the case of the research question, as has been indicated; the issue of teachers' involvement in the policy process beyond the school had been dealt with by few authors and not in any great depth.

The survey of the literature therefore fulfilled the important function of providing a map of the literature in terms of the topic knowledge base and the methodologies available to the researcher. Both these areas were restricted in terms of available literature and paradigms.

**Vehicle for learning**

Through the literature search an enormous amount of specific learning took place. This learning shaped the nature of the research process and the direction of research. Many concepts were uncovered in respect of the research being undertaken. A number of these concepts have been enunciated and they include models of educational
administration, teacher empowerment, the role of the state and political influences on education. These included an awareness of the limitations of current methodologies when applied to the research question. The answers to the research question appeared to lie in data sources in the form of literature scattered across disciplines and there was no binding methodology.

In terms of more direct understanding of the research question, the history of education was reviewed, adding to the researcher’s background knowledge. This historical perspective included a review of the New South Wales Teachers Federation (O’Brien, 1987) and teacher training in NSW (Auchmuty, 1980). Through the review there was a strong reinforcement of the underlying theme that education in NSW was embedded in a complex political environment. The political control of education appeared almost all-encompassing and the political involvement in education appeared to be on the increase. The predominant position saw teachers in the role of policy implementers (Croll and Abbott, 1994), responsible only for the implementation of education policy developed elsewhere. There was apparent in the literature a strong focus on the economic rationalist view (Dudley and Vidcovich, 1995). Education is seen as a means of increasing economic prosperity and economic models become important considerations in the functioning of schools.

Throughout the literature there appeared to be a miss-match between the current management of education in NSW and the literature on motivation and empowerment (Sergiovani and Starrett, 1988). The forms of control being applied to education in Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
NSW appeared to be such that they were not conducive to achieving higher levels of motivation and commitment as illustrated by management models apparent in the literature (Sergiovani and Starrett, 1988). Teachers appeared to collectively hold a body of knowledge which had not been considered or utilised in the formation or formulation of policy (Walker, 1989).

The review of the literature clearly illustrated that answers relevant to questions regarding the role of teachers in the policy process were embedded in a theory of the state and it was only from this perspective that a suitable answer could be derived.

**Research facilitator**

The literature review can be seen as a means of supporting the research being undertaken. This support can include assisting with topic selection, resolving methodological issues, developing background knowledge to allow the right questions to be asked, placing the research in the map of knowledge and guiding the research along a logically justifiable course.

In the conduct of research there is a requirement of justification. The justification is often supported through previous research findings which are established through the literature review. In the case of this research the literature review supported the research by identifying gaps in the literature. The gaps in the literature were
substantial as has been indicated previously. By indicating what was not present the literature review guided the research in the need to establish suitable methodologies. The research was in effect guided towards trying to solve methodological dilemmas. Once these dilemmas were resolved, the research question could be addressed; however the shape and form of the research was established as the review acted to facilitate the research.

**Report**

The report should also be constructed according to an identifiable framework and should logically construct an argument and reach a set of conclusions. In this case the literature review was guided by the methodology used throughout the research. The literature review of this research is detailed in Chapter Three of this thesis.

The literature review, Chapter Three, has five main sections, which are:

- An introduction describing the underpinnings of the conceptual framework of the review. This provides a policy perspective for viewing the impact of various influences on education policy.
- Issues related to force or the nature of power in society.
- A description of mechanisms, which give effect to such forces.
- The historical or temporal factors in the policy space.
The final section provides some conclusions based on the literature review and the application of the literature review methodology.

Taxonomy

Perspective

Cooper (1988) enunciates two styles in terms of perspective. The first is 'espousal of position' and the second 'neutral representation'.

Espousal of position involves the reviewer in activities which are directed at presenting a favoured point of view. The reviewer therefore acts as an advocate. The reviewer in this case leaves to others the task of arguing alternative positions. In the case of espousal of position, if applied to this research; the researcher would be arguing for greater teacher input in policy-making or alternatively for less teacher input in policy-making. The presentation of the literature can make either position valid depending on stated assumptions.

Neutral representation occurs when the reviewer in the initial stages of the research, presents arguments for and against a point of view. The aim of the reviewer is to represent all sides of an argument and also to present the review as a representation of
the importance or prominence particular points of view are given in the bulk of the literature.

In the final analysis the two types of perspective relate to how the work is treated by the reviewer. In this research the neutral representation position was adopted. The question, "should teachers be involved in the policy decision-making process?", was not initially supported or refuted. The answer to such a question rested on the point of view of the stakeholders, which needed to be represented in the literature review. The weight of evidence from the perspective adopted indicated that teachers should play a role in the formation and formulation stage of policy development. This was then highlighted in the literature report.

Coverage

Cooper (1988) identifies four types of coverage. These are exhaustive, a selected sample, a typical sample and a focus on work which is pivotal or central to the field.

The reviewer can employ more than one strategy to cover the literature. In the case of this research, where the literature which relates specifically to the research question is so limited, the exhaustive and central pivotal literature effectively cover the same material. Aspects of the literature review where more substantial amounts of material were available, such as the literature on theories of the state, the central or pivotal work formed the focus of the review. This became necessary as the adoption of an

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
interdisciplinary perspective presented the reviewer with time constraints, which would not allow more extensive coverage of several different disciplines. As indicated, some areas of investigation, such as theories of the state, covered vast amounts of literature that could not be dealt with in the scope of this research.

**Organisation**

This thesis uses three organisation types at different levels within the review and the thesis. Viewing the thesis as a whole, a methodological organisation is adopted. The methodology forms the basis of the structure and presentation of the thesis. At the literature review level two coverage styles are applied. Primarily the review is presented in a conceptual framework. The application of this framework is based on concepts associated with theories of the state. Embedded within this framework is a historical perspective which allows for the presentation of a chronological series of events as they are applicable to the questions under investigation.

The organisation of the review and thesis was arrived at through an analysis of the data and the available literature. Decisions about organisation and the overall thesis presentation are made primarily as a result of their utility in answering the research questions.
Audience

This thesis is directed at educational researchers, practitioners and policy-makers.

Process

Categorising reviews

As part of a process a review can be described or categorised according to its main characteristics and intended purpose. The purpose of the review can be described in the achievement of a number of goals.

The first of these goals is the identification of a relevant methodology to be applied to the research question. This methodology eventually took the form of the literature search methodology presented in Chapter Two. Such a methodology was constructed from the information obtained from the review. This was primarily from the work of Cooper (1986), Bruce (1994) and Helmericks et al (1991).

A second aim in the application of the methodology was to answer the research question. This was done through the identification of theory which was relevant to the questions and the identification of any specific research findings which would add clarity to the analysis. The theory identified was incomplete and scattered across Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
several disciplines including political science, educational administration, theories of the state and psychology.

**Categorising concepts**

Concept categorisation derives from knowledge of the research topic. As this knowledge develops the researcher more easily identifies and defines those important elements from the literature that will provide answers to the research question.

The identification of theories, paradigms and key authors assisted the researcher in identifying those specific concepts that are central to the research. In this case a broad range of concepts were important and they did not exist as a cohesive body of knowledge. The researcher categorised concepts in a number of ways. In this study important concepts were tagged in summaries of literature so that they could be synthesised at a later time. Concepts were also given relative importance in terms of their orientation to the research question and their relative importance in the literature.

In this research the most important set of concepts identified was related to a view of education within the context of the state (Torres, 1996; Popkowitz, 1991). Other important concepts included those derived from historical analysis, such as the central control of education and styles of educational management (Barcan, 1989; Sharpe, 1990; Dudley and Vidovich, 1995), models of teachers' involvement in policy-making (Croll and Abbott, 1994), and models of teacher empowerment.
(Maeroff, 1988). Table A.8 indicates an example of the initial categorisation of concepts.

Table A.8 Example of categorising concepts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of policy-making</th>
<th>Concepts of who controls</th>
<th>Mechanisms of control</th>
<th>Teacher knowledge</th>
<th>Forces in policy-making</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Models of policy analysis (Hogwood and Gunn)</td>
<td>Models of educational administration (Retsinas)</td>
<td>Mechanisms for input into decision-making (Howard)</td>
<td>Teachers with expert knowledge (Hedges and Waddington)</td>
<td>Main forces, policy, curriculum, market, management (Ball)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy process (Ham and Hill)</td>
<td>Concept of teachers at the coal face</td>
<td>Ecology of games (Firestone)</td>
<td>Teacher experience not utilised (Dandridge)</td>
<td>Concept that larger economic agendas shape education policy (House)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy studies (Fasano)</td>
<td>Who are the appropriate stakeholders (Howard)</td>
<td>Models of teacher involvement (Croll and Abbott)</td>
<td>Teachers not researching own practice (Frucher and Price)</td>
<td>History (Bacan, Sharpe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ideological view of teacher input into policy-making (Brown)</td>
<td>Factors affecting teacher empowerment (Maeroff)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher unions (O'Brien)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Synthesis

The synthesis is the culmination of the activities associated with the methodology that have been presented in detail in Chapter Two. The synthesis in this case took a conceptual form in which the literature review was placed in the context of an understanding of the workings of the state. In order to explain these workings as they appeared to impact on teachers, the concepts of force, mechanisms and time were
introduced. Within these higher-order concepts the literature review material was organised.

An example of the literature synthesised in the section on forces included literature on the state and the nature of power (Ham and Hill, 1993; Foucault, 1980; Torres, 1996; Popkowitz, 1991), forms of control in education (Ball, 1993) and external forces in policy-making (House, 1991).

The section on mechanisms includes literature on the legitimacy of teacher involvement in policy-making (Fuhrman et al, 1988; Walker, 1989; Klein, 1977), appropriate stakeholders in education (McNeil, 1990; Howard, 1970), models of political administration in educational policy-making (Brown, 1971; Retsinas, 1982), models of teacher involvement in the policy process (Croll and Abbott, 1994) and factors that affect teacher empowerment (Maeroff, 1988; Dandridge, 1993; Kirby and Corbert, 1994).

Included in the final section on time or temporal factors came the literature related to historical influences (Rotenstreich, 1987), including the history of education in NSW (Barcan, 1989; Sharpe, 1990; Eltis, 1993) and teacher education and policy time frames (Strike and Posner, 1983; Hedges and Waddington, 1993; O'Brien, 1984; Auchmuty, 1980).

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
The three main elements described under the umbrella of the concept of the state served as a means of synthesis in which disparate literature sources were synthesised into a cohesive treatment of representative literature on the topic. The synthesis is a creative and individualised process conducted according to the paradigms established. In the final analysis it tells a story in a particular specified format.

**Report**

The synthesis of the literature manifests as a report. The report is the product of the process that is adopted. In this case the report is formatted to primarily consider the conceptual issues that emerged from the literature. The most significant concept to emerge from the literature was the role of education within the state. Thus the literature report highlights this concept. Historical factors leading to the current status of teachers were emphasised in the report. The format of the report and its conceptual orientation have previously been discussed.

The report is necessarily limited in that a process of selection and exclusion takes place. The limits are essential in order to arrive at conclusions. The essential function of the report is to build a picture and reach conclusions based on a sound methodology and a balance of views presented in the literature.

The report contains an introduction followed by sections on the policy process and related concepts, force, mechanisms, time and findings.  

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
Serendipity

At the resolution stage the primary discovery made involved an identification of a proposed model for the power structures that affected teacher input into policy-making. This model formed the basis for the structure of the literature review.

Section Three - Reporting

The clarification and resolution phases of the literature reviewed moved the researcher through a series of stages in terms of actions and understandings.

At the clarification stage the emphasis was on identification. This involved listing and searching for material, exploring the focus and goals of the research and various elements of the process from topic selection to extracting concepts. Through clarification activities the literature was sorted between relevant and non-relevant material. This resulted in the identification of critical literature. Critical literature included material associated with theories of the state, the history of education in NSW, research methodology, and teacher roles and policy analysis.

Appendix A – The Literature Process A Case Study
At the resolution stage the emphasis was on synthesis. Activities and understandings included the survey, coverage, organisation, categorising concepts, synthesis and the report. Through resolution activities the unrelated concepts identified were synthesised into a framework. This framework has four elements. These four elements are, the policy process and related concepts, force or power, mechanisms both abstract and concrete and time or history. These elements formed the structure for the organisation of the literature report.
Interview Guide

The moderator will explain the purpose of the research:

• To determine if teachers should, would and could participate in the policy process.
• To determine the level of awareness of policy issues.
• To determine the level of knowledge of teachers on policy issues.
• To determine teacher opinions on the usefulness of the policy curriculum proposed.

The moderator will explain the focus group procedures:

• Responses should be directed to the focussed question.
• Session will be taped for data analysis and will last approximately one hour.
• Data will be stored securely.
• Ethical conditions explained (including confidentiality of issues discussed and the right to withdraw from participation).
• Consent forms to be signed.
Focus Group Question

1. Can you identify some policies under which you operate and how do you think that these policies affect you in your role as teacher?

(If not prompt with copy of 'Code of Conduct' - NSW Department of Education and Training)

2. Can you influence policy-making in respect of these policies and are you satisfied with the current situation?

3. Should you be able to influence these policies and have a role in educational policy-making?

4. What skills and knowledge do you think you might require to be effective in educational policy-making?

5. If you could, would you participate in the policy-making process and under what conditions?

Presentation of summary of proposed policy curriculum (see attached sheet)

6. Would this material be useful to you as a teacher?

7. What reasons do you have for thinking the material might be useful or not useful?

8. How would you make use of the material in your current role?

Conclusion of Interview - Debriefing of participants; questions from group answered.
A literature on the topic of teachers' involvement in educational policy-making revealed five main units of knowledge and skill which teachers may require in order to participate in the policy decision-making process in education in NSW. Please read the following summary of the five areas identified. I will then ask your opinion on the value of this information.

Unit 1 Structure and function

The Department of Education and Training under which all teachers operate is made up of a number of functional units. Unit 1 will identify these departmental units and explore the responsibilities of the key units. The location of various units will be identified as will departmental funding priorities. The legislation under which the department operates will be examined. Comparisons will be made with the private system in the form of Catholic and Independent schools and international comparisons will also be made. The purpose of unit one is to ensure teachers have a clear understanding of the structure of the system which influences their working life and enable teachers to critique this system with reference to other possible structures.
Unit 2 Schools’ and Teachers’ role in society

Unit 2 examines the evolving departmental structure from the inspection system to regions and clusters through to the current district structure. Within this context changing government priorities will be examined. The changing social values and beliefs about schools and the relative influence of different stakeholder groups will also be explored. Domestic and international forces and trends which influence government policy will be highlighted. Competing philosophies on the legitimacy of teacher involvement and definitions of appropriate stakeholders in education will also be examined. The purpose of unit two is to allow teachers to consider the social context in which they operate. This will allow teachers to explore the boundaries and constraints of their role.

Unit 3 Influences on Educational Policy Making

Unit 3 examines the internal forces operating in education that influence policy. These may be defined as the curriculum, the market and management. External forces in the form of social and economic agendas are given particular emphasis. Teachers will explore the issues beyond education which drive policy-making. The role of teacher unions and teacher education will be also explored in this context. It is the purpose of this unit to allow teachers to consider that particular policies within education evolve as a result of factors well beyond the confines of the education system itself. Teachers will explore the notion that educational values do not necessarily drive educational policy and the implications for stakeholders in attempting to influence policy-making.

Appendices
Unit 4 Teacher Professionalism

Unit 4 will explore aspects of professionalism which will include notions of teacher autonomy and motivation, professionalism versus bureaucratic control of education and factors affecting teacher empowerment including status, access to decision-making, knowledge and willingness to partake in both the power and accountability of policy making. Within unit 4 models of teacher involvement in the policy process will be identified including teachers as resisters of change, supporters of policy and teachers as policy-makers in practice.

Unit 5 Teachers and Policy Knowledge

Unit 5 will identify the key elements of policy knowledge which will allow teachers to examine and influence the policy process. This knowledge includes introductory concepts such as the meaning of policy for teachers, the policy space, stakeholders and the nature of power. Key policy models will be examined as will theories of the state. The main emphasis of unit 5 will be to examine the policy process including the stages of formation, formulation, implementation and evaluation. The purpose of unit five is to provide teachers with policy skills which will allow them to operate effectively within a politically-sensitive policy environment.
APPENDIX D

TRANSCRIPT OF FOCUS GROUP ONE

F: Would you be able to identify some policies under which you operate, and how do you think these policies affect your role as teacher, are you aware of any policies out there?

M: School-based or departmentally-based?

F: Primarily departmentally-based so I'm looking at the broader perspective at the state level.

M: Well there is the multicultural policy and the Aboriginal policies, those sort of things, well there is welfare, there are all sorts, dozens of them.

V: Is it classed as policy the business of having to do everything by outcomes?

F: Exactly, so if we add them up there are a lot, if we were to sit here long enough we could probably come up with a long list, but how do they in a general sense affect your role?

C: They are supposed to be the guidelines of what we teach?

M: But how many people have actually read them? People read them at the executive level, maybe, and hand them out and pass them down, in other words, you will do a multi-cultural perspective in term two. You know what I mean?

V: Well I think basically they are in the back of everyone's mind, because you have to be aware you have to stay within the guidelines. To virtually stay teaching.

J: We're in-serviced in most of the important ones when a new policy arrives.

F: So in terms of affecting the way that you conduct your role what are we saying?

V: Well I think it's there at that constant level at the back of your mind, you might not be thinking of every aspect of every policy every day but you have a working knowledge of it.

Agreement by the group.

B: Like a framework, a framework, for the way we teach and the way we write our aims by.
Agreement by the group.

C: Yes it does.

F: So what importance does it have. Initially if I asked you what importance does policy have, you might say its not very important, but given that we have just discussed policy and it seems to be important to us, what level of importance does it have.

General comment it’s important, agreement

C: Because it provides a framework and accountability.

M: But in reality how many policies can you actually think of that you have read recently? Well, OK, maybe the state literacy strategy, because that has come under a policy, and how many have actually read that? OK, we may have been in-serviced in it we may have had child protection, we may have had the video and probably just get this skeletal outline, the rest of it is consciousness-raising.

V: You wouldn’t be at the level where you can quote it.

M: You wouldn’t even be able to think what the cover looks like in most cases to be perfectly honest.

C: But it does provide uniformity between all the schools in the state; you can’t have schools doing such and such, it provides uniformity across the state. It provides a network across all schools.

V: And I think sometimes a personal interest in certain things makes a difference: for example, if it was a topic that was close to your heart you would know that topic better, then when you’re thinking “why did they write a policy about that!”

B: Similarly, the level that you teach the age group that you teach, K-2 for instance, you have an extreme knowledge about literacy for instance and social skills for instance, where HSIE¹ you might not know as well

L: I think most people when they get the policy browse through to see what is particularly appropriate for them.

F: So could it be that it is at the level of consciousness, that it is actually directing what we do but without us knowing that it is doing that. You see what I mean, we all tend to do things in a certain way, we all tend to take those values from the Aboriginal Education policy, B would be doing it, and L would be doing it so it is actually directing our activities but we don’t actually identify specifically that that is the policy, but it becomes a cultural thing in the operation of schools.

¹ Human Society and Its Environment – curriculum area.
C: I don’t think we question it either because when we went through Uni or college or whatever we were told that’s what you do, because what do I do if I don’t follow policy, no one ever speaks up about it.

F: So it is actually engrained into the structure of schools.

B: And they use that word mandatory a lot don’t they?

M: For some people (laugh).

Ca: I was about to disagree with C then; I think a lot of people ignore policy.

B: You mean they are aware of it but they choose to absent themselves from it?

V: Depends on which one, there are some, probably not many would ignore the policy on teaching English but they might ignore the policy on racial discrimination to a certain extent, have a sort of a surface cover, but not committed.

B: Well the one I can think of that people ignored in great numbers was the functional grammar stuff; I mean how many people really came to grips with and were really into functional grammar.

F: Well I guess it depends because something like child protection, we would be taking our lives in our hands if we chose to ignore that one.

Agreement by group.

B: Yes but then the word mandatory crops up.

F: What do you feel, when someone says mandatory?

V: Depends on what it is

V: Part of our job.

J: Part of our responsibility.

B: Being accountable if I don’t, if it says mandatory its part of the job.

Ca: I have to follow though as part of my responsibility whether I believe in it or not.

HAND OUT CODE OF CONDUCT – SECTION ON PUBLIC COMMENT
F: I'm not concerned with the merits of the policy but my question is can you influence what goes into that policy, and are you satisfied with that?

B: I think it's a pretty top down approach, you know,

Agreement by group

V: I came up against this very thing this week. Because Mrs... has a meeting with Mr. (Minister)... this week and asked could I go. And I had to say that it is not at all possible that I could go, no matter how much personally I would have liked to go. So you really are not free at all.

C: And there is really no avenue where you could go (to appeal).

B: Well there is Federation.

M: Yes there is Federation, if you had to change policy.

Ca: It says here the elected government of the day, so when the public steps in.

V: Parents would have much more influence than I would have, they are not going to listen to me as an employee.

F: Putting the policy aside, should you have an influence in the construction of these things which talk about the way you do your job, should there be a mechanism for input.

L: In an ideal world.

F: Well there are some people who believe you should have an input but under certain conditions.

J: I think the classic example of this is integration, the way they are closing special schools and these students are starting to be integrated. Never once have they stopped and asked teachers well what do you think? It seems to have come from research and this business with V, well V wrote a very good letter and we felt that it had hardly been looked at because the decision had already been made at a departmental level.

V: And as J said none of the mainstream classes have ever been asked what do you feel about getting all these children into your class.

B: Do you feel you have the necessary skills to help them, or attitude?

Ca: How represented are we by Federation?

F: I said at the beginning we have a situation where policy is developed and it may not include teachers. Yes teachers can influence policy through Federation however it needs
to be acknowledged that Federation has their own political agenda, so anything they engage in with the government of the day is likely to be in some combative form and it is likely to be mixed up with wages and conditions.

B: Yes, yes.

F: So what you don't get is teacher input into these policy decisions, but I can talk about the reasons for that later but not now. So at this stage would you be satisfied with the current situation now we have discussed these issues.

B: No.

Agreement from group.

Ca: I never have been, I've been going to professional development for 30 years and all of a sudden they say the way you have been teaching reading, spelling and everything, we're stopping that and doing this. I think why? Have they asked me has that worked for me? yes it has! But I have to do it this way whether I want to or not. Because somebody says so. Whether it's mandatory or whether we say yes we have to jump through hoops, I think a lot of us and I'm an example of that, I take what I feel is the best system from what comes along and still stick to what works for me.

M: I think if we talk about curriculum issues, certainly they do have teachers involved. They have critical friends, they have syllabus advisory committees, all these people who are grass roots teachers.

Ca: Well why do they make so many mistakes?

M: Well they actually tossed out all the people who had been in Board of Studies for a few years and brought new teachers in.

C: Don't they give the document out to a few schools to trial so staff can sit down and go through them?

F: Well that may well be the case, they may say we will have these teachers who are going to BOS\(^2\) to influence the way things are done but in fact a lot of the agendas may already be set.

M: Well yes certainly the BOS itself, if you don't fit the pro forma they have and the structure that it has to fit into, you can't (be involved). They are not teaching issues they are structural. They must all be the same. Dance, creative arts, drama.

F: I'm thinking in a broad sense of policy if we move away from curriculum for a while: should you have an influence in these policies and have a role in the way you do your job; should there be some mechanism for you to influence them?

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\(^2\) Board of Studies – established curriculum in NSW.
Ca : I think there should absolutely be a role.

Agreement by group.

V: But what would be the logistics? This is difficult.

C: I guess that teachers are more practical. Where there are advisers who are suppose to be more knowledgeable to come up with the wording and whatever is current thought, we are the more nitty gritty practical ...

F: I guess there is the view that policy drives the practice or does practice drive the policy? In other words do people tell you how to do it the best way and then you do it, or do you do it the best way. Not individually but collectively because there are 50,000 people doing it and then that translates into policy. Do we take the best practice and that translates into policy?

M: As long as it's the best practice and not the most common, because the most common practice may not be the best. There are certain schools where things are taught for a long time perhaps not the best way. It's just accepted practice.

F: I guess what I'm talking about is a situation where there is virtually no input, so should we carve out some influence, so that in fact wouldn't happen? It would be hard enough to carve out a little bit of influence into something like the code of conduct and I guess if you asked teachers they wouldn't be totally irresponsible and come up with a code of conduct that didn't reflect the way they should behave.

C: And I don't know that a lot of teachers would be interested in writing down policies either and getting involved.

Ca: I don't know either. All schools are different and all schools' needs are different, and children's needs are different. Our school is different from other local schools and unless all policies are school based which are formulated at the school...

F: A lot people say teachers are not interested in policy but when you bring something into place that they disagree with, teachers are intensely interested. [Agreement] In other words if it impacts on their lives, they are in fact interested and they say this is stupid or whatever.

Ca: But for years I said all those silly names were stupid [reference to teaching literacy] for verbs and adjectives ...

B: So did everyone else.
Ca: …and I really did get personally offended by having to use them, but they didn’t listen to me…

Agreement by group.

V: I for one just didn’t do it!

C: But it was one of the only times the department has listened because people were quite united on that.

J: Policy change in the department takes a very long time.

Ca: It sure does.

J: …we all screamed for two or three or four years then it took another two or three or four years and so that as any large business, it just takes a long time.

B: For the system to respond.

Ca: Were they grass roots teachers who formulated that functional grammar?

M: There were grass roots teachers, and grass roots teachers who had done their Masters in functional grammar, I know one, and if you were from Sydney University. That came from Sydney University because there is a Professor of English who is a functional grammar fanatic and he got involved politically with the right person to push his case and in reality that is how all policies come about. Its all political and if you want change you have to go about it politically.

F: So we might not necessarily have confidence in the people who might be there representing us?

M: I think the people who are representing us, if you took a random sample you would really be concerned because you need to get some degree of expertise not just interest, but understanding of the broader perspective so that everyone will be happy with the change that comes about.

F: But given that, collectively, as a principle, one would assume that if 50,000 people are doing something, that there is some degree of expertise there.

Agreement by the group.

F: I just wanted to move on, I want to pick up on a point because you said it’s all political, and the next question relates to that: What sort of skills and knowledge do you think you might require to participate in educational policy-making?

J: Good communicators.
V: Parental backup and help.

J: Have one of the loudest voices.

B: Assertive.

V: Ring up Alan Jones.

B: Policy al la Alan Jones\(^3\) I like it.

M: I think you need to know the system. When you write the letter you need to know where you send the scud to so that it sends a bit of a shock wave.

C: But it's like a current affairs show, if there is a problem and it is public and you get the public behind you, you have more chance of changing things than as a staff writing in.

F: It's interesting because what you are talking about is political pressure.

V: You have to learn to play the game.

M: I did a whole course on political pressure and change, it was run by the University of NSW on getting policy change through political pressure, and it was joint Masters for the department who were putting up the money for the course, and when you think about it, how do I take up...

C: Any policy is a political issue like it's the portfolio, and it depends on who is in power, because it's not private, it must be political.

F: You mentioned before the rules of the game. What I'm interested in is what you understand about what some of those rules are and what is some of the knowledge that is involved in that sort of influence?

V: Well as M said you have to know just who to target, who is the person who is influential. To write it succinctly, if you write 12 pages they are not going to look at it. You have to do it in one page with a few points.

J: And often the person who is accessible to us as teachers are not the power people. They are just someone else's puppet.

V: Yes.

J: In special education we can go to P but he can't make those sort of decisions, it's someone further up, so a thing gets diluted on the way up. We might have ten points but they might have three or four points, but you can't go straight to the top.

\(^3\) Alan Jones is a popular talkback radio commentator in Sydney.
M: OK if you have a really strong issue, this is what they told me at that course. It was Virginia Chadwick who was the Minister. Write to the Minister and the policy is that they must reply to every letter, but they don’t reply themselves, they pass it down to the highest relevant person so they might give it to the District Superintendent and he must reply in one week...

(Laughter) … then they give it to X and then you get it back and you have to reply to your own letter.

M: but it makes a ripple effect as it goes back within a week so they do have to be aware of what’s happening.

F: Let me tell you about the memorandum I got not long ago which says that employees of the department must go through appropriate channels. In other words you can’t write directly to the Minister as an employee.

V: You get rapped over the knuckles, you could as a parent, because the policy says you are not allowed to do it.

M: That course was run by a person from the department and she taught us how to do it.

J: But V, if you had gone to that meeting you would have been looking for a job. And as strongly as we feel about this issue we don’t think our kids will be well catered for in the integrated situation. They keep saying to us: “well research has shown”, and all you can do is cross your fingers and hope it works for the children. There is nothing we as grassroots teachers can do about it.

F: Lets move on a little bit, let’s assume we have a situation where we as teachers could influence policy. Would you in fact do that?

B: Oh yes I think if I had any input on something like the integration issue for instance. Like writing submissions I would. When they called for submissions X (former principal) said you are crazy for writing that stuff, but I had my say. I feel I was ignored but I had my say.

V: But if you felt someone was going to read it...

B: If I felt that one important person would read it ...

C: But a submission is not writing a policy ...

F: But input...

V: If it was a topic you felt strongly enough about you would.
Ca: There should be a panel of people to counteract the panel of people making the policy.

Ca: It’s like parliament, not every teacher is represented by these people making policies so to be democratic you must listen to both. It’s undemocratic, I am told and have been told constantly all my teaching life what to do! I can interpret some of it in my own way but very little of it can I not perform.

B: But it’s what I get upset about, it’s who is telling me, if you read the integration document that came from the department. Right at the top of the tree, it’s discriminatory to offer special placement and then parents have a right to have a say in the education of their child. I don’t disagree with that because I certainly have some input into the education being offered to my children. but the point is if you look to where the classroom teacher is, the person who is going to have this child in their class six hours a day, you look on the hierarchy where they are located, after you have consulted with this person, and this person, and this person, right at the bottom, the person who is going to do all the work, guess what, no consultation at all.

J: The one who has to have this child in their class with 28, 29, 30 other children in the class.

B: Who have had no training, who may or may not relate well to children with special needs, and there you are, you are on the bottom of the heap.

Ca: I don’t necessarily feel that the people telling me what to do know better or more that me...

B: I don’t either.

Ca: …and that’s where the problem lies.

F: The second part of the question was under what conditions would you be involved and it seems to be if you are heard?

Agreement by the group.

J: And if you feel strongly enough about it.

F: So under conditions where you feel you wouldn’t be listened to there is no point in participating in the process, but if you feel you were going to be heard then there may be a point of participating in the process. So when we get to the fact that people don’t participate it’s because they don’t feel there is any point.

J: Or they think the policy is good. I don’t have a problem with the code of conduct. Some policies are fair enough. If you feel strongly yes you should participate.

Appendices
Ca: I did actually write to the local member over an issue some years ago and got a severe reprimand from the Cluster Director with my principal. I think the issue was that we put it on school letterhead, which was silly, but our points were valid, but our points were swept aside.

F: So that gets back to the democratic process and they employ us and expect a certain amount of loyalty, but does that give them the right to tell us what we should and shouldn’t say. I suppose there is a fine line there.

V: Does that mean we can never ever be a private citizen in matters of education?

Ca: That is exactly what I was told, I am not a private citizen.

F: So in fact the thing that you know most about you are not allowed to comment on.

Agreement by the group.

Ca: That intimidated me for quite a long time, so the question you are asking here is why would you bother, after that it was very interesting ...

C: I think also in industry having to be employed by an employer and they are the boss in a factory and the workers are quite happy to be told every day and they would never question ...

J: Or it’s a safety issue ...

C: ...whereas we are all educated people and you tend to question and I think that’s probably why it’s a political issue and they just follow the policy of the day and they’re not giving us any say whatsoever or there would be too many people having a say.

L: If there are too many people we will never get a decision.

F: We have been talking about it from an individual rights perspective, but there is another way of entering the policy debate, collectively. An article by the Deputy Director General says that teachers need to win legitimacy with policy-makers as a group and part of this study looks at what knowledge might be useful to do that. Please read the following information from the literature. Explanation of some sections.

HAND OUT POLICY CURRICULUM OUTLINE

F: Let’s assume that that is taught at a Masters course or in teaching training. Perhaps what is missing is this sort of knowledge. So teachers when they come out they know about curriculum, but what do they understand about the actual citizenship of the system they are going into? My perception is that people are socialized into the system and they
are socialised into ways of thinking about ways they can influence decisions which is, that we really can’t. So what would the system be like if everyone had that knowledge?

V: Perhaps it would be anarchy (laugh).

F: Would you perceive that the information is of any use?

Ca: Well it depends, perhaps if we were empowered to have influence. It may teach skills and give information but if we are not empowered in any way to use them...

F: It’s difficult to give power in the policy world; essentially you take it.

V: Take it (agreement by the group).

F: I believe that you take it by knowing so much about the way the system operates that it is impossible to ignore it.

V: Well I tried to.

J: I can’t imagine a young teacher out could use this kind of knowledge. I think you need a certain amount of experience through the years in order to become a decision-maker. You have quite a few years of experience sitting in front of you here whereas if you asked young people they would take the opinion that they would rather have other people making decisions for them because they need that kind of guidance in the early years.

V: Also think about a young person comes onto a staff and tells everybody how to make their policies.

F: That’s individual differences some people can have a lot of knowledge and not sprout it.

Ca: There are a lot of younger teachers who have a lot more to offer than we do.

Agreement by the group.

L: There are not a lot of younger teachers in this area which is a problem. I can remember vividly going through college, thinking that was the main reason I was there to be socialized into how you become a teacher. I can remember being asked by someone, how are you finding college? My main feeling was that I was being indoctrinated to be a teacher and to have the right outlook on social issues and I didn’t resent it but I felt that was their main purpose.

B: Do you think if you asked students today they would feel the same?

L: I don’t know if anyone else felt that we never discussed it.
B: Oh yes, I think there was a very strong feeling that you were being inducted into the system; the system didn’t alter you were the one fitting in and I’m not sure if you asked students today they would feel the same.

L: You had to have the right social outlook.

F: What do we do education for? What do you educate kids for?

B: To make them think.

J: To equip them for their adult life.

Ca: To teach them how to learn.

F: If I were to say to you that the policies indicate that we educate for the economic needs of the nation, how would you feel about that?

V: That is what a lot of Universities have become. It is no longer socially acceptable to go to University just to be educated, you go to get a job.

Ca: It goes against every philosophy I ever had about education.

B: That’s right.

F: But this is in documents such as the Dawkins White Paper. When he actually spoke about the purpose of education and the economic needs of the nation.

V: Well I totally disagree with that.

Ca: I think there would be a lot of teachers who would just accept that and say yes.

C: I think a lot of parents think that education is just so their children can get a job and the better educated the better job.

V: And they want their children to have a better job than they did.

C: Well why do a lot of children go to private schools?

F: The basis behind this material is to place all this material in a structure so that when you go into the system you can actually question it, by having knowledge of the way the world operates. If you do it in a smart way you can develop enough knowledge to influence policy-makers. It doesn’t happen overnight. The more people with knowledge means you gradually win legitimacy and start to say we can do things a different way. In this way policy starts to be derived from the people who actually do the job.
F: If you think of policy in stages. Formation, Formulation and Implementation, all we do is implement; what I am saying is there are these two other stages we could be involved in.

Ca: As long as we are public servants, we are employees, we are restricted in what we can do. I often think that as teachers we have the future of the world in our hands at any given time during the day. If teachers aren't empowered to have some sort of influence in how we teach, what we teach, and more importantly why we teach. I've thought that for a long time that I am just a public servant.

F: So is the material of any use?

B: I would go with providing this in teacher training but what the individual does with it is up to them. Some would be committed, some would just go along. If you gave them all of this in teacher training which is the only opportunity to do that, then it's up to them. I don't think that is important however, it is that they have the opportunity.

V: To draw it to their attention is important.

Ca: Why do people become teachers? I think some do just for an easy life.

J: Where do they find that?

V: I think they have been gypped!

Ca: But they do have an easy life if you take it easy. It's largely up to the individual.

L: My experience is that the people who want to get into policy-making very quickly get out of the classroom.

B: Well that is logical if they know as a classroom teacher they don't have a lot of influence. They get out.

C: And then they get out of touch with reality.

END
APPENDIX E

TRANSCRIPT OF FOCUS GROUP TWO

F: The first questions are could you identify some policies under which you operate, and how do you think these policies affect your role as teacher, what policies are there and how do they affect your role?

V: When you say policies what exactly do you mean by policies?

F: What I mean by policies includes curriculum and any sort of policy which determines the way you do your job.

B: The IR\(^4\) policy, the literacy strategy, all those kinds of things would be the core influences.

L: And we have all been influenced recently by the drug education and the child protection policy.

F: So there are a range of things there and you could probably continue and list a large number. So how do you think that these policies effect you in your role, what do they do?

V: They give us a guideline for a start and you know with the English syllabus that has come out, that’s quite a good document.

B: They sometimes prescribe what actually has to be taught.

Agreement by the group.

P: They provide the focus. With the English syllabus, for example, in writing it listed specific topics that were requested to teach, styles of writing, that sort of thing adds a bit of a focus to it.

F: If we were to talk about policies and I talked about them in the broad sense including curriculum and all the things that direct us to do the things that we do, the consensus is that they provide some sort of framework or guidance or guidelines for the way that we do our job.

Agreement by the group.

\(^4\) IR Intensive Reading program.
F: What level of importance does that have in terms of the way we do our job?

B: Well what I have to say in relation to that is that there are policies on a very wide range of things and I think that personally my awareness of policies, I'm aware of the ones that are specific to the role that I have, like there are other policies and I know that they're, there and I know you can go and look them up and find out what the policy is but I'm not necessarily going to do that.

F: I'll just show you one policy. This policy is the code of conduct. Is everybody aware that this exists? I've actually only copied a little bit of it, it's quite a comprehensive document.

(Hands out document)

(No response by the group, policy has not been seen).

R: I haven't actually seen it before until I had a need for it (laugh).

F: This was a big deal, it had blue writing with a white cover, it was one of the more important documents, and I think it was negotiated with Federation. I'd just draw your attention to over the page and I'd like to look as some of the issues here 2.5 (read 2.5).

P: That first sentence, I don't see how any government can make me cognizant of the policies. Does that mean I've got to promote them?

F: Supportive of the Department of Education and the government.

B: It implies that you have to promote the policies but it doesn't actually say, but it fairly strongly implies that doesn't it.

F: Also 2.7 is an issue people may not be aware of (read 2.7).

V: It's a directive isn't it.

F: My question is, not related to the pros and cons of the policy, we're not here to debate that, but my question is can you influence policy-making in respect of these policies? Do you feel there is any way you could have an input or a say in this policy or any other policies that the department produces?

P: Yeah, you could just ignore it.

V: You could write to your local member.

B: If there are 50,000 teachers in NSW, you might have a one in 50,000th influence but you don't get a sense of having personal input, you're just one voice among many.
R: But you can if you do write to your local member; we hear of numerous letters written.

B: I wasn’t thinking of writing to your local member.

F: Do you know that you are not allowed to write to your local member on education issues?

P: Officially?

F: Yes, officially.

P: But as a private citizen?

F: You’re not allowed to because your not a private citizen in terms of education.

B: What about if you go home and write a letter at home?

F: It makes no difference.

V: Her letters to us (local member) always say if you have any problems etc etc.

E: Federation involve themselves for example with post cards on various issues to be sent off.

F: You can do it through Federation, but in a private capacity you are not allowed to write to your local member because you are an employee of the government therefore any correspondence would need to go through the District Superintendent. If for example you wrote to the local member you may get a reprimand for doing that and some staff has.

B: But it begs the question where do you draw the line? Obviously you can write regarding road works going through your local area, but when does it become an education issue, if the road works affect the school.

F: I think matters related specifically to education are the issues.

L: Can I just say that I don’t think that given that code of conduct, and you are aware that there isn’t much of a forum for you to make an opinion or object other than through Federation. Where is the forum?

B: Well I was going to say, when I said before that I think there are mechanisms by which you can have an input, I wasn’t thinking politically. I was thinking within the system. There are mutual invitations to contribute to policy documents or curriculum documents and usually things like the K-6 English document for example involve teachers participating in the production of that.
F: So there are some circumstances in which you can participate but the nature of the document itself is already pre-determined and what they may do is select teachers to participate who will co-operate with the guidelines already established. So in a sense there is no grassroots support. There are a group of 50,000; teachers within that group there is an enormous amount of experience and relating that experience into a policy document. What I'm interested in is the mechanism the average teacher has, in the classroom, to influence policy.

V: Not much.

Y: With everything you do you don't have to dot every 'i' and cross every 't', you can always have your own hidden agenda.

P: A passive resistor.

B: That doesn't change policy, you just get away with not following policy.

P: If you don't believe that policy will work and we have people like you that will do your own thing we might as well throw it out the window.

B: I'll vote for that.

Laughter.

L: Or is it more powerful the school then interprets the policy because that's the only level that you can have much input, I would think because the documentation that comes down lately often says it's in consultation with teachers and parents and you beg the question, where?

B: Well that's another thing, you know the quality of a lot of the policy, the tone of a lot of the policy is to have very broad general direction and that leaves a lot open to interpretation and that's where I think you're right you can have a lot of input into policy, you can have impact into the implementation of it.

F: My experience is that when you see teachers and they are confronted with documents like the literacy document, some say it's good and others say why are we doing this. I've been teaching literacy for twenty years and here we have this document suddenly arrive and where the hell did it come from and what investment do I have in implementing this.

B: I think a classic example of what you're talking about is the grammar and the debate, that was clearly a University debate that was going on.

R: That was changed and I think that was changed because of teacher resistance to it.

B: It was changed.
R: So teachers in general did influence that a great deal.

F: Do you think that teachers would in general be satisfied with the input they have into decisions that are made in education?

R: They don’t have much input into it apart from that particular case, because that was an extreme example.

F: So are we saying that when something is bad enough...?

R: When it’s bad enough teachers will get together which happened in that particular case.

F: But the rest of it blows over it’s OK and accepted?

B: I think there are a lot of areas of policy where teachers are happy to leave it to the experts, you mentioned the sexual assault issue before. I think teachers want to be aware of it and discuss the issues but I don’t think a lot of teachers feel that it’s their role to set the direction as far as that’s concerned.

P: Yeah, I’ve heard a lot of comments lately that people are saying, “Why don’t they just tell us what they want us to teach?” Instead of having us sitting down here and then doing the same at another school, doing the same thing. Why don’t they just have a central location and just tell us what they want us to teach?

F: But even if it is child protection... My next question is should teachers be able to have a role or some influence in policy making? There is a dispute about child protection, on the one hand they might say tell us what to do, but not when something happens to them and it backfires. So now there is a debate raging about the case management unit.

V: Isn’t that another example of teachers influencing policy, but then there doing that through Federation.

F: The Federation’s influence tends to be if you want to influence within the defined agendas of Federation, then yes that’s fine, but if you don’t have that political persuasion that Federation has and you’re not interested in the defined agendas that Federation are pursuing then you can’t take part.

B: It’s a little bit like saying, question as a member of the public and you have a government of the day, how much influence do I have over that government? You have certain restricted mechanisms by which you can influence the government. You can go to your local member. If it’s not politically useful for them to take up and if you have some crackpot point of view you get ignored.

F: But in many other professions, if I were in the medical profession, I would have a profound influence on my practice ...
B: Perhaps we would need to compare teachers with doctors in public hospitals, you know that they're limited to a degree.

R: But don't they have their own professional body? So individual Doctors wouldn't necessarily have that influence either, people involved in the AMA, which would be similar to Federation in some ways.

F: If the principle is correct that there are 50000 teachers in NSW and they have a range of skills and knowledge about things that are happening which is directly related to their practice, how do we make use of that? Are we making use of that? Or do we just say here is a group of people who we just say, they have to be told what to do?

B: One of the really important things, issue, is that, using that analogy of the medical profession versus teachers, the medical profession, they have a guiding mechanism through scientific principle, and pretty defined areas of knowledge. In education there are differences of opinion about many things including teaching techniques and there is research about what's the best way to do lots of things and for many issues teachers are divided. We're not a group of 50000 people with expert knowledge which we all share and that people outside teaching don't share and that we're all in agreement, where the medical profession more like accountants have specific defined ways of doing things.

F: So are we saying that teachers should do as their told, that basically other people decided what we do and we do it? Do you think people would be satisfied with that proposition?

B: Depends who are the other people?

F: Well we know who the other people are.

B: The other people are the political process which is every one, it's parents, it's teachers, it's politicians that set the education agendas.

L: But I think you look at those 50000 teachers they're quite an untapped resource aren't they, I mean they are highly trained a lot currently, you look at the average age is 45, they have this 20 years of experience behind them and a lot of them become easy to satisfy through the years. I mean we've all seen that, I think the very nature of what we are talking about is that they haven't been used any further than perhaps being dictated to, so I find in my role that often I'm dictated to in terms of policy and you find that if you are constantly being dictated to and you are no longer responsible...

B: I agree, I guess maybe one of the things that occurs to me when you say teachers, I think of the good teachers out there in the classroom doing the hard slog face-to-face every day. When I first joined the education department there was a much bigger and stronger bureaucracy and you can argue if that is a good thing or a bad thing, but I think that the senior people, the senior people who worked their way through the senior
positions and had expertise and were maybe in state office gaining expertise and liaising
with University and finding out what was best practice, in certain areas, they were
listened to. To my mind the biggest change is not so much that it’s really different for
teachers in the classroom, because to my mind teachers have always copped, ‘this is the
direction we are going’. The difference is that it used to be a bureaucracy that said it, now
it is a political system saying it and I think that when the bureaucracy said it the people in
the bureaucracy had been teachers and they had expertise and they had an educational
point of view. There was also more consistency in the longer term and they weren’t going
to chop and change every six months. Whereas now that a minister can come in and you
have a change of government and overnight a policy can change. There was more
consistency in policy setting.

F: So we’re getting down here to the issue which is fundamental. Should there not be a
place for educational issues which balance those political issues, should there not be
50000 people providing a balancing argument so there are educational not just political
issues? P for example has been in the classroom longer than most here and I can ask him
whether he feels he should have had input into the sort of decisions that have been made
around him?

P: Well I suppose I make the decision in the classroom, so the policy comes down and I
might read it, or I might not read it, but I suppose where my influence lies is translating it
to my style of teaching and what I want to teach the kids, whether I find it appropriate for
the kids, so their might be a whole heap of things in the syllabus that I don’t teach I might
decide to teach something differently. There has been more pressure with the English
however the rest to my mind has been my decision w  hat to teach.

F: I’ve had a lot of comments made to me that about a fair degree of cynicism within the
department of education, because of the politicization of education, so people are not
necessarily happy but they don’t necessarily know where to direct the response. And I
think this is the issue that we were talking about before, should their be a counter balance,
not just you translating policy, but saying I’ve 20 years experience and so does the person
next door, shouldn’t that translate into part of a voice...

B: In a sense what you are saying is that because people who work in the system, they
have educational experience, then they should have a louder voice in the system than say
a person on the street.

F: Exactly, in a sense because of the fact that we invest a lot in training teachers and what
is the point in investing in training people for four years to do the job and continuing the
training in in-service education. The Department says that it is a professional
responsibility to keep up with current practice and develop expertise in these areas but
then what do they do with it? What do highly educated people do when they are in a
situation where they can’t influence the nature of their work? I think that’s a problem.
P: But that’s when you make a decision to discard what they are telling you because if you don’t think it’s appropriate and you don’t want to listen to my voice, I’ll teach what I want to teach, I’ll teach the way I’ve been teaching for 20 years.

F: I guess the point is are people satisfied with that situation?

B: People are alienated from the system aren’t they?

P: Not necessarily alienated but I think they are working within the system.

R: I think teachers have just become complacent, for that reason that you just said, they can’t influence so why bother, so they do what P does (laughter).

B: I had someone say today that you should be a healthy sceptic rather than an old cynic.

Y: Well if you are in a school there are a lot of other teachers around. If people are worried about something they tend to talk about it and bounce the ideas around, its not just the one person being concerned about an issue. It’s people in the staff room talking about and issue and they might just bring something up and they tend to talk about the pros and cons and discuss the issue.

F: Someone mentioned before, about alienation or isolation from the department. I don’t know if you have heard the expression but people refer to “the department” however people who are doing that are teachers they are the department.

P: How long [ago] have they been teachers when we talk about the Department we are talking about people who hang around [head office] the George Greens or the Ken Bostons and how long has it been since they have been in the classroom if ever?

F: Exactly but when we talk about “the department”, but what the George Greens and the Ken Bostons might say is you’re the department. We are the department. So in fact what we are saying, there is a clear distinction and alienation. There are the decision-makers and these are the group of people who are not.

B: Doesn’t this happen in other organizations, if you take large organizations who also pour lots of money into training their staff? The rationale is that they want their staff to competently carry out the policies of that organization, but the policy isn’t at all influenced by the staff that works there. They are employed to do a job and are highly trained and yet the decision-making is made by a board, it’s a very small group of people compared to the size of the organization.

F: But modern management styles are moving away from that, even on the production line, and saying you’re providing feedback on how we can improve the production line.

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5 George Green is a senior NSW DET officer at Assistant Director-General level.
6 Ken Boston is the Director General and most senior officer in the NSW DET.
Allowing that feedback even from the guy operating the automatic welder who says hang on a minute we can save $50000 dollars by doing it this way.

R: And having shares in the company too.

B: But that's when I said that I think there were mechanisms to feedback any policies, that's where I think the department, they do that, they do invite comment within defined parameters. They may not say do you think that teachers should be mandatory reporters of child sexual abuse? They make a policy statement to say yes you must, that's a political decision but within that they say OK let's have teachers involved in working out how do we identify and how do we implement, that sort of stuff. So I think they do within defined parameters.

F: In order to do that, if teachers were to do that, because not all teachers can, what sort of skills do you think that those people would need?

B: Sorry, to do what?

F: To influence policy, what sort of skills do you think they would need?

R: Assertiveness and being a negotiator and knowledge.

B: I think they need to have particular knowledge of the area the policy is going to be made about, they need to have expert knowledge.

R: Don't the PEO's and SEO's have influence over policy though, you know, ....she has had some influence over the restructuring, they have come from teaching a teaching background.

F: I'm interested in teachers in the classroom, they're the ones that have the day-to-day contact and there is some view which suggests that if you have day-to-day contact you should be providing some feedback about the effect of these policies.

B: But does classroom teaching experience provide you with any better skills to make public policy than a politician's got or another member of the public? All that classroom teaching practice does is give you lots of expertise about teaching practice and the management of children and that kind of thing, but does it give you any particular skills in making decisions like should teachers be mandatory reporters of child sexual assault? I don't know that it does.

F: The issue though is should you divorce the policy-making from the implementation? An analogy is that if someone designs a car and they say that is the policy on the car we are going to have, and they translate it to the person on the shop floor, and it's got like square wheels, because the two processes are divorced from one another, when does the

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7 Principal Education Officer.
8 Senior Education Officer.
feedback occur to say, "Hang on a minute, It's got square wheels!" That's an extreme example but surely there is some link between this process which decides what we do and doing it.

R: Like who determined that we needed a new English syllabus, like where did that come from? We may not have needed one.

L: Media hype, kids can't spell, the public decides.

R: The media have a lot of influence.

L: There's pressure and then someone hands down an edict and we all have to carry it out.

R: So teachers don't have much say.

Y: And they're always running news items about testing.

R: That was a rhetorical question, I know how the system works and a lot of it is media pressure.

B: But how did those decisions used to be made? Because when the system was less political and I'm talking about 15 years ago it was a lot less political. Decisions about a curriculum document would be made by policy-makers within the upper echelons of the department, they would be people within the department, they wouldn't be politicians but is that any better process? I suppose that politicians would argue that it is a much better process in terms of what the public has to say.

F: So if the media have any influence, we have a number of pressure groups, gay and lesbians, Aboriginal, multicultural groups, gender equity have an influence, but if you go through the list of people who have influence, there are 50000 teachers there, they have a stake in it, they're the ones who have direct contact with classroom kids every day. Also we're the balance to the political and economic issues.

R: They have an influence as the public as citizens in their vote and through Federation.

L: But given that in the political climate that we teach within today, we've got incredible pressure within the school, that's the level that we operate at. There is pressure with each teacher within that school to behave increasingly more professional and therefore the only way about that, that I can see, and I've not discussed this early, is that I have a problem with the Federation being a voice for my concerns. I wouldn't want to go that way, but I'm very aware that I work for the school and I'm paid to work for the school, so surely there has to be more power given to the schools. Maybe that when the policy and the pressure comes down to the school level, two things. I suppose if we're trained to be more aware of policy in terms of our professionalism maybe then we have input to interpret that as a body, and schools don't have that power do they?
F: When you talk about the vote, the specific policy decisions aren't necessarily affected by the vote, if I'm a member of a gay and lesbian lobby group, and I'm not suggesting I am, then I would be free with my group to lobby the Minister and through the media generate political interest and then the Minister may say that we need anti-homophobia laws.

B: And through Teachers Federation, we as teachers can do that to.

F: Within the defined agendas of Federation.

R: But teachers would be included in the gay and lesbian group

B: But gay and lesbian groups have their defined agendas also.

F: Federation are also pursuing benefits for their members and it's very difficult to do the two at once, to get a wage rise and have an input into decisions as well, because it tends to set a combative style.

B: I think and an analogy to this would be parents who send their kids to school. And I think every parent has a view about things and if you make the analogy that the parents are like the teachers and the principal is like the Minister, power resides with the principal to make policy or to implement policy and you take a single parent out of the parent body who doesn't like the uniform or objects to something. What power do they have? What mechanisms do they have? They can go through the school council, it's the same kind of thing.

F: There's no analogy there because in fact an individual parent has quite a bit of power in respect of what I do. I know that if I got an aggressive parent on the phone I'd be wanting to deal with it. And I'm sure that the Minister wouldn't be the least bit concerned with the fact that I was concerned that he has introduced the back-to-school allowance. The analogy doesn't apply, because that's the very point that teachers don't have a voice. The other lobby groups have a voice but teachers really don't unless they go through the defined agendas of Federation.

B: But what's the difference between the defined agendas of Federation and those other groups?

F: I think that Federation are pursuing benefits for their members and that produces a barrier to the more professional approaches that might be adopted.

B: Well sure but the AMA pursue benefits for their members.

F: It's also true that the Federation are a partisan political organization and no one would dispute that they support the left of politics. So in fact if there is an issue where political

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5 Australian Medical Association.
agendas are at stake and say for example I wanted to take up an agenda against the Labor government, then it is unlikely to see the light of day through Federation, whereas if the Liberals were in power then any particular issue might be on the agenda.

B: I can see an argument that the mechanism that we have in our professional body, the Teachers Federation, is maybe not effective in doing the job that we would like it to do, but it still doesn’t mean we don’t have a channel for doing it, but it’s perhaps ineffective.

L: And it’s unlikely to change.

Y: But there are other ways teachers have professional associations, when changes come through they write out for feedback from their members, but the big problem is that teachers don’t have time to do that, there is little time to respond.

R: That’s how they always do that, when they send something out for consultation, they always do it at the end of the year, usually. Or over the holidays, and you wonder if that is purposely done.

F: I guess we can move on.

P: A question is though, do teacher’s want to, would they want to be involved in the policy process?

F: That’s a good point. What people generally say is that if it affects me, and I have an interest in it, and if I think that what I am going to say is going to have an impact, then yes I do.

B: If you look at people’s knowledge of policy they’re going to be much more familiar with policy that affects them.

F: Exactly, some people are not going to care about the code of conduct, some people are not going to care about an input into the Child Protection, but other people are going to care very much about having an input into the dance curriculum. But if there are people who care, they have skills, expertise and knowledge perhaps they should have input. I’d like to take up a broader issue.

F: I’d like you to have a quick look at this.

Hands out policy curriculum summary.

F: If teachers were in fact to influence policy, what is it that they would need to know? We talked a little bit about this and you said assertiveness etc what I am saying gets back to the issue of interest and before teachers go into a system which is highly political should they not know something about how you operate within that system, to affect policy? So this may be taught at even a Masters level.
Outline policy curriculum elements.

B: I think that you would see a difference if you surveyed private schools. I think they would perceive that they have more influence and so on and perhaps feel more professionally satisfied.

F: The question that I have and the purpose for giving it out, was to ask if any of that material would be useful, do you think, to educators coming into a system who don’t understand the political process, what’s occurring around them, the influences on government, is that going to be useful to teachers?

R: I think it would.

L: Because they tend to learn it once they’re in and no one’s providing it, it’s a bit ad hoc.

F: I don’t think people do learn it actually; they learn some things through hard experience.

B: I think you need to ask a beginning teacher, but it would be my perception that a beginning teacher has other priorities than to be worrying about stuff like this.

P: I think some of the ideas behind this were in my course, but I don’t know if they were relevant once I got out into the classroom because the problem is shutting Johnny up at the back or getting work to the kids.

R: It’s got to have that background though.

P: I don’t think it really starts to become useful until you are starting to chase promotion or something like that.

F: What we are talking about is preparing people to go into a system that they are going to spend a lot of time in, this may be more relevant at Masters level, when they are developing their professional skills and they do want to have an influence on what is happening.

B: They are more the sort of skills that you want in leadership positions.

END